

1 **Integrated nutrient management and urea deep placement improve rice yield, nitrogen**  
2 **use efficiency and farm profits without affecting methane emissions in saline soils of**  
3 **Bangladesh**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 Soil salinity is one of the major yield-limiting factors in the coastal ecosystems of Bangladesh.

17 An efficient fertilizer management practice and selection of appropriate crop cultivar could

18 play a crucial role to improve yield and promote low-carbon agriculture across saline soils. A

19 two-year multi-location field experiment was conducted during the Boro (dry) season to

20 investigate the effects of fertilizer management and rice cultivar selection on rice yield,

21 economic viability, and environmental sustainability in coastal saline soils of Bangladesh. The

22 study included seven fertilizer treatments with varying nitrogen rates and sources, as well as

23 two rice cultivars (BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88). The results showed that integrated

24 nutrient management (INM-N84) significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increased rice yield and nitrogen use

25 efficiency (NUE) compared to other treatments for both BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88.

26 Similarly, INM-N84 gave a higher return on fertilizer investment and marginal benefit-cost

27 ratio than other treatments in both locations and under both cultivars. BRRI dhan67

28 outperformed BRRI dhan88, significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increasing rice yield by 21% and 52% at

29 the BRRI farm and Kaliganj in Satkhira, respectively. Cost-dominant analysis excluded BRRI

30 dhan88 and all fertilizer treatments, except UDP and INM-N84, from consideration in both  
31 locations. Consequently, INM-N84 and UDP proved to be economically viable in both  
32 locations, with INM showing a higher marginal rate of return than UDP in BRRRI dhan67. In  
33 terms of environmental sustainability, UDP significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduced global warming  
34 potential (GWP) and yield-scaled emissions (YSE) of  $\text{CH}_4$  by 31% and 38% without causing  
35 yield loss compared to INM-N84. Similarly, BRRRI dhan67 significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduced  
36 GWP and YSE of  $\text{CH}_4$  by 5 and 22% compared to BRRRI dhan88. These findings suggest that  
37 selecting optimal rice cultivars and implementing appropriate fertilizer management practices  
38 can enhance economic profitability, ensure food security, and mitigate the adverse effects of  
39 climate change in coastal saline soils.

40 **Keywords:** BRRRI dhan67; BRRRI dhan88; farmers' practice; yield-scaled emissions; marginal  
41 rate of return; risk analysis

## 42 **1. Introduction**

43 Soil salinity is one of the major challenges to sustainable crop production in coastal regions  
44 ([Rahman et al., 2018](#)). Increasing soil salinity is associated with rising sea levels, and intrusion  
45 of seawater, which is directly affected by climate change ([Cassia et al., 2018](#)). Salinity level  
46 further increased with the increased temperature once evapotranspiration is higher than rainfall  
47 and/or irrigation. Salinity affects both crop productivity and soil health. Worldwide, soil  
48 salinity is one of the major environmental factors contributing to a severe loss of crop yield  
49 due to the changes in plant-water relations, ion concentrations, and ratios of ions in plant tissues  
50 ([Islam et al., 2022a](#)).

51 The coastal regions in the world, many of which are significant crop production locations, are  
52 more vulnerable due to their low elevation and shallow saline groundwater, which causes soil  
53 salinization ([van der Zee Sjored et al., 2017](#)). Soil salinity is a serious constraints to crop  
54 productivity in the coastal area of Bangladesh ([Rahman et al., 2020](#)). This area covers more

55 than 30% of the country's cultivable land, and 63% of this coastal area is affected by various  
56 degrees of salinity and reducing potential of agriculture (SRDI, 2010). Cropping intensity in  
57 this area is low relative to the other parts of Bangladesh due to a shallow saline water table, a  
58 lack of fresh irrigation water in the Rabi/Boro (dry) season, poor drainage facilities, improper  
59 soil management, and unavailability of salt-tolerant cultivars (Bell et al., 2019). In addition,  
60 delays in establishing rabi crops due to excess water at the end of the Aman (wet) season  
61 decrease the crop yield and increase the risk of crop damage caused by high salinity and pre-  
62 monsoon rainfall (Islam et al., 2022b). Furthermore, farmers cannot cultivate Boro rice due to  
63 the scarcity of fresh irrigation water in this season. Therefore, most farmers leave the land  
64 fallow in the dry season and cultivate only Aman rice in the wet season.

65 In the coastal area, the groundwater table is shallow (Islam et al., 2022b), and the soil salinity  
66 varies seasonally (SRDI, 2010); thus, soils not supporting for sustainable crop production.  
67 However, there are different approaches and strategies are available to cope with agriculture  
68 production in saline soil. For example, use of salt-tolerant cultivar is one of the most effective  
69 approach to combat salinity. Similarly, drainage, surface or subsoil, is another effective way to  
70 alleviate salinity (Islam et al., 2022b). Leaching is the most common method to reclaim saline  
71 soil, in which non-saline or slightly saline water and gypsum are applied to the soil surface to  
72 leach the salt level (Ghafoor et al., 2012, Shaygan and Baumgartl, 2022). In addition, use of  
73 organic matter amendment is another important way to improve plant growth in saline soil, as  
74 they enhance salt leaching and improve soil quality, i.e., physical, chemical, and biological  
75 (Walker and Bernal, 2008; Mao et al., 2022).

76 However, all methods may not be suitable, sustainable, and environmentally friendly for all  
77 regions worldwide. For example, all salt-tolerant genotypes may not perform equally across  
78 different regions and may not be profitable to farmers. Drainage, particularly subsoil drainage,  
79 may not be suitable for poor and smallholder farmers as it is expensive and may not be

80 environmentally friendly due to the chance of polluting water (Islam et al., 2022b). Salt  
81 leaching through chemical amendment (gypsum) may not be effective in heavy textured soil  
82 (Shaygan and Baumgartl, 2022), and subsurface drains may require achieving effective  
83 leaching.

84 Saline soils, contain excess neutral soluble salts, which interfere with the normal nutrition of  
85 crops (e.g., Na against K and phosphate against chloride). Salinity also interferes with the  
86 activities of the soil's microbial population and thus hamper the plant nutrient transformation  
87 (e.g., decreased nitrification rate). Therefore, proper fertilizer management which is readily  
88 available to farmers, affordable (cheap), profitable, and sustainable approach is needed to  
89 increase crop yield and improve farmers' livelihood in the coastal saline area. In addition, the  
90 inefficient and imbalanced use of nitrogen (N) fertilizer could increase environmental pollution  
91 due to an increase of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. previous studies have reported that  
92 urea deep placement (UDP) and/or integrated nutrient management (INM) combining  
93 inorganic and organic manure could be effective to increase crop yield without increasing GHG  
94 emissions (Islam et al., 2020; Ding et al., 2022). In addition to fertilizer management, selection  
95 of appropriate rice cultivars could reduce GHG emissions due to more robust root systems,  
96 which allow more O<sub>2</sub> in the rhizosphere and enhance CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation by the methanotrophs  
97 (Chen et al., 2019; Ding et al., 2022).

98 To the best of our knowledge, there are no studies conducted across saline soils in Bangladesh  
99 to determine the effects of UDP and INM compared to government soil test-based fertilizer  
100 recommendations or farmers' practice on GHG emissions, N use efficiency, and profitability  
101 of rice cultivars. Therefore, the present study was undertaken to find suitable fertilizer  
102 management and rice cultivars for increasing rice yield and economic viability and mitigating  
103 GHG emissions and soil salinity in the coastal saline region of Bangladesh. This study  
104 hypothesized that INM in combination with salt-tolerant rice cultivars would be a suitable

105 technique for reducing soil salinity and GHG emissions, increasing rice yield, and improving  
106 farmers' livelihood in the coastal areas of Bangladesh.

## 107 **2. Materials and methods**

### 108 *2.1. Experimental site and weather conditions*

109 The field experiments were conducted in two locations of Satkhira district, one in the  
110 Bangladesh Rice Research Institute (BRRI) farm (latitude: 22°45'11" N, longitude: 89°6'24"  
111 E), Satkhira Sadar, and another in the farmers' field, Kaliganj (latitude: 22°24'41" N, longitude:  
112 89°6'32" E), during Boro seasons 2019-20 and 2020-21. Boro rice is cultivated during the dry  
113 season; thus, its cultivation completely depends on irrigation. Bangladesh has a humid sub-  
114 tropical monsoon climate and experiences average annual rainfall and temperature of about  
115 200 mm and 25°C, respectively. Daily mean temperature and rainfall data of the experimental  
116 period are illustrated in [Fig. S1](#). The physicochemical properties of soil are shown in [Table 1](#).

117 <Table 1 here>

### 118 *2.2. Experimental design and treatments*

119 Experimental treatments consist of seven fertilizer treatments (main plots) and two rice  
120 cultivars (sub-plots). Fertilizer treatments were a combination of organic and inorganic sources,  
121 including i) farmers' practice (FP) at 138 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>; (ii) deep placement of urea briquette  
122 (hereafter called urea deep placement: UDP) at 78 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>; (iii) OCP fertilizer (9.4% N, 20%  
123 P, 5% S, and 1% Zn) at 110 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>; (iv) soil test based (STB) fertilizer at 120 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>; (v)  
124 integrated nutrient management (INM-N120), consisting 100% STB and ash at 2 t ha<sup>-1</sup>; (vi)  
125 INM-N84, consisting of 70% STB with cow dung and ash at 2 t ha<sup>-1</sup>; (vii) N control at 0 kg N  
126 ha<sup>-1</sup>. The detail of treatments is presented in [\(Table 2\)](#). Among the seven treatments, FP, UDP,  
127 STB, and both INM treatments were considered for the CH<sub>4</sub> gas measurement. A split-plot  
128 design with three replications was used to lay out the treatment combinations. For the UDP  
129 treatment, a 2.7-g urea briquette (compressed of PU) was manually placed 8-10 cm below the

130 soil surface at the center of four rice hills after ten days of transplanting. A 2.7-g urea briquette  
131 with a single application provided 78 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> considering spacing 40 cm × 40 cm (62500  
132 briquettes per ha). The size of the experimental plot was 5 m × 6 m.

133 <Table 2 here>

### 134 2.3. Crop management

135 Two to three rice seedlings per hill of BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88 were transplanted at 20  
136 × 20 cm spacing. BRRI dhan67 can tolerate 12-14 dS m<sup>-1</sup> at the seedling stage and about eight  
137 dS m<sup>-1</sup> at the vegetative to reproductive phase. The average growth duration and yield of BRRI  
138 dhan67 are about 145 days and 6.0 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. In contrast, BRRI dhan88 is a salt  
139 susceptible cultivar whose average growth duration and yield are 142 days and 7.0 t ha<sup>-1</sup>,  
140 respectively. Major crop management practices such as water, weed, and pest management  
141 were maintained as per BRRI's recommendations. Triple super phosphate, muriate of potash,  
142 gypsum, and zinc sulphate were applied as basal during final land preparation. Urea fertilizers  
143 were used as three equal splits 8-10 days after transplanting, at maximum tillering, and panicle  
144 initiation stages. Detailed fertilizer rates from different sources are presented in [Table 2](#).

145 For the INM treatments, well-decomposed cow dung (1.11% N, 0.68% P, and 0.85% K) and  
146 rice husk ash (0.25% P and 1.27% K) were applied during final land preparation. During the  
147 final land preparation, OCP fertilizer was applied. Nutrient contents from organic fertilizer  
148 were adjusted with chemical fertilizer during the calculation of nitrogen use efficiency (NUE).

### 149 2.4. Soil salinity measurement

150 Three soil samples from each plot/sub-plot at 0–15 cm were collected, and then three samples  
151 were blended to make a composite sample. Soils were sampled at ten days intervals throughout  
152 the cropping season. The electrical conductivity (EC<sub>e</sub>) of soil was estimated from saturated soil  
153 paste extract ([Rhoades, 1996](#)) using an EC meter (HI 993310, HANNA model).

154 2.5. Rice yield and grain and straw N content

155 Ten rice hills were selected at random to determine tillers, effective tillers, grains per panicle,  
156 and 1000-grain weight. Rice plants were collected at soil level from 125 hills or 5 square meters  
157 of the center of each plot for grain and straw yield. The straw-weight of 125 hills was taken,  
158 along with sub-samples, and the straw sub-samples were subsequently kept at 70°C for 72  
159 hours. The straw yield was then calculated on an oven dry basis. After being winnowed, the  
160 grains were sun-dried. The yield of rice was calculated and translated to t ha<sup>-1</sup> at 14% moisture  
161 content. The micro Kjeldahl method was used to determine the N content of grain and straw  
162 (Yoshida et al., 1976).

163 2.6. Nitrogen use efficiency

164 Nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) was computed according to Fageria and Barbosa, (2001).

165 Agronomic efficiency of applied N (AE<sub>N</sub>): It is expressed as kg grain kg<sup>-1</sup> N.

166 
$$AE_N = \frac{(G_f - G_c)}{N_t}$$

167 Where,

168 G<sub>f</sub> is the grain yield of the fertilized plot (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>)

169 G<sub>c</sub> is the grain yield of the N control plot (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>)

170 N<sub>t</sub> is the rate of applied N (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>)

171 Apparent recovery efficiency of applied N (ARE<sub>N</sub>): It is expressed as a percentage.

172 
$$ARE_N = \frac{(U_f - U_c)}{N_t} \times 100$$

173 Where,

174 U<sub>f</sub> is the total plant uptake in the fertilized plot (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>)

175 U<sub>c</sub> is the total plant uptake in the N control plot (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>)

176 N<sub>t</sub> is the rate of applied N (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>)

177 Physiological efficiency of applied N (PE<sub>N</sub>): It is expressed as kg grain kg<sup>-1</sup> N uptake.

178 
$$PE_N = \frac{G_f - G_c}{U_f - U_c}$$

179 Where,

180  $G_f$  is the grain yield of the fertilized plot ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ )  
181  $G_c$  is the grain yield of the N control plot ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ )  
182  $U_f$  is the total N uptake of the fertilized plot ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ )  
183  $U_c$  is the total N uptake of the control plot ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ )

184

## 185 2.7. Gas sampling, analysis, and calculation of $\text{CH}_4$ emissions

186 A detailed gas sampling method was described earlier by [Islam et al. \(2020\)](#). In brief,  $\text{CH}_4$  gas  
187 samples were taken using the closed chamber technique. Each chamber had a base (70 L) and  
188 a top (100 L). Each chamber base considering six rice hills was placed in the rice field by  
189 inserting it at 8-10 cm soil depth and was left there throughout the crop growth period. Each  
190 chamber consisted of a battery-powered fan and a thermometer. Gas samples were taken every  
191 seven days intervals using a 50 mL airtight syringe. Three gas samples were taken at 15-min  
192 intervals during each sampling period. Gas samples were collected in 30-mL air-evacuated  
193 glass vials sealed with a butyl rubber septum for laboratory analysis.

194  $\text{CH}_4$  gas concentration was measured using gas chromatography (Shimadzu GC-2014, Japan)  
195 equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID). The slope of the linear regression curves of  
196 gas concentration versus chamber closure time was used to calculate  $\text{CH}_4$  emission rates ([Islam  
197 et al., 2020](#)).

198 The following equation was used to compute the GWP of  $\text{CH}_4$ :

$$199 \text{GWP (kg CO}_2 \text{ equivalent ha}^{-1}\text{)} = (\text{TCH}_4 \times 28)$$

200 Where,  $\text{TCH}_4$  is the total amount of  $\text{CH}_4$  emission ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ ), 28 is the GWP value for  $\text{CH}_4$  to  
201  $\text{CO}_2$  over a 100-year time horizon ([IPCC, 2014](#)).

202 The following equation was used to measure yield-scaled emission (YSE) of  $\text{CH}_4$  ( $\text{kg t}^{-1}$  grain  
203 yield):

$$204 \text{YSE} = \frac{\text{Cumulative CH}_4 \text{emissions}}{\text{Yield}}$$

205 Emission factor (EF) of  $\text{CH}_4$  ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) was determined using the following equation:

206 
$$EF = \frac{\text{Cumulative } CH_4 \text{ emissions}}{\text{Active growth periods}}$$

207 *2.8. Economic analysis*

208 Partial budget analysis was done to determine gross return, gross margin, returns on fertilizer  
209 investment, and marginal benefit-cost ratio (MBCR) in comparison to the N control. The  
210 [supplementary material](#) provides detailed information on the estimation procedures.

211 However, the marginal rate of return (MRR) was calculated subject to the control treatment  
212 and based on the dominance analysis across the cultivars, which were calculated as follows:

213 
$$MRR = \frac{\text{Marginal gross margin of a treatment}}{\text{Marginal cost of the treatment}} \times 100$$

214

215 *2.9. Risk analysis*

216 To assess the economic viability, a stochastic simulation was constructed to evaluate the  
217 consequences of externalities and market uncertainties in rice farming ([Anderson and Dillon,](#)  
218 [1977;](#) [Hardaker et al., 2004;](#) [Chavas et al., 2010;](#) [Sarkar et al., 2022](#)). In this study, the @RISK  
219 Program, integrated with Microsoft Excel and employing Monte-Carlo simulation, was utilized  
220 to simulate the risk-return trade-off associated with seven fertilizer treatments in saline  
221 ecosystems for two rice varieties, namely BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88. The simulation  
222 adopted a triangular probability distribution and generated cumulative probability distribution  
223 functions to evaluate the gross margin of experimental plots ([Hardaker et al., 2004](#)). Moreover,  
224 the study incorporated the distribution of yield and price using the best, typical, and worst  
225 experimental yields, as well as the maximum, most likely, and lowest prices for two different  
226 rice varieties. To ensure the stability of the risk and return trade-off distribution, a total of  
227 10,000 iterations were performed during the simulation ([Lien, 2003](#)).

228

229 *2.10. Data analysis*

230 Data on rice yield and yield contributing characters, NUE, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, emission factors  
231 (EF), global warming potential (GWP), and yield-scaled emission (YSE) were analyzed using  
232 the STAR 2.0.1 program developed by the International Rice Research Institute, Philippines.  
233 A split-plot design was employed for the analysis, utilizing Analysis of Variance (ANOVA),  
234 with fertilizer treatments as the main plot and cultivars as the sub-plots. The data from multiple  
235 years were combined for the analysis. Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test was  
236 considered to separate the treatment means at the 5% probability level.

237 **3. Results**

238 *3.1. Dynamics of soil salinity*

239 Soil salinity was measured from seven fertilizer treatments throughout the rice-growing  
240 seasons at BRRI farm and Kaliganj in Satkhira (Fig. 1). Soil salinity showed a linear increase  
241 over time, reaching its peak after forty days of transplanting. However, the INM treatments  
242 demonstrated a reduction in soil salinity compared to other treatments in both locations. The  
243 levels of soil salinity were higher in Kaliganj compared to the BRRI farm in Satkhira. In 2020,  
244 there was a slight decrease in soil salinity from 55 to 66 days due to rainfall at both the BRRI  
245 farm and Kaliganj in Satkhira. Throughout the year, soil salinity ranged from 3.1 to 7.7 dS m<sup>-</sup>  
246 <sup>1</sup> in Kaliganj, while it varied from 1.9 to 5.5 dS m<sup>-1</sup> at BRRI farm in Satkhira (Fig. 1).

247 <Fig. 1 here>

248 **Fig. 1.** Dynamics of soil salinity in different fertilizer management during the Boro seasons.  
249 FP, UDP, STB, and INM correspond to farmers' practice, urea deep placement, soil test-based,  
250 and integrated nutrient management. Error bar indicates standard error of mean (n = 3).

251

252

### 253 3.2. Yield contributing characters

254 The interaction effect between fertilizer management and cultivar on the tiller, panicle,  
255 unfilled-grain, filled-grain, grain per panicle, and 1000-grain weight was insignificant in both  
256 locations of BRRRI farm (Table S1) and Kaliganj (Table S2) in Satkhira. The higher tiller and  
257 panicle production were observed in INM-N84 treatment (70% STB fertilizer with ash and cow  
258 dung) compared to farmers' practice (FP), OCP fertilizer, and STB treatments at BRRRI farm,  
259 while in Kaliganj, they were higher in INM-N84 compared to all other treatments. Similarly,  
260 the greater filled grain was found in INM-N84 compared to FP and STB treatments,  
261 respectively under both locations. Except for the control treatment, there were no significant  
262 variations observed in the grain per panicle among the other treatments. Similarly, there was  
263 no significant variation observed in the 1000-grain weight across the treatments in both  
264 locations. However, BRRRI dhan67 showed significant improvements ( $p < 0.05$ ) in tiller, panicle,  
265 filled-grain, grain per panicle, and 1000-grain weight compared to BRRRI dhan88. Additionally,  
266 BRRRI dhan67 gave a lower percentage of unfilled grains compared to BRRRI dhan88 in both  
267 locations.

### 268 3.3. Rice yield

269 The fertilizer treatments displayed a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) interaction effect with cultivars on  
270 grain and straw yield in both locations (Tables 3 and 4). At the BRRRI farm, the application of  
271 INM-N84 gave higher grain yield relative to FP, OCP fertilizer, and STB treatments under both  
272 BRRRI dhan67 and BRRRI dhan88. Similarly, INM-N84 produced a higher straw yield compared  
273 to FP and STB treatments for BRRRI dhan67, while no significant variation in straw yield was  
274 observed for BRRRI dhan88. However, across the fertilizer treatments, BRRRI dhan67 produced  
275 a significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher grain and straw yield by 10% and 15%, respectively compared  
276 to BRRRI dhan88 (Table 3).

277 <Table 3 here>

278 In Kaliganj, a higher grain yield was observed in INM-N84 compared to FP and INM-N120  
279 treatments under BRRRI dhan67. Similarly, a higher grain yield was observed in INM-N84  
280 compared to FP and STB treatments (Table 4). As in grain yield, higher straw yield was found  
281 in INM-N84 than FP. Across the fertilizer treatments, BRRRI dhan67 gave a significant ( $p<0.05$ )  
282 increase in grain and straw yield by 18% and 17%, respectively, compared to BRRRI dhan88 in  
283 Kaliganj, Satkhira (Table 4).

284 <Table 4 here>

#### 285 3.4. Total nitrogen uptake and nitrogen use efficiency

286 The interaction between fertilizer management and cultivars had a significant ( $p<0.05$ ) effect  
287 on total nitrogen uptake (TNU), agronomic efficiency of N ( $AE_N$ ), and recovery efficiency of  
288 N ( $RE_N$ ). However, it was found to be insignificant for the physiological efficiency of N ( $PE_N$ )  
289 under both locations (Tables 3 and 4). At the BRRRI farm, both INM treatments gave higher  
290 TNU compared to other treatments for both BRRRI dhan67 and BRRRI dhan88 (Table 3). UDP  
291 and INM-N84 treatments showed similar  $RE_N$  and  $PE_N$ . However, UDP significantly ( $p<0.05$ )  
292 increased  $AE_N$  compared to other treatments for both cultivars. In Kaliganj, INM-N84 resulted  
293 in higher TNU compared to FP for both cultivars (Table 4). The highest  $AE_N$  was observed in  
294 the UDP treatment for BRRRI dhan67, while UDP and INM-N84 treatments showed similar  
295  $AE_N$  for BRRRI dhan88. Both UDP and INM-N84 treatments showed the highest  $RE_N$  compared  
296 to other treatments. There was no significant variation in  $PE_N$  among the treatments. However,  
297 across the fertilizer treatments, BRRRI dhan67 demonstrated a significant ( $p<0.05$ ) increase in  
298 TNU,  $AE_N$ , and  $RE_N$  by 18%, 23%, and 26%, respectively, at the BRRRI farm, and 52%, 109%,  
299 and 85% in Kaliganj compared to BRRRI dhan88 (Tables 3 and 4).

300

301

302 3.5. *CH<sub>4</sub> emissions*

303 CH<sub>4</sub> emission rates varied with fertilizer treatments and rice cultivars (Fig. 2). Two emission  
304 peaks were found in the maximum tillering and flowering stages throughout the rice-growing  
305 seasons irrespective of the cultivars (Fig. 2). The magnitudes of emissions peaks were greater  
306 in both INM treatments compared to the other treatments. However, the lowest CH<sub>4</sub> emission  
307 rates were observed in the UDP treatment across both cultivars (Fig. 2). CH<sub>4</sub> emission rates  
308 dropped during the drying period in both cultivars.

309 The interaction effects of fertilizer and cultivars on cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and emission  
310 factors (EF) were found to be insignificant (Table 5). Across the year and cultivars, UDP  
311 treatment gave lower cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and EF compared to other treatments. The  
312 highest CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and EF were observed in both INM treatments. There was no significant  
313 variation in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions between the FP and STB treatments. While comparing rice varieties,  
314 BRRI dhan67 demonstrated a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and EF by 4.9%  
315 and 5.1%, respectively, compared to BRRI dhan88 (Table 5).

316 <Table 5 here>

317 3.6. *GWP and YSE of CH<sub>4</sub>*

318 Fertilizer management had an insignificant variation with rice cultivars on GWP and yield-  
319 scaled emissions (YSE) of CH<sub>4</sub> (Table 5). The higher GWP and YSE of CH<sub>4</sub> were found in  
320 both INM treatments compared to other treatments. Conversely, lower GWP and YSE were  
321 observed in the UDP treatment compared to other treatments. There were no significant  
322 variations in GWP and YSE between FP and STB treatments. Across the fertilizer management  
323 and year, BRRI dhan67 gave lower GWP and YSE of CH<sub>4</sub> compared to BRRI dhan88.

324

325

### 326 3.7. Economic analysis

327 The higher fertilizer cost was associated with INM-N120 treatment, while the lowest cost was  
328 involved in N control treatment in both locations of the BRRRI farm and Kaliganj in Satkhira  
329 (Table 6). At the BRRRI farm, the highest return to fertilizer investment (RFI) and MBCR was  
330 recorded in INM-N84, followed by UDP treatment for both BRRRI dhan67 and BRRRI dhan88.  
331 In contrast, the control treatment exhibited the lowest RFI and MBCR. Similarly, in Kaliganj,  
332 INM-N84 treatment yielded the highest RFI, which closely approached the RFI of the UDP  
333 treatment for both cultivars. However, the magnitude of gross return, gross margin (GM), RFI,  
334 and MBCR was higher at the BRRRI farm compared to Kaliganj in Satkhira (Table 6).

335 <Table 6 here>

336 Regarding cost-dominant analysis, the fertilizer costs for both cultivars were found to be  
337 similar in both locations (Table S3). Through the cost-dominant analysis, BRRRI dhan88 was  
338 excluded from consideration in both locations, while BRRRI dhan67 remained viable. Similarly,  
339 apart from the control, UDP, and INM-N84 treatments, all other fertilizer treatments were  
340 eliminated. However, INM-N84 exhibited a higher MRR compared to the UDP treatment in  
341 both locations, as shown in Table 7. Therefore, both INM-N84 and UDP treatments have the  
342 potential for higher profitability in both locations.

343 <Table 7 here>

### 344 3.8. Risk analysis

345 At the BRRRI farm in Satkhira, the probability of achieving a gross margin (GM) below the  
346 threshold of 50,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup> was lower for BRRRI dhan67 (3.8%). Conversely, the probability of  
347 GM below the threshold of 50,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup> was higher for BRRRI dhan88 (10.2%) (Fig. 3).  
348 Similarly, BRRRI dhan67 demonstrated a higher probability of achieving a GM above the  
349 threshold of 100,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup> compared to BRRRI dhan88. This indicates that BRRRI dhan67 has

350 a greater chance of attaining a GM above the specified threshold, suggesting potentially better  
351 economic performance in terms of profitability compared to BRRI dhan88 at the BRRI farm  
352 in Satkhira. In terms of fertilizer management, INM-N84 (92.1%) exhibited a higher  
353 probability of achieving a GM above the threshold of 100,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup>, followed by the UDP  
354 (91.0%) treatment, for BRRI dhan67. Similarly, comparable results for GM were observed for  
355 BRRI dhan88 (Fig. 3).

356 <Fig. 3 here>

357 **Fig. 3.** Cumulative probability distribution of gross margin of BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88  
358 at fertilizer management variation in yield at BRRI farm in Satkhira. The middle and bottom  
359 of the figures represent BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88, respectively. Here, BDT denotes  
360 Bangladeshi currency in Taka.

361 In Kaliganj, the probability of achieving a GM above the threshold of 100,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup> was  
362 higher for BRRI dhan67 (37.5%), while it was lower for BRRI dhan88 (4.6%) (Fig. 4).  
363 However, a higher probability of GM above the threshold of 100,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup> was recorded for  
364 INM-N84 (74.7%), followed by the UDP treatment (74.5%) in BRRI dhan67. Similarly, the  
365 probability of GM above the threshold of 100,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup> was higher for INM-N84 (6.5%) in  
366 BRRI dhan88 (Fig. 4).

367 <Fig. 4 here>

368 **Fig. 4.** Cumulative probability distribution of gross margin of BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88  
369 at fertilizer management variation in yield in Kaliganj, Satkhira. The middle and bottom of the  
370 figures represent BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88, respectively. Here, BDT denotes  
371 Bangladeshi currency in Taka.

## 372 4. Discussion

### 373 4.1. Yield and yield contributing characters

374 Our results showed that the combined application of organic and inorganic fertilizers as  
375 integrated nutrient management (INM) and UDP significantly increased rice yield and yield  
376 contributing characters in both rice varieties (BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88) (Tables 3 and  
377 4). The increased yield can be attributed to the decreased soil salinity (Fig. 1) and the increased  
378 tiller and panicle number, filled grain, and grain per panicle observed under the INM treatments  
379 in both locations (Tables S1 and S2). The application of organic manure, in addition to  
380 inorganic fertilizer, could improve the water-holding capacity, soil aggregates, and chemical  
381 and biological properties of saline soil (Yaduvanshi and Swarup, 2005; Mao et al., 2022).  
382 Moreover, the application of cow dung and ash might be played a significant role in improving  
383 the soil permeability and leaching  $\text{Na}^+$  from the exchange site of the soil profile by improving  
384 water movement in the soil (Leogrande and Vitti, 2019; Lee et al., 2022). Furthermore, the use  
385 of cow dung and ash may increase cation exchange capacity and ion adsorption with clay  
386 particles, hence lowering the soluble salt concentration in the soil solution. (Leogrande and  
387 Vitti, 2019). In addition to organic amendment, inorganic amendment under INM treatments  
388 might be considered an important source of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  to replace the exchangeable  $\text{Na}^+$  on the  
389 exchange sites, thus improving soil fertility and enhancing crop growth in saline soils  
390 (Leogrande and Vitti, 2019; Chen et al., 2021).

391 UDP yielded similar results to the INM-N84 treatments for both BRRI dhan67 and BRRI  
392 dhan88 in the studied locations (Tables 3 and 4). The increase in grain yield under UDP  
393 treatment might be associated with a higher number of effective tillers, filled grain, and grain  
394 per panicle production (Tables S1 and S2). This could be attributed to the deep placement of  
395 N fertilizer in the reduced zone, which enables the prolonged presence of non-exchangeable  
396  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the root zone due to contact with the N fertilizer and soil particles and ensures a  
397 continuous supply of N throughout the rice-growing season (Liu et al., 2015). In addition, the  
398 ionic radius of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (0.175 nm) is relatively higher compared to  $\text{Na}^+$  (0.102 nm), and their

399 charges are also similar; hence  $\text{NH}_4^+$  could replace the  $\text{Na}^+$  from the root zone, resulting in  
400 lowering salinity which could enhance root growth and crop development (Sugiura et al., 2021;  
401 Angin et al., 2022). The 1000-grain weight remained consistently stable across all treatments  
402 in this study, which is in line with previous finding (Fageria et al., 2011).

403 Across the fertilizer treatments, BRRi dhan67 produced a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increase in rice  
404 yield by 18% and 45% compared to BRRi dhan88 at the BRRi farm and Kaliganj in Satkhira,  
405 respectively (Tables 3 and 4). The higher yield observed in BRRi dhan67 can be attributed to  
406 its salt-tolerant nature, which contributes to the production of more effective tillers, filled grain,  
407 and grain per panicle, while also reducing the occurrence of unfilled grain. These  
408 characteristics are influenced by the genetic makeup of this particular cultivar, as supported by  
409 the data presented in Tables S1 and S2. Our findings support the previous research (Ali et al.,  
410 2014; Djaman et al., 2019). The salt-tolerant rice cultivars probably translocate less  $\text{Na}^+$  from  
411 the shoot to the roots, allowing more  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  to the shoot instead of  $\text{Na}^+$ . Moreover, they could  
412 belong to a large root surface area for absorbing nutrition from stress conditions and contain  
413 high protein and proline contents that act as a cytoplasmic osmoticum to sustain the osmotic  
414 balance (Ali et al., 2014; Djaman et al., 2019). BRRi dhan67 exhibited a yield variation of only  
415 70% between the two locations, whereas BRRi dhan88 showed a yield variation of 130%  
416 (Tables 3 and 4). This disparity can be attributed to variations in soil salinity levels (Fig. 1). As  
417 BRRi dhan67 is a salt-tolerant cultivar, it showed less yield variation relative to the BRRi  
418 dhan88, a salt-sensitive cultivar.

#### 419 4.2. Nitrogen uptake and NUE

420 In general, the higher N rate showed higher total nitrogen uptake (TNU). Although farmers'  
421 practice (FP) and soil test-based (STB) fertilizers contain higher N rates, they produced lower  
422 TNU compared to the application of organic and inorganic fertilizers as INM treatments in both  
423 locations (Tables 3 and 4). Lower TNU is probably associated with the presence of a higher

424 concentration of soluble salts ( $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) in saline soil, leading to ion  
425 toxicity which inhibits the metabolic process such as protein synthesis and photosynthetic  
426 activities of the cell, resulting in reducing biomass accumulation and translocation, and water  
427 and nutrients uptake (Ismail and Horie, 2017). On the other hand, higher TNU under INM  
428 treatments could be due to reduced soil salinity (Fig. 1) and higher total aboveground biomass  
429 (Tables 3 and 4). Combined application of organic and inorganic fertilizer could improve water  
430 holding capacity, soil enzymatic activities (urease, phosphatase, dehydrogenase), and soil  
431 microbial biomass, which could help to alleviate the negative impacts of salinity by  
432 counteracting osmotic stress, resulting in minimizing nutritional imbalance and enhance  
433 nutrient uptake (Liang et al., 2003; Wichern et al., 2020). Although INM treatment gave higher  
434 rice yield, it produced lower agronomic efficiency of N ( $\text{AE}_\text{N}$ ) due to higher N rates than UDP.  
435 However, UDP and INM-N84 treatments showed similar recovery efficiency of N ( $\text{RE}_\text{N}$ ) could  
436 be associated with higher grain yield and TNU (Tables 3 and 4). Our results align with previous  
437 findings (Liu et al., 2015; Islam et al., 2016, 2018). The reason for higher  $\text{AE}_\text{N}$  and  $\text{RE}_\text{N}$  could  
438 be due to non-exchangeable  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the rhizosphere and larger root volume, which could secrete  
439 proton led to reduced pH in the root zone that favors crop growth under saline soil (Bustamante  
440 et al., 2016), thus improving rice yield and NUE. Similarly, INM treatment reduced soil salinity  
441 (Fig. 1) and could improve soil quality by providing additional C and N to the soil (Chen et al.,  
442 2021), enhancing nutrient uptake and NUE. In contrast, there was no significant variation in  
443 the physiological efficiency of N ( $\text{PE}_\text{N}$ ) between UDP and INM-N84 treatments due to higher  
444 grain yield and TNU (Tables 3 and 4). However, our findings show that BRR1 dhan67 gave a  
445 significant increase in NUE across the fertilizer treatments in both locations compared to BRR1  
446 dhan88.

447  
448

449 4.3. CH<sub>4</sub> emissions

450 Reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and maintaining food security are major concerns in Bangladesh.  
451 Incorporating different fertilizer sources and rice cultivars is seen as a potential solution to  
452 address these challenges. Greater CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in both INM treatments (Table 5) could be  
453 linked to dissolved organic carbon derived from the decomposition of organic substances  
454 leading to additional C substrate for the methanogenic bacteria (Kimani et al., 2020; Islam et  
455 al., 2022a, 2022b). Our results are in line with the previous findings (Islam et al., 2020, 2022c,  
456 2022d). In addition, INM treatments could provide labile organic C, which increases microbial  
457 and enzymatic activities, and reduced redox potential, thus resulting in higher CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
458 (Kimani et al., 2020). In contrast, the UDP treatment significantly (p<0.05) reduced CH<sub>4</sub>  
459 emissions by 17-31% compared to other treatments (Table 5). Lower CH<sub>4</sub> emissions under  
460 UDP treatments might be associated with CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation by the soil methanotrophs due to  
461 increased concentration of non-exchangeable available NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N in the subsurface soil (Bodelier  
462 et al., 2000). In addition, the UDP in the reduced zone (8-10 cm below the soil surface) could  
463 increase total root volume, which increased O<sub>2</sub> availability in the rhizosphere would like to  
464 enhance CH<sub>4</sub> consumption in the subsurface soils and subsequent reduction of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
465 (Gilbert and Frenzel, 1998). Our findings are consistent with the results of the previous  
466 literature (Liu et al., 2020; Islam et al., 2022c, 2022d).

467 Rice cultivars have an important role in regulating CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in rice fields, and significant  
468 variations in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of different rice cultivars have been observed in earlier studies  
469 (Ding et al., 2022; Habib et al., 2023). In our study, BRRI dhan67 significantly (p<0.05)  
470 reduced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by about 5% compared to BRRI dhan88 (Table 5). Since BRRI dhan67  
471 is a salt-tolerant rice cultivar, it produced more yield compared to BRRI dhan88 in saline soil  
472 (Tables 3 and 4). High-yielding rice cultivars could possess low methane transport capacity  
473 (MTC), which could play a significant role to give low CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in BRRI dhan67 (Luke

474 [et al., 2011](#)). Due to coping up salinity, BRR1 dhan67 grew more and stronger root systems that  
475 could transport more O<sub>2</sub> in the rhizosphere soil, and increase soil aeration, thus improving soil  
476 redox potential and creating a suitable environment for the methanotrophs which enhances CH<sub>4</sub>  
477 oxidation ([Chen et al., 2019](#); [Ding et al., 2022](#)). Moreover, due to higher grain yield in BRR1  
478 dhan67, it could allocate more photosynthate for grain filling resulting in lower CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
479 ([Baruah et al., 2010](#); [Chen et al., 2021](#)).

#### 480 4.4. GWP and YSE

481 Across the cultivars, higher GWP was observed in both INM treatments compared to other  
482 treatments due to higher cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions ([Table 5](#)), which is consistent with previous  
483 findings ([Kimani et al., 2020](#); [Islam et al., 2022c, 2022d](#)). In contrast, compared to other  
484 treatments, UDP treatment significantly decreased GWP and YSE by about 17-31% and 23-  
485 28%, respectively ([Table 5](#)). Lower GWP and YSE are probably linked to reduced cumulative  
486 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and higher rice yields ([Tables 3 and 4](#)), which aligns with earlier reports ([Islam  
487 et al., 2022c, 2022d](#)).

488 BRR1 dhan67 reduced GWP and YSE of CH<sub>4</sub> by about 4.8% and 21.6%, respectively compared  
489 to BRR1 dhan88. Lower GWP under BRR1 dhan67 could be described by a higher rice yield  
490 because of allocating more photosynthate to grain formation and below-ground biomass,  
491 thereby reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and subsequent GWP and YSE ([Baruah et al., 2010](#); [Chen et  
492 al., 2021](#)). Therefore, BRR1 dhan67 could be a great option to increase rice yield in saline soil  
493 while ensuring food security and minimizing the negative impacts of climate change.

#### 494 4.5. Economic viability

495 Our findings suggest that BRR1 dhan67, especially when combined with INM-N84 or UDP  
496 treatments, has a higher potential for achieving higher GM and better economic performance  
497 in terms of profitability compared to BRR1 dhan88 in the saline coastal ecosystem of

498 Bangladesh. Specifically, the higher RFI and MBCR under INM-N84 treatment might be  
499 associated with low fertilizer cost and higher gross return from higher biomass yield. Although  
500 the UDP treatment gave lower fertilizer cost than the INM-N84 treatment, it gave higher GM  
501 resulting in higher MRR in INM treatment under both locations (Table 6). Moreover, for  
502 getting GM above the threshold of 100,000 Tk ha<sup>-1</sup>, INM-N84 treatment might be  
503 economically viable due to showing less production and market risk irrespective of locations  
504 (Figs. 3 and 4). While fertilizer management had a significant impact on rice yield for both  
505 BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88, cost-dominant analysis automatically excluded BRRI dhan88  
506 and all fertilizer treatments, except for the INM-N84 and UDP treatments, at both locations  
507 (Table S3). Therefore, the UDP and INM-N84 treatments can be regarded as economically  
508 profitable technologies for BRRI dhan67 in the coastal saline zone of Bangladesh. The reasons  
509 for economic viability of the INM-N84 and UDP treatments can be attributed to their lower  
510 fertilizer costs and higher biomass yields. The mechanism behind the increase in biomass yield  
511 is elaborated upon in sections 4.1 and 4.2. In the context of farming, the salt-tolerant variety  
512 outperforms the non-salt tolerant varieties in terms of yield and profitability under saline soil  
513 conditions. This means that the salt-tolerant variety is less prone to yield losses and offers  
514 higher financial returns, making it a more favorable choice for farmers dealing with soil salinity  
515 issues. Our results are consistent with the previous findings (Ghosh et al., 2022; Sutardi et al.,  
516 2022).

## 517 **5. Conclusions**

518 This study suggests that the combined application of organic and inorganic amendments,  
519 known as integrated nutrient management, proves to be an effective approach in reducing soil  
520 salinity while simultaneously increasing rice yield and nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) in both  
521 cultivars of BRRI dhan67 and BRRI dhan88. While comparing crop varieties, RRI dhan67, a  
522 salinity tolerant variety, showed a potential to increase rice yield and NUE, along with a higher

523 probability of gross margin compared to BRRI dhan88, a conventional variety. Moreover,  
524 BRRI dhan67 reduced yield-scaled emission (YSE) of CH<sub>4</sub> by about 22% compared to BRRI  
525 dhan88. In contrast, the cost-dominant analysis excluded all fertilizer treatments except for  
526 UDP and INM-N84 treatments from both locations. Consequently, both UDP and INM-N84  
527 treatments showed economic viability in both locations, supported by a higher marginal benefit  
528 cost ratio (MBCR) and marginal rate of return (MRR). However, the degree of increment of  
529 MRR was more in INM-N84 treatment compared to UDP treatment. Although INM-N84  
530 significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increased the YSE of CH<sub>4</sub> by about 38% compared to UDP treatment,  
531 the increased emissions could be managed by reducing soil salinity, and higher rice yield and  
532 MRR. In conclusion, the selection of optimal rice cultivar with appropriate fertilizer  
533 management could be an effective strategy to address soil salinity, and economically profitable  
534 and sustainable rice production while ensuring low-carbon agriculture in saline soils.

535 However, the limitation of this study is that only two rice cultivars, BRRI dhan67 and BRRI  
536 dhan88 were selected, which may limit the applicability of the findings to other rice cultivars  
537 in the coastal saline ecosystem. Future research should aim to include a wider range of rice  
538 cultivars to enhance our understanding of their responses in such environments. Additionally,  
539 the research was conducted only in two locations of saline ecosystems (BRRI farm and  
540 Kaliganj in Satkhira), which may restrict the generalizability of the results to areas with  
541 different soil and environmental conditions. Extrapolating the research to various geographic  
542 regions with diverse soil conditions will improve the relevance and applicability of the  
543 findings. Addressing these limitations and exploring these research areas will contribute to  
544 more robust and practical recommendations for sustainable rice cultivation in coastal regions.

545

546

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722 **Table 1.** Physicochemical properties of initial soil

Soil properties	BRRF farm, Satkhira	Kaliganj, Satkhira	Analysis method
pH <sub>1:2.5</sub>	7.83	7.73	Glass electrode
EC <sub>e</sub> (dS m <sup>-1</sup> )	5.32	7.15	Saturation paste extract
Organic carbon (%)	1.89	0.76	Wet oxidation
Total N (%)	0.20	0.15	Kjeldahl
Available P (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	21.93	19.53	0.5 M NaHCO <sub>3</sub> extraction
Available K (cmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.63	0.58	Neutral 1.0 N NH <sub>4</sub> OAc extraction
Available Na (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1.22	0.52	CH <sub>3</sub> COONH <sub>4</sub> extraction
Available Ca (cmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	15.08	17.83	CH <sub>3</sub> COONH <sub>4</sub> extraction
Available Mg (cmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	5.56	5.46	CH <sub>3</sub> COONH <sub>4</sub> extraction
Available S (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	24.09	7.12	Ca(H <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> extraction
Available Zn (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1.5	0.87	DTPA extraction
Available Mn (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	34.09	28.86	DTPA extraction
CEC (meq/100g soil)	22.48	24.39	-
SAR	0.38	0.15	-
Texture	Silty clay loam	Silty clay loam	Hydrometer method

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**Table 2.** Treatment description of different fertilizer sources used in this experiment.

Treatments	Description	Nutrients from chemical fertilizer (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )					Nutrients from OCP and organic fertilizer (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )					Total nutrient (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )				
		N	P	K	S	Zn	N	P	K	S	Zn	N*	P	K	S	Zn
FP-N138	Farmers' practice	138	30	55	15	1.0	0	0	0	0	0	138	30	55	15	1.0
UDP-N78	Urea deep placement	78	20	70	18	2.5	0	0	0	0	0	78	20	70	18	2.5
OCP fertilizer-N110	OCP compound fertilizer	110	0	70	18	2.5	10.3	22.0	0	5.5	1.1	120	22	70	24	3.6
STB-N120	Soil test based	120	20	70	18	2.5	0	0	0	0	0	120	20	70	18	2.5
INM-N120 (100% STB + ash)	Integrated nutrient management (100% STB + 2-ton ash ha <sup>-1</sup> )	120	20	70	18	2.5	0	5.0	25.4	1.2	0	120	25	95	19	2.5
INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)	INM (70% STB with 2-ton ash + 2-ton cow dung per ha)	84	14	56	13	1.7	22.0	18.6	42.4	5.0	0	106	33	98	18	1.7
N control	N control	0	20	70	18	2.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	70	18	2.5

\*Nitrogen use efficiency was calculated based on the total N rate.

**Table 3.** Grain yield, straw yield, total nitrogen uptake (TNU), agronomic efficiency of N ( $AE_N$ ), recovery efficiency of N ( $RE_N$ ), and physiological efficiency of N ( $PE_N$ ) of Boro rice as influenced by fertilizer management, rice variety and year, and their interaction at BRRI farm, Satkhira.

Fertilizer treatment	Year	Grain yield (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )		Straw yield (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )		TNU (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )		$AE_N$ (kg grain kg <sup>-1</sup> N)		$RE_N$ (%)		$PE_N$ (kg grain kg <sup>-1</sup> N uptake)	
		V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	Mean of 2 cultivars	
Effects of fertilizer treatment (means across year and variety)													
FP-N138	Mean	5.3cA	4.4bB	5.4b	4.4a	82.4b	69.7b	21.9d	18.0d	39.7d	31.6d	56.1b	
UDP-N78		5.9abA	4.8abB	6.2a	4.8a	82.0b	70.8b	47.2a	36.9a	69.8a	57.4a	66.0a	
OCP fertilizer-N110		5.5bcA	4.5bB	5.7ab	4.5a	92.7a	71.2b	27.6c	21.3cd	54.3c	37.6cd	53.6b	
STB-N120		5.4bcA	4.8abB	5.4b	4.6a	83.4b	72.6ab	26.3cd	23.3c	46.5d	38.8cd	59.0ab	
INM-N120 (100% STB + ash)		5.8abA	4.9abB	5.8ab	4.8a	96.8a	80.4a	29.8c	24.3c	57.7bc	45.2bc	52.5b	
INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)		6.2aA	5.2aB	6.1a	5.0a	94.3a	81.0a	37.7b	30.1b	63.0ab	48.8b	58.7ab	
N control		2.2dA	2.0cA	2.3c	2.0b	27.5c	26.1c	-	-	-	-	-	
Effects of the year (means across variety and fertilizer treatment)													
Mean		V1	V2	Mean of 2 cultivars	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	Mean of 2 cultivars
	2020	5.6a	5.0a	5.2a	84.7a	77.5a	32.9a	29.6a	56.4a	49.4a			58.7a
	2021	4.8b	3.7b	4.4b	74.9b	57.3b	30.5b	21.7b	53.9a	38.1b			56.6a
Effects of variety (means across year and fertilizer treatment)													
Mean	Mean	5.2A	4.4B	5.3A	4.3B	79.8A	67.4B	31.7A	25.7B	55.2A	43.7B	57.1A	58.2A
ANOVA (p values)													
Fertilizer (F)		*		*		*		*		*			*
Variety (V)		*		*		*		*		*			ns
Year (Y)		*		*		*		ns		*			ns
F × V		*		*		*		*		*			ns
F × Y		*		ns		*		ns		ns			ns
V × Y		*		*		*		*		*			ns
F × V × Y		ns		ns		ns		ns		ns			ns

For each response variable, means followed by the identical uppercase letters in a row and lowercase letters in a column do not differ significantly at a 5% level of probability. FP, UDP, STB, INM, V1, and V2 correspond to farmers' practice, urea deep placement, soil test-based, integrated nutrient management, BRRI dhan67, and BRRI dhan88, respectively. \* and ns denote significant, and non-significant at a 5% level of probability, respectively.

**Table 4.** Grain yield, straw yield, total nitrogen uptake (TNU), agronomic efficiency of N ( $AE_N$ ), recovery efficiency of N ( $RE_N$ ), and physiological efficiency of N ( $PE_N$ ) of Boro rice as influenced by fertilizer management, rice variety and year, and their interaction at Kaliganj, Satkhira.

Fertilizer treatment	Year	Grain yield (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )		Straw yield (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )		TNU (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )		$AE_N$ (kg grain kg <sup>-1</sup> N)		$RE_N$ (%)		$PE_N$ (kg grain kg <sup>-1</sup> N uptake)	
		V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	Mean of 2 cultivars	
Effects of fertilizer treatment (means across year and variety)													
FP-N138	Mean	4.6bA	2.7cB	4.6b	3.0b	68.6b	43.7b	18.5d	7.2d	29.9c	15.1d	55.2	
UDP-N78		5.0abA	3.1abcB	5.1ab	3.3ab	73.1b	46.9ab	37.8a	17.9a	58.7a	30.9a	61.0	
OCP fertilizer-N110		4.9abA	3.0abcB	4.8ab	3.2ab	74.2b	47.1ab	23.7c	10.8cd	39.0b	20.3cd	56.2	
STB-N120		4.8abA	2.9bcB	4.9ab	3.1ab	71.3b	47.3ab	22.8c	9.6cd	36.6b	20.4cd	54.7	
INM-N120 (100% STB + ash)		4.6bA	3.2abB	4.7b	3.4ab	72.7b	51.6a	21.3cd	12.4bc	37.8b	23.9bc	52.9	
INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)		5.2aA	3.4aB	5.3a	3.5a	86.1a	53.0a	30.4b	16.1ab	55.4a	28.5ab	54.7	
N control		2.0cA	1.7dB	2.1c	1.8c	27.4c	22.8c	-	-	-	-	-	
Effects of the year (means across variety and fertilizer treatment)													
Mean		Mean of 2 cultivars		Mean of 2 cultivars		Mean of 2 cultivars		V1	V2	Mean of 2 varieties		Mean of 2 cultivars	
	2020	4.4a		4.4a		67.1a		31.0a	16.3a	39.0a		59.7	
	2021	3.1b		3.1b		45.1b		20.5b	8.3b	27.0b		51.8	
Effects of variety (means across year and fertilizer treatment)													
Mean	Mean	4.5A	3.1B	4.5A	3.1B	67.6A	44.6B	25.7A	12.3B	42.9A	23.2B	59.7A	51.9B
ANOVA (p values)													
Fertilizer (F)		*		*		*		*		*		ns	
Variety (V)		*		*		*		*		*		*	
Year (Y)		*		*		*		*		*		ns	
F × V		*		*		*		*		*		ns	
F × Y		*		*		*		*		ns		ns	
V × Y		ns		ns		ns		*		ns		ns	
F × V × Y		ns		ns		ns		ns		ns		ns	

For each response variable, means followed by the identical uppercase letters in a row and lowercase letters in a column do not differ significantly at a 5% level of probability. FP, UDP, STB, INM, V1, and V2 correspond to farmers' practice, urea deep placement, soil test-based, integrated nutrient management, BRRI dhan67, and BRRI dhan88, respectively. \* and ns denote significant, and non-significant at a 5% level of probability, respectively.

**Table 5.** The effects of variety, fertilizer management, and year on seasonal CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, emission factor GWP, and YSE in the Boro season at BRRRI farm, Satkhira.

Fertilizer treatment	Year	CH <sub>4</sub> emission (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )		EF of CH <sub>4</sub> (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )		GWP of CH <sub>4</sub>		YSE of CH <sub>4</sub>	
		Mean of 2 varieties		Mean of 2 varieties		Mean of 2 varieties		Mean of 2 varieties	
Effects of fertilizer treatment (means across year and variety)									
FP-N138	Mean	144.9b		1.33b		4057.4b		30.5ab	
UDP-N78		115.8c		1.06c		3242.2c		22.1c	
STB-N120		139.6b		1.28b		3909.9b		28.5b	
INM-N120 (100% STB + ash)		160.6a		1.47a		4496.0a		30.8a	
INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)		166.6a		1.53a		4665.9a		30.4ab	
Effects of the year (means across variety and fertilizer treatment)									
Mean	2020	149.1a		1.37a		4174.6a		31.0a	
	2021	141.9b		1.30b		3973.9b		25.9b	
Effects of variety (means across year and fertilizer treatment)									
		BRRRI dhan6 7	BRRRI dhan88	BRRRI dhan6 7	BRRRI dhan8 8	BRRRI dhan67	BRRRI dhan88	BRRRI dhan6 7	BRRRI dhan8 8
Mean	Mean	141.9 B	149.2A	1.30B	1.37A	3972.3 B	4176.3A	25.0B	31.9A
ANOVA (p values)									
Fertilizer (F)		*		*		*		*	
Variety (V)		*		*		*		*	
Year (Y)		ns		ns		ns		ns	
F × V		ns		ns		ns		ns	
F × Y		ns		ns		ns		ns	
V × Y		ns		ns		ns		*	
F × V × Y		ns		ns		ns		ns	

Within a column, means followed by the same lowercase letters, and within a row for each response variable, means followed by the same uppercase letters are not significantly different at a 5% level of probability by Tukeys's honest significant difference (HSD) test. FP, UDP, STB, and INM correspond to farmers' practice, urea deep placement, soil test-based, and integrated nutrient management, respectively.

**Table 6.** Fertilizer cost, gross return, gross margin, returns to fertilizer investment, and marginal benefit-cost ratio at the coastal saline zone of BRRI farm and Kaliganj in Satkhira.

Fertilizer management	Fertilizer cost (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )		Gross return (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )		Gross margin (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )		Returns to fertilizer investment (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )		MBCR (over N control)	
	BRRI dhan67	BRRI dhan88	BRRI dhan67	BRRI dhan88	BRRI dhan67	BRRI dhan88	BRRI dhan67	BRRI dhan88	BRRI dhan67	BRRI dhan88
BRRI farm, Satkhira										
FP-N138	18574	18574	175200	145200	156626	126626	9.43	7.82	12.20	9.44
UDP-N78	17557	17557	195600	158400	178043	140843	11.14	9.02	16.65	12.54
OCP fertilizer-N110	17582	17582	182100	148500	164518	130918	10.36	8.45	14.77	11.16
STB-N120	18018	18018	178200	151800	160182	133782	9.89	8.43	13.45	10.96
INM-N120 (100% STB + ash)	21018	21018	191400	161400	170382	140382	9.11	7.68	10.94	8.81
INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)	18000	18000	204300	171000	186300	153000	11.35	9.50	16.82	13.44
N control	10187	10187	72900	66000	62713	55813	7.16	6.48	-	-
Average	17277	17277	171386	143186	154109	125909	9.78	8.20	14.14	11.06
Kaliganj, Satkhira										
FP-N138	18574	18574	151800	90000	133226	71426	8.17	4.85	10.19	4.01
UDP-N78	17557	17557	165300	102900	147743	85343	9.42	5.86	13.43	6.31
OCP fertilizer-N110	17582	17582	161400	99600	143818	82018	9.18	5.66	12.86	5.84
STB-N120	18018	18018	158700	96300	140682	78282	8.81	5.34	11.80	5.10
INM-N120 (100% STB + ash)	21018	21018	152100	106200	131082	85182	7.24	5.05	7.92	4.60
INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)	18000	18000	171900	112500	153900	94500	9.55	6.25	13.52	7.18
N control	10187	10187	66300	56400	56113	46213	6.51	5.54	-	-
Average	17277	17277	146786	94843	129509	77566	8.41	5.51	11.62	5.51

FP, UDP, RF, INM, Tk, and MBCR correspond to farmers' practice, urea deep placement, recommended fertilizer, integrated nutrient management, Bangladeshi currency in Taka, and marginal benefit-cost ratio, respectively.

**Table 7.** Marginal analysis of undominated treatments at the coastal saline zone of BRRI farm, and Kaliganj in Satkhira.

Fertilizer cost (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Fertilizer management	Rice varieties	Gross margin (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Marginal fertilizer cost (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Marginal gross margin (Tk ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Marginal rate of return (%)
BRRI farm, Satkhira						
10187	N control	BRRI dhan67	62713	-	-	-
17557	UDP-N78	BRRI dhan67	178043	7370	115330	1565
18000	INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)	BRRI dhan67	186300	443	8257	1864
Kaliganj, Satkhira						
10187	N control	BRRI dhan67	56113	-	-	-
17557	UDP-N78	BRRI dhan67	147743	7370	91630	1243
18000	INM-N84 (70% STB with ash + cow dung)	BRRI dhan67	153900	443	6157	1390