



MECHANIZATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY: A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF ECOLOGICAL INTERACTIONS

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(Date of Receiving : 08-10-2025; Date of Acceptance : 17-12-2025)

Agricultural mechanization has become essential for improving farm productivity and it also poses notable ecological challenges. This review synthesizes reports and research findings to examine mechanization levels and their environmental implications in Indian agriculture. Mechanization is high in land preparation (~70%) but remains low in sowing, crop care and harvesting (32-40%), resulting in an overall adoption level of ~47% in the Indian scenario. Crop-wise, cereals show higher mechanization, whereas pulses, millets and horticulture crops rely largely on small-scale tools. A major ecological concern is soil compaction caused by heavy and repeated machinery use. Bulk density index values in tilled soils ($>1.75 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) indicate extreme compaction, reducing porosity, infiltration, aeration and water availability compared to non-tilled soils. Energy audits show that fully mechanized harvesting, particularly combine use, demands the highest fuel energy and carbon emissions, while manual or semi-mechanized systems consume less energy. Carbon footprint assessments in maize, rice and wheat highlight diesel-based operations such as tillage, harvesting and irrigation as major emission sources. Emerging second-generation mechanization, especially UAVs (Unmanned aerial vehicle) reduces fuel use, minimizes chemical load, prevents soil compaction and improves precision input delivery. Conservation tillage further lowers particulate emissions and supports soil health. The review concludes that sustainable mechanization requires soil-friendly, low-emission and precision-based technologies.

Keywords : Mechanization, Bulk density, Unmanned aerial vehicle, Carbon foot print and Conservation tillage

Introduction

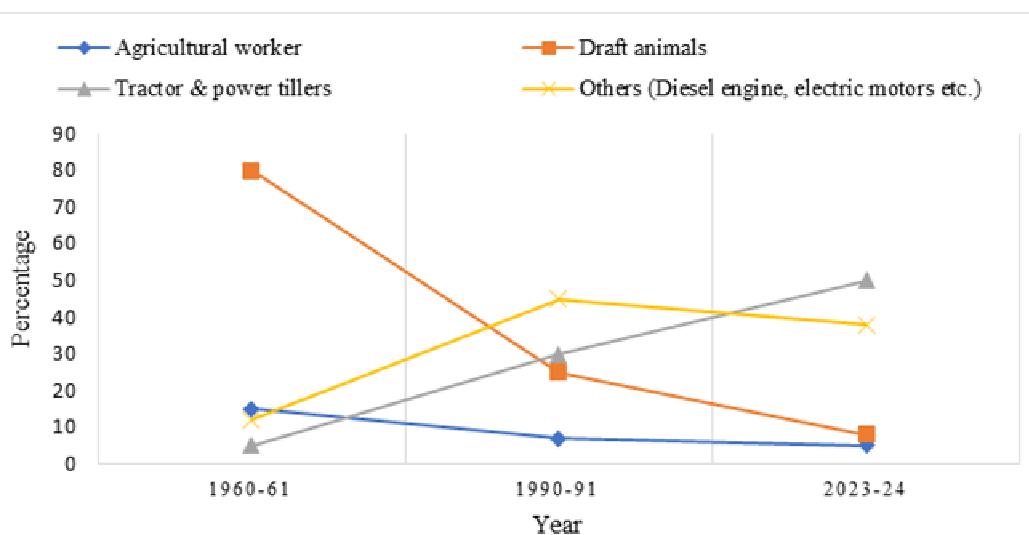
Agricultural mechanization has become an indispensable pillar of modern crop production, enhancing precision, timeliness and operational efficiency across diverse agroecosystems. In India, mechanization has expanded rapidly due to labour scarcity, rising production costs and the need for climate-resilient farming practices (FAO, 2022). Modern machinery ranging from seedbed preparation implements to precision planters and efficient harvesting systems has significantly boosted productivity and farm profitability. However, the ecological trade-offs associated with intensive machinery use are becoming increasingly evident. Repeated tractor traffic, deep tillage and high axle-load implements can alter soil physical properties, elevate

bulk density, reduce macroporosity, impair root proliferation and disrupt microbial processes (Shah *et al.*, 2017). Additionally, the diesel-dependent nature of conventional machinery contributes to substantial particulate matter emissions ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$, PM_{10}), carbon dioxide release and energy-intensive operations that collectively influence air quality and accelerate agricultural carbon footprints (Jia *et al.*, 2023).

Recent advancements in eco-efficient mechanization offer the potential to balance productivity with environmental stewardship. Zero-tillage seeders, laser land levelers, precision applicators, drones and sensor-based guidance systems reduce soil disturbance, optimize input delivery and improve resource-use efficiency, aligning modern agriculture with climate-smart and conservation-

oriented goals (IPCC, 2023). These technologies mitigate erosion, enhance soil organic carbon retention, decrease chemical drift and lower overall fuel consumption. Therefore, a deeper understanding of how mechanization interacts with soil health, emission dynamics and agroecological resilience is essential. This review consolidates current knowledge on the environmental implications of mechanization, ranging from soil compaction and energy use to particulate emissions and identifies pathways for integrating sustainable mechanization into resilient and low-carbon agricultural systems.

In this context, evaluating mechanization within a holistic sustainability framework becomes crucial. Integrating soil physics, emission profiling, energy audit metrics and precision engineering perspectives enables a scientifically grounded assessment of its benefits and limitations. Such a multidimensional approach will guide policymakers, researchers and farmers toward mechanization strategies that maximize productivity while safeguarding soil health and environmental quality.



(Source: Ministry of Agriculture & Farmers Welfare, 2018, Report on monitoring, Evaluation and Impact Assessment of SMAM)

Fig. 1: Evolution of power sources in Indian agriculture

The long-term shift in India's farm power profile illustrates a decisive transition from biological to mechanical energy with major implications for productivity and environmental sustainability. In 1960-61, agriculture relied predominantly on draft animals (80%), while human labour and machines played a minimal role; however, by 1990-91 draft animal power had sharply declined to around 25% as tractors, power tillers, diesel engines collectively rose to nearly 45%, reflecting the mechanization surge following the green revolution. By 2023-24, engine-based and tractor-driven power dominate the sector. Whereas tractors and tillers alone contribute nearly 50%, other mechanical sources account for about 38–40%, while draft animals and human labour have reduced to marginal levels (<10%). This shift has enhanced operational timeliness, precision and labour efficiency but has simultaneously increased dependence on fossil-fuel-based machinery, elevating CO₂ emissions, particulate matter generation and cumulative energy use. The declining role of draught animals also reduces

on-farm manure availability, influencing soil organic matter dynamics (Mehta *et al.*, 2019). Overall, the graph underscores India's rapid mechanization trajectory and highlights the need for sustainable, low-emission mechanization strategies that balance productivity gains with long-term soil health and environmental resilience.

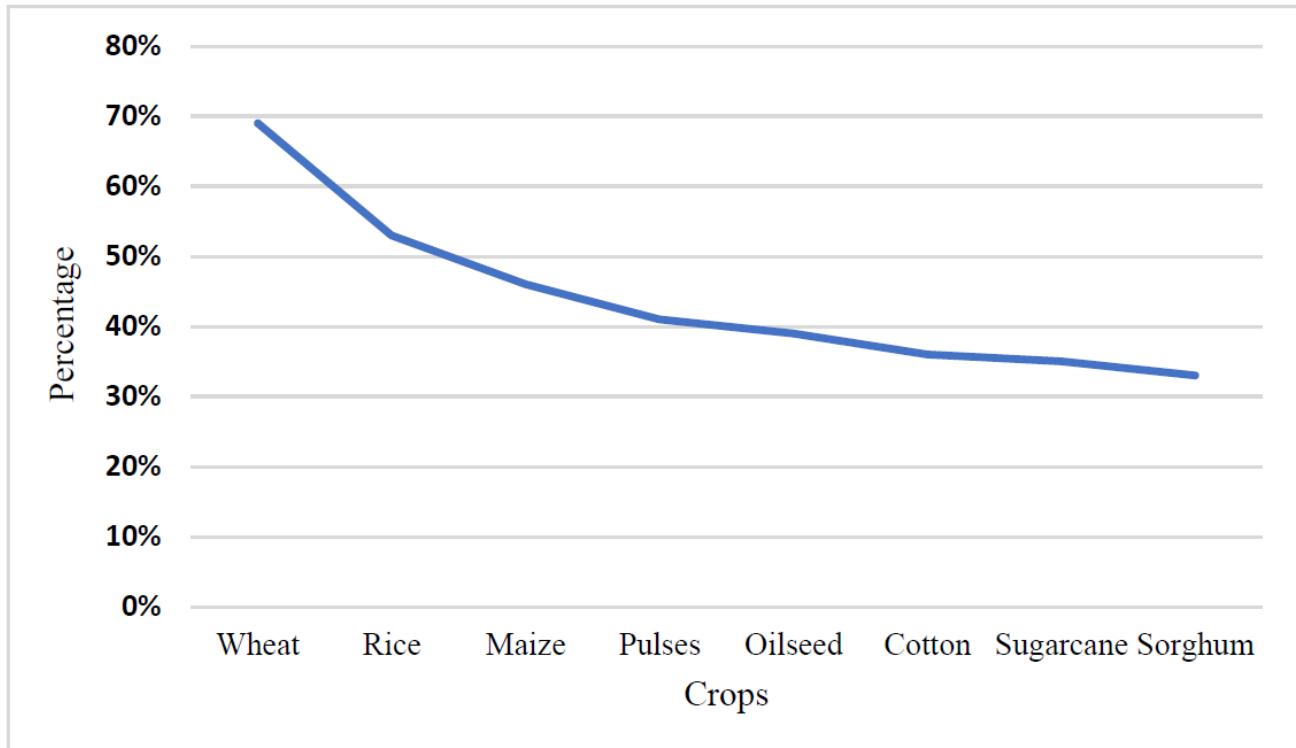
Average level of mechanization in different agricultural operations

In India, the level of agricultural mechanization varies considerably across different field operations. Mechanization in seedbed preparation is relatively high at about 70%, reflecting wider adoption of primary and secondary tillage implements. However, the use of machinery for sowing and transplanting remains around 40%, indicating partial reliance on traditional labour-intensive methods. For weeding, intercultural operations, plant protection measures and irrigation management, mechanization is even lower, at approximately 32%, due to limited availability of

suitable equipment and small landholdings. Similarly, harvesting and threshing operations exhibit only 34% mechanization, largely constrained by crop diversity and economic barriers to machine ownership. Overall, the average extent of mechanization in Indian

agriculture is estimated to be around 47% (Anon., 2025) highlighting significant scope for technological interventions, precision mechanization and policy support to enhance farm efficiency and productivity.

Mechanization in different crops



(Source: Standing committee on agricultural, animal husbandry and food processing, 2022-23, Research and development in farm mechanization for small and marginal farmers in the country)

Fig. 2: Status of mechanization in different crops

The graph illustrates the relative level of mechanization (expressed as percentage adoption) across major Indian field crops, showing a clear decline from cereal-dominated systems to pulses and commercial crops. Wheat exhibits the highest mechanization (~70%), primarily because of well-established machines that can operate in wheat field, combine harvesting and sowing machinery widely adopted in the Indo-Gangetic Plains. Rice follows (~55%), supported by mechanized transplanting, harvesting and threshing technologies in irrigated ecosystems. Maize and pulses show moderate adoption (45-40%) owing to heterogeneous production environments, limited scale suitability and lower profitability that restrict machinery investment. Oilseeds, cotton, sugarcane and sorghum display relatively low mechanization levels (39-32%), largely due to fragmented landholdings, crop-specific operational constraints (e.g., wide-row geometry,

manual picking in cotton, bulky biomass in sugarcane) and insufficient availability of crop-specific implements. These patterns are consistent with national assessments reported by the Ministry of Agriculture & Farmers Welfare (MoAFW, 2023) and ICAR-Central Institute of Agricultural Engineering (ICAR-CIAE, 2022), which highlight those cereals dominate mechanized operations in India compared to other crops.

Impact of mechanization on soil health

Mechanization exerts both beneficial and adverse influences on soil health, depending on the intensity, type of machinery and soil-crop-climate interactions.

Soil compaction by mechanization:

Excessive and repeated use of heavy machinery often leads to soil compaction, resulting in increased bulk density, reduced total porosity, impaired

macropore continuity and restricted hydraulic conductivity (Shah *et al.*, 2017). These alterations inhibit root penetration, lower soil aeration and weaken rhizosphere functioning, ultimately diminishing nutrient uptake efficiency and water infiltration

capacity. High axle-load traffic can also disrupt soil structural stability, accelerate aggregate breakdown and enhance susceptibility to surface crusting and erosion (Sharma and Kumar 2023).

Table 1: Soil bulk density indices and compactability under tilled and non-tilled conditions

Sample	Bulk density (g/cm ³)	% Clay	BDi (g/cm ²)	Compactability
Tilled area				
1	1.74	15.0	1.88	Extremely compacted
2	1.68	19.0	1.85	Extremely compacted
3	1.77	14.2	1.90	Extremely compacted
Non-tilled area				
1	1.56	14.2	1.69	Moderately compacted
2	1.46	14.0	1.59	Moderately compacted
3	1.42	12.6	1.53	Moderately compacted

Bdi: <1.45 g/cm³-no compaction; 1.45-1.75- moderate; and >1.75- extreme (Canarache, 1991) (Olebile and Dikinya 2012)

Assessment of soil compaction based on Bulk Density Index (BDi) revealed clear structural degradation in tilled soils compared with non-tilled areas (Table 1). In the tilled plots, bulk density values ranged from 1.68 to 1.77 g cm⁻³, corresponding to BDi values of 1.85–1.90 g cm⁻², which categorically fall under “extremely compacted” conditions as per the classification proposed by *Canarache (1991)* (>1.75 g cm⁻²). The high compactability observed in these samples reflects excessive mechanical disturbance, leading to structural collapse, reduced microporosity and increased packing density. Such levels of compaction are known to impair root elongation, restrict gas diffusion and reduce infiltration capacity, thereby adversely influencing crop performance and soil biological activity.

In contrast, the non-tilled soils exhibited comparatively lower bulk density values (1.42-1.56 g

cm⁻³) with corresponding BDi values of 1.53-1.69 g cm⁻², classifying them as “moderately compacted.” Although some compaction persists due to natural settling and vehicular traffic, the absence of repeated tillage operations helps in maintaining a more stable soil structure with greater pore continuity. These conditions favour improved water retention, aeration and microbial functioning relative to tilled soils.

Overall, the findings indicate that tillage-induced mechanical stress accelerates soil compaction, pushing soils into the extreme compactability class, whereas non-tillage systems mitigate structural degradation, supporting better physical quality. The BDi parameter thus serves as a reliable quantitative indicator for evaluating soil physical resilience under contrasting management regimes.

Table 2: Soil water characteristic in tilled and non-tilled areas

Matic suction (bars)	% water content (weight basis)	
	Tilled area	Non tilled area
FC (0.1 bar)	13.38	23.2
WP (15 bar)	0.50	0.74
Available water (%)	12.88	22.46

(Olebile and Dikinya 2012)

Table 2 shows percentage of water content in the tilled and non-tilled soils under different soil water potential (motic potential or suction); field capacity (FC) at suction of 0.1 bar and wilting point (WP) at 15 bars. The results indicate that there is a decrease in soil water content with the increase in matic suction associated with soil compaction. The non-tilled soils

(relatively non-compact) had proportionally higher water content at both FC and WP than tilled area. For example, at 0.1 bar the non-tilled soils had 23.2 per cent water content while the tilled had 13.4 and for 15 bar the water content was 0.74 and 0.5 per cent for non-tilled and tilled areas, respectively. This however

has profound effects on amount of available for use by plants and other bio-functionality of soils.

Conversely, appropriately scaled and precision-based mechanization such as conservation tillage, zero-till seed drills and residue-retaining planters can improve soil organic carbon (SOC) sequestration, enhance aggregate stability, moderate soil thermal regimes and promote beneficial microbial biomass activity. Mechanized residue management technologies (e.g., happy seeders, straw choppers, rotavators) aid in maintaining soil cover, reducing evapotranspiration losses and fostering soil biological diversity, including enzymatic activities (dehydrogenase, phosphatase, urease, β -glucosidase) (Anon., 2023).

In systems with optimized mechanization, reduced soil disturbance supports the development of functionally resilient soil ecosystems, improves carbon–nitrogen cycling and enhances the overall soil health index (SHI). However, indiscriminate mechanization without considering soil moisture

thresholds, allowable load-bearing capacity and traffic patterns can degrade soil physical and biological properties over time. Thus, sustainable mechanization should integrate controlled traffic farming (CTF), low ground-pressure machinery, site-specific tillage and precision land levelling to minimize soil degradation while optimizing agricultural productivity.

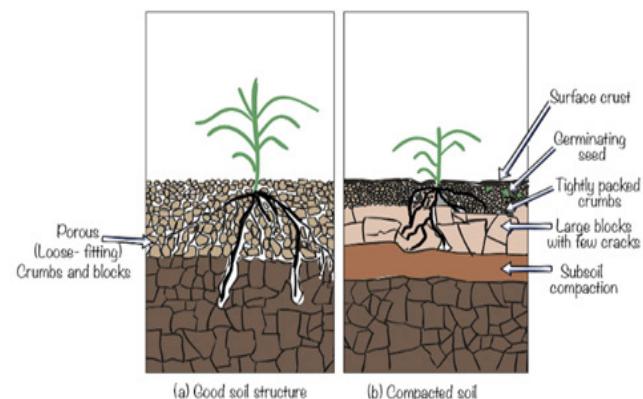


Fig. 3: Sub soil compaction in tilled area and non-tilled area

Table 3 : Energy consumption and mechanization indices of harvesting systems

Harvesting methods	HE (MJha ⁻¹)	ME (MJha ⁻¹)	FE (MJha ⁻¹)	Total energy (MJha ⁻¹)	Mechanization index (MI)
MHP	207.28 ^a (0.77)	79.69 ^a (2.76)	403.92 ^a (3.23)	690.89 ^a (6.07)	0.28 ^a (0.0006)
RHP	101.41 ^b (0.44)	112.29 ^b (0.23)	574.02 ^b (5.01)	787.73 ^b (4.75)	0.52 ^b (0.0015)
CHP	8.01 ^c (0.19)	433.35 ^c (6.75)	1497.82 ^c (7.54)	1939.18 ^c (11.30)	0.98 ^c (0.0006)

(Kahandage et al., 2023)

A clear gradient in energy use and mechanization was observed across harvesting systems. Manual harvesting (MHP) required the highest human energy (207.28 MJ ha⁻¹) and the lowest fuel and machinery inputs, resulting in the smallest total energy consumption (690.89 MJ ha⁻¹) and a low mechanization index (0.28). The reaper-harvester practice (RHP) showed reduced human labour demand (101.41 MJ ha⁻¹) and higher machinery and fuel

contributions, increasing total energy use to 787.73 MJ ha⁻¹ with a moderate mechanization index (0.52).

The combine harvester practice (CHP) recorded minimal human energy (8.01 MJ ha⁻¹) but substantially higher machinery and fuel energy inputs, leading to the maximum total energy consumption (1939.18 MJ ha⁻¹) and the highest mechanization index (0.98). Overall, the findings reflect a shift from labour-intensive to fully mechanized operations, accompanied by a corresponding increase in fuel-driven energy demand.

Mechanization on greenhouse gas emission

Table 4: Assessment of greenhouse gas emissions associated with fossil fuel consumption under varying cultivation regimes

System of cultivation	Average fossil fuel used. L/ha/crop	GHG emission, CO ₂ in kg
Conventional tillage system	48.5	126
Reduced or No tillage system	35.9	93.3
Permanent bed cultivation	15.9	41.3

(Source: ICAR-CRIDA Annual report- 2009-10)

The assessment of greenhouse gas emissions across different cultivation regimes clearly reflects how mechanization intensity directly influences the environmental footprint of agricultural systems. Conventional tillage, which relies heavily on repeated tractor operations for ploughing, harrowing and seedbed preparation, recorded the highest fossil fuel consumption (48.5 L ha⁻¹ crop⁻¹), resulting in a correspondingly high CO₂ emission of 126 kg ha⁻¹. In contrast, reduced or no-tillage systems, which minimize soil disturbance and machinery passes, lowered fuel use to 35.9 L ha⁻¹ and subsequently reduced CO₂ emissions to 93.3 kg ha⁻¹, highlighting

the ecological benefits of conservation-based mechanization. The lowest emission profile was observed in permanent bed cultivation, where minimal field traffic and optimized machinery movement reduced fuel consumption to just 15.9 L ha⁻¹, generating only 41.3 kg CO₂ ha⁻¹ (Vicky and Rakesh, 2019). These results emphasize that strategic modifications in mechanized field operations, particularly through reduced tillage and controlled traffic systems, can significantly mitigate fossil-fuel-derived greenhouse gas emissions while maintaining production efficiency, thereby supporting environmentally sustainable mechanization pathways.

Table 5: Carbon emission from maize cultivation

Emission Source	Data source	Activity value	Carbon emission in area	Carbon intensity in production
		L/ha	tCe/ha	tCe/t
Maize cultivation (Diesel fuel)	Stubbing	40	0.3984	0.0398
	Plow tillage	30	0.2988	0.0299
	Seeding	7	0.1195	0.0120
	Weeding by machinery	1.5	0.0149	0.0015
	Fertilizer by machinery	10	0.0498	0.0050
	Harvest	40	0.3984	0.0398
	Transport	15	0.1494	0.0149
	Total		1.4292	0.1429

(tCe/ha: ton carbon equivalent per hectare; tCe/t: ton carbon equivalent per ton)

(Wang *et al.*, 2015)

According to the energy and emission accounting method employed by Wang *et al.* (2015) for maize cultivation in Jilin Province, China, the total diesel-derived carbon emission for a maize crop cycle amounted to 1.4292 t Ce ha⁻¹, corresponding to a carbon intensity of 0.1429 t Ce per tonne of maize produced. This estimate aggregates emissions from multiple field operations stubbing, plough tillage, seeding, weeding, fertilizer application, harvesting and transport reflecting a comprehensive assessment of fuel-related carbon cost from cradle-to-harvest.

Breaking down the contributions, operations such as stubbing and harvest each contributed 0.3984 t Ce ha⁻¹ (~28% of total) and ploughing added another 0.2988 t Ce ha⁻¹. Other operations (seeding, weeding, fertilizer application, transport) had relatively smaller

but non-negligible contributions. This distribution underscores that land preparation and harvesting remain the most energy- and carbon-intensive phases in maize production under mechanized systems reliant on diesel.

From a sustainability and mitigation perspective, these findings highlight important opportunities: reducing diesel consumption in tillage and harvest perhaps via conservation tillage, precision agriculture, or alternate energy source could substantially lower the carbon footprint per hectare and per unit yield. Moreover, improving mechanization efficiency, optimizing field operations timing and adopting less energy-intensive machinery may improve carbon-use efficiency, thereby aligning maize cultivation practices with climate-smart agriculture goals.

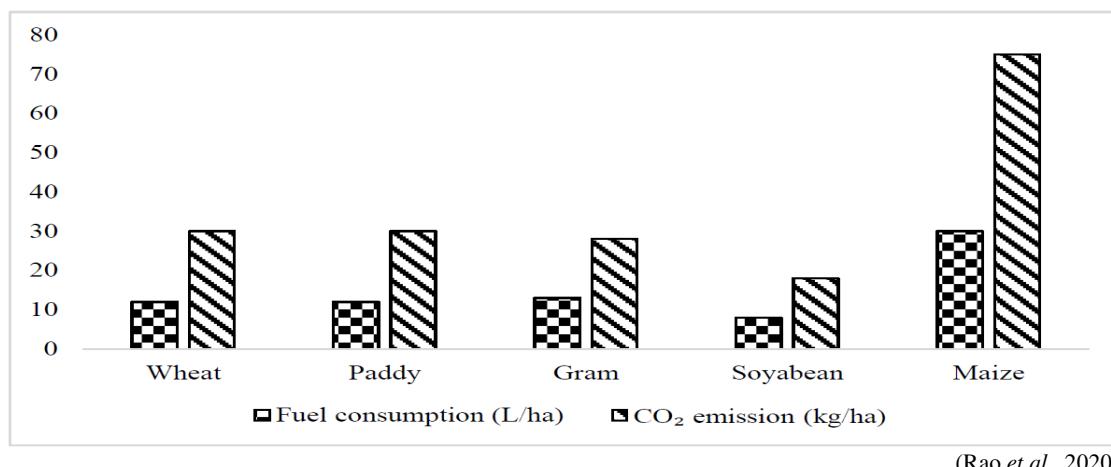
Table 6: Estimation of carbon emissions from farm implements/machines for field preparation

Agricultural implement	Equivalent carbon emission			
	(kg CE ha ⁻¹)		(kg CO ₂ e ha ⁻¹)	
	Range	Mean \pm S.D.	Range	Mean \pm S.D.
M B plough	18.27-24.92	21.60 \pm 4.70	60.57-82.62	71.60 \pm 15.60
Disc plough	16.84-22.23	19.53 \pm 3.81	55.82-73.70	64.76 \pm 12.64
Cultivator	5.25-5.97	5.61 \pm 0.51	17.42-19.81	18.61 \pm 1.69
Rotavator	7.19-10.63	8.91 \pm 2.43	23.85-35.24	29.55 \pm 8.05
Disc harrow	3.46-5.82	4.64 \pm 1.67	11.47-19.30	15.38 \pm 5.33
Laser-guided land leveller	9.70-10.11	9.90 \pm 0.29	32.16-33.50	32.83 \pm 0.95

(Guru *et al.*, 2022)

The carbon audit of primary and secondary tillage implements shows substantial variation in equivalent carbon emissions depending on implement type and energy demand. Among all implements, M.B. plough exhibited the highest emissions (mean 21.60 kg CE ha⁻¹), followed closely by the disc plough (19.53 kg CE ha⁻¹), reflecting their deeper soil engagement and higher fuel requirements. Medium-emission implements such as the rotavator (8.91 kg CE ha⁻¹) and laser-guided land leveller (9.90 kg CE ha⁻¹) also

contributed notable carbon loads due to intensive mechanical action and prolonged operation time. In contrast, lighter tillage tools like the cultivator (5.61 kg CE ha⁻¹) and disc harrow (4.64 kg CE ha⁻¹) displayed comparatively lower emissions, aligning with their reduced draft power and operational depth. Overall, the data indicate that heavier, fuel-intensive equipment significantly amplifies carbon footprints, underscoring the ecological implications of mechanization intensity in modern agriculture.



(Rao et al., 2020)

Fig. 4: Emission footprints during combine harvesting

The figure 4 highlights the environmental burden associated with combine harvesting across major crops, demonstrating how mechanization directly contributes to fuel consumption and CO₂ emissions, two critical indicators in assessing the ecological sustainability of modern agriculture. Fuel use varies substantially among crops, with maize showing the highest consumption, which in turn results in disproportionately elevated CO₂ emissions. Wheat, paddy, gram, and soybean exhibit comparatively lower emissions, but all follow the same pattern: higher fuel input consistently translates into greater carbon release.

Mechanization on nutrient status of soil

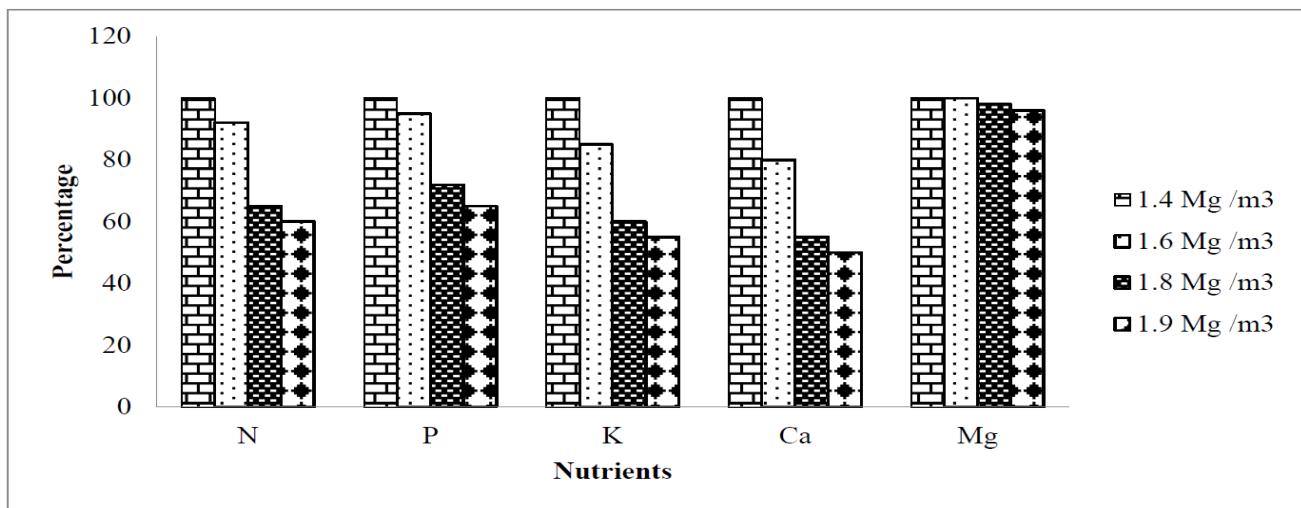
Table 7: Impact of mechanization on nutrient content in dry matter of barley and wheat

Element	Species	Number of passes				LSD ₉₅
		0	2	4	6	
N%	Barley	1.32	1.20	0.82	0.79	0.38
	Wheat	1.20	0.89	0.84	0.88	
P%	Barley	0.44	0.25	0.32	0.29	0.37
	Wheat	0.17	0.16	0.16	0.16	
K%	Barley	0.57	0.37	0.31	0.33	0.23
	Wheat	0.36	0.27	0.26	0.34	
Ca%	Barley	0.32	0.25	0.18	0.17	0.23
	Wheat	0.31	0.30	0.27	0.10	
Mg%	Barley	0.12	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.19
	Wheat	0.18	0.14	0.08	0.11	

(Kuht and Reintam 2004)

The above reviewed data demonstrate that increased mechanization intensity, expressed as the number of machinery passes, exerts a clear negative influence on the nutrient composition of barley and wheat dry matter, primarily through soil compaction-induced ecological stress. As traffic passes increased from 0 to 6, nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, calcium and magnesium concentrations declined noticeably, particularly in barley indicating that repeated machine load restricts root proliferation, reduces soil macroporosity and disrupts water and nutrient mobility within the soil profile. Such compaction-driven constraints impair physiological nutrient uptake, lower

crop nutritional quality and disturb nutrient cycling by leaving more nutrients unabsorbed and vulnerable to environmental losses. The high LSD values further reflect the sensitivity of plant-soil interactions under mechanical stress, highlighting that excessive mechanization, while operationally beneficial, leads to ecological deterioration of soil structure and nutrient-use efficiency. These findings emphasize the importance of adopting soil-conserving mechanization strategies such as controlled traffic, optimized axle loads and reduced pass frequency to sustain soil ecological functions and maintain crop nutrient integrity.



(Kuht and Reintam 2004)

Fig. 5: Relative nutrient content of spring barley depending on the average bulk density (Mg m^{-3}) of the compacted soil plough layer

The graph shows that increasing soil bulk density from 1.4 to 1.9 Mg m^{-3} causes a consistent decline in the relative nutrient content of spring barley, demonstrating the ecological stresses induced by mechanization-driven soil compaction. As density increases, essential nutrients such as N, P, K, and Ca drop sharply due to restricted root growth, reduced soil aeration, and limited nutrient mobility within compacted layers. Even Mg shows a slight reduction at the highest compaction level, indicating broader impacts on nutrient uptake. These trends highlight that excessive machine traffic degrades soil structure, weakens rhizosphere functioning, and lowers nutrient-use efficiency, emphasizing the ecological need for controlled traffic and soil-conserving mechanization practices (Kuht and Reintam, 2004).

Carbon foot print in rice and wheat ecosystem

Kasyap and Agarwal (2018) quantified the carbon footprint of rice and wheat systems in Punjab and

highlighted that mechanization-dependent diesel consumption is a significant and growing contributor to total emissions. In rice, diesel use accounted for 6.65% of total carbon emissions, reflecting its heavy reliance on energy-intensive operations such as puddling, transplanting, multiple irrigations and harvesting. Although residue burning (35.68%) and methane emissions from submergence (16.48%) dominate overall rice emissions, diesel-based field machinery remains a critical source due to the repetitive and fuel-driven nature of paddy operations.

In wheat, diesel contributes even more substantially (9.12%) to the carbon footprint, as wheat relies heavily on mechanized tillage, sowing, intercultural operations, irrigation pumping, harvesting and threshing. Here, nitrogen fertilizer dominates overall emissions, but diesel use emerges as the second-largest mechanization-related contributor, directly linking greenhouse gas release to the degree of mechanization adopted by farmers (Lal, 2004).

The comparison clearly demonstrates that diesel-intensive mechanization is a cross-cutting driver of carbon emissions in both rice and wheat systems, irrespective of other crop-specific emission pathways. These findings reinforce the ecological concern that increasing reliance on tractors, harvesters and pump sets directly escalates the carbon footprint of cereal

production. Therefore, promoting low-emission machinery, precision fuel management, conservation tillage and renewable energy-based operations become essential for reducing mechanization-induced ecological impacts in Indian agriculture (Lal *et al.*, 2020).

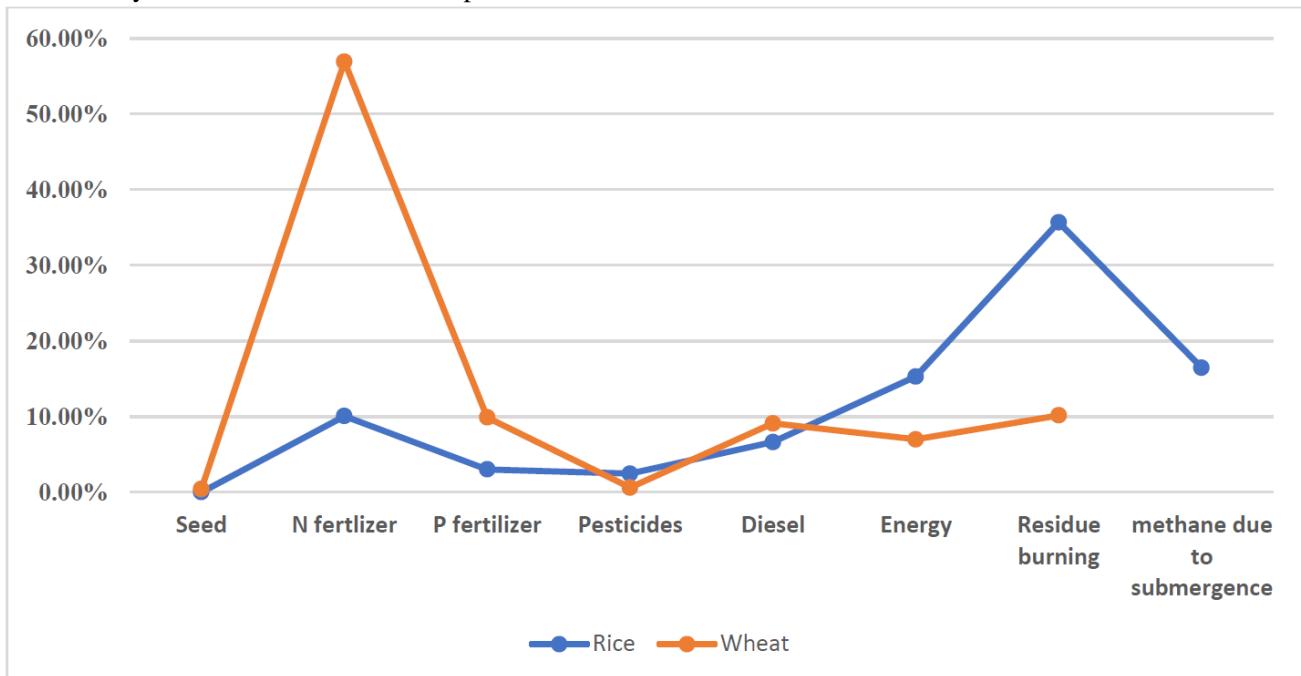


Fig. 6: Percentage contribution of different sources to the carbon foot print of rice and wheat crops

Ecological Implications of Second-Generation Mechanization

Second-generation mechanization tools such as unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) or agricultural drones are increasingly recognized for their ecological advantages over conventional fuel-intensive machinery. Drones significantly reduce diesel consumption because they operate on electricity or battery power, thereby lowering direct CO₂ emissions associated with field operations. According to FAO (2022), UAV-based spraying can reduce chemical application volume by 30–50% and water use by up to 90% compared to traditional sprayers, demonstrating substantial resource-use efficiency and environmental benefits.

Ecologically, drones enable precision input delivery, which minimizes nutrient and pesticide oversupply and reduces the risk of leaching, runoff and soil–water contamination. Studies such as Huang *et al.* (2021) show that UAV spraying results in improved spatial uniformity, reducing pesticide drift by up to

70%, thereby mitigating ecological toxicity to non-target organisms and beneficial arthropods. Moreover, their lightweight design prevents soil compaction, a major ecological concern with tractors and heavy machinery. Since UAVs do not exert ground pressure, they preserve soil structure, porosity and microbial functioning, which is essential for long-term soil health and carbon sequestration (IPCC, 2023).

From a climate perspective, drone-enabled monitoring systems support early stress detection, variable-rate application and optimized irrigation scheduling, which collectively reduce embedded emissions in fertilizer manufacture and energy use. A study by Zhang *et al.* (2020) demonstrated that UAV-based nitrogen management can reduce N fertilizer use by 15–25%, lowering nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions, one of the most potent greenhouse gases identified by the IPCC. Additionally, replacing diesel-based machinery with electrically powered UAVs aligns with the transition toward low-carbon agriculture, as emphasized in UNEP's Emissions Gap Report (2022).

Table 8: Total dust emissions under different tillage patterns

Farming Pattern	Operation	Quality of PM _{2.5} (g)	Quality of PM ₁₀ (g)	Quality of TSP (g)
Traditional tillage	Straw crushing	1.096 ± 0.174	2.612 ± 0.581	3.415 ± 0.978
	Rotary tilling	0.183 ± 0.058	0.389 ± 0.069	0.497 ± 0.121
	Sowing	0.036 ± 0.005	0.055 ± 0.006	0.078 ± 0.010
	Total mass	1.135 ± 0.183	3.056 ± 0.585	3.990 ± 0.985
Conservation tillage	No-tillage sowing	0.187 ± 0.022	0.328 ± 0.040	0.407 ± 0.064
	Total mass	0.187 ± 0.022	0.328 ± 0.040	0.407 ± 0.064

(PM: Particulate matter, TSP: Total suspended particles)

(Jia et al., 2023)

Dust is one of the important components of atmospheric pollutants. The comparative assessment of dust emissions under different tillage regimes demonstrates the substantial ecological advantage of conservation tillage. Traditional tillage generated markedly higher particulate matter (PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and TSP) owing to intensive soil disturbance during straw crushing, rotary tilling and sowing. Straw crushing alone contributed the highest PM_{2.5} (1.096 g) and PM₁₀ (2.612 g) emissions, reflecting the mechanical disintegration of residues and exposure of fine soil particles. The cumulative emissions from traditional tillage reached 1.135 g PM_{2.5}, 3.056 g PM₁₀ and 3.990 g TSP, indicating a significant release of respirable particulates that can impair soil air quality, accelerate wind erosion and elevate atmospheric particulate load.

In contrast, conservation tillage, represented by no-tillage sowing greatly minimized particulate release, with total emissions restricted to 0.187 g PM_{2.5}, 0.328 g PM₁₀ and 0.407 g TSP. The reduced soil disturbance maintains aggregate stability, preserves surface mulch and limits the detachment and suspension of fine particles. This substantial reduction in airborne particulates underscores the role of conservation tillage as a climate-smart and environmentally benign mechanization practice, particularly relevant when evaluating the ecological implications of mechanization in modern agriculture.

Conclusion

Agricultural mechanization has emerged as a central driver of productivity enhancement, labour efficiency and climate-resilient farming; however, the evidence synthesized in this review clearly demonstrates that its ecological footprint is multifaceted and often detrimental when deployed without environmental safeguards. Heavy and repeated machinery use intensifies soil compaction, elevates bulk density and reduces porosity, ultimately impairing root growth, nutrient uptake and biological functioning. These structural degradations further translate into reduced available water, altered nutrient cycling and diminished crop nutritional quality, as reflected by the decline in N, P, K, Ca and Mg

concentrations under higher mechanization intensity. Fuel-intensive operations particularly conventional tillage, land preparation, and combine harvesting significantly increase fossil fuel demand, CO₂ emissions and particulate matter release, amplifying agriculture's contribution to the carbon footprint. Yet, the review also highlights transformative opportunities: conservation tillage, controlled traffic farming, low-axle load machinery, laser levelling and precision-guided implements mitigate soil disturbance, reduce fuel energy use and improve carbon-use efficiency. Second-generation mechanization technologies such as UAVs offer further ecological advantages by eliminating soil compaction, optimizing input delivery, reducing chemical drift and lowering greenhouse gas emissions. Together, these findings underscore that the future of mechanization must shift from volume-driven machinery use to ecologically engineered, energy-efficient and precision-based systems that harmonize productivity gains with soil health, carbon neutrality and long-term agroecosystem resilience.

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