

Decomposition Process and CO₂ Emission Characteristics of Fungal Residue in Paddy Soil under Indoor Constant Temperature Conditions: Post-print

Authors: Li Fangliang, Wang Huangping, Zhang Qing, Wang Limin, An Mengyu, Luo Tao

Date: 2017-11-08T00:00:00+00:00

Abstract

Mushroom residue is the byproduct after cultivating edible fungi and can be reused as organic fertilizer. This study investigated the changes in organic carbon and total nitrogen under different treatments, explored the decomposition process of mushroom residue in paddy soil, and analyzed CO₂ release characteristics by incubating mixtures of mushroom residue and paddy soil at different ratios under laboratory conditions [no mushroom residue applied (TS), soil to mushroom residue mass ratios of 10:1 (SM1), 5:1 (SM2), and 2:1 (SM3), all mushroom residue (TM)], to provide a reference for the rational utilization of mushroom residue. The results showed that at the same incubation time, the organic carbon and nitrogen contents in treatments with different proportions of added mushroom residue were all higher than those in the TS treatment, with the TM treatment showing increases of 10.7-fold and 11.0-fold in organic carbon and total nitrogen, respectively, compared to the TS treatment. The increase in organic carbon and nitrogen content mainly depended on the amount of mushroom residue added. Overall, with the extension of incubation time, organic carbon and nitrogen in all treatments showed a downward trend due to carbon and nitrogen decomposition; after 35 days, the organic carbon and nitrogen in the TM treatment decreased more rapidly. The more mushroom residue added, the greater the organic carbon residual rate. After 63 days of incubation, the relationship equations between the decomposition residual rates of mushroom residue organic carbon (YC) and nitrogen (YN) and the amount of mushroom residue added (X) were: $YC=71.26X-0.6075$, $r^2=1.0000^{**}$ and $YN=74.039X-0.4133$, $r^2=0.9999^{**}$. The CO₂ release rates from soil in all treatments showed a trend of first increasing, then decreasing, and then stabilizing. The higher the amount of mushroom residue, the higher the CO₂ release rate;

the CO₂ release rates of all treatments at different incubation times followed the order TM>SM3>SM2>SM1>TS. The CO₂ release rates of all treatments peaked on day 7, gradually entered a stable declining state by day 14, and after 35 days of incubation, the soil organic carbon mineralization intensity in all treatments was very low, with most organic carbon being sequestered in the soil, and the TM treatment showing the lowest organic carbon mineralization intensity. In summary, the more mushroom residue returned to the field, the more carbon was sequestered in the soil.

Full Text

Decomposition Process and CO₂ Release Characteristics of Spent Mushroom Substrate in Paddy Soils Under Constant Temperature Incubation

LI Fangliang^{1,2}, WANG Huangping¹, ZHANG Qing¹, WANG Limin¹, AN Mengyu^{1,3}, LUO Tao¹,

¹Institute of Soil and Fertilizer, Fujian Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Fuzhou 350013, China

²State Key Laboratory of Soil and Sustainable Agriculture, Institute of Soil Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Nanjing 210008, China

³College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University, Fuzhou 350002, China

Abstract

Spent mushroom substrate (SMS), the leftover material from mushroom cultivation, can be reused as organic fertilizer. This study investigated changes in organic carbon and total nitrogen content in mixtures of paddy soil and SMS at different ratios under laboratory incubation conditions. Five treatments were established: no SMS application (TS), soil to SMS mass ratios of 10:1 (SM1), 5:1 (SM2), and 2:1 (SM3), and pure SMS (TM). The decomposition process of SMS in paddy soil and associated CO₂ release characteristics were examined to provide a reference for rational SMS utilization. Results showed that at the same incubation time, organic carbon and nitrogen contents in all SMS-amended treatments were significantly higher than in the TS treatment. The TM treatment increased organic carbon and total nitrogen by 10.7-fold and 11.0-fold, respectively, compared to TS. The magnitude of increase in carbon and nitrogen content depended primarily on the SMS application rate. Overall, organic carbon and nitrogen decreased over time due to decomposition in all treatments, with a more rapid decline in the TM treatment after 35 days. Higher SMS application rates resulted in greater organic carbon residue rates. After 63 days of incubation, the relationships between residue rates of organic carbon (YC) and nitrogen (YN) with SMS application amount (X) were: $YC = 71.26X^{-0.6075}$, $r^2 = 1.0000$ and $YN = 74.039X^{-0.4133}$, $r^2 = 0.9999$, respectively. All treatments

showed an initial increase in CO₂ release rate followed by a decrease and eventual stabilization. Higher SMS application rates produced higher CO₂ release rates, with the consistent ranking of TM > SM3 > SM2 > SM1 > TS across all sampling times. Peak CO₂ release occurred on day 7, followed by a gradual decline after day 14. After 35 days, soil organic carbon mineralization intensity was minimal in all treatments, with most organic carbon being sequestered in the soil, particularly in the TM treatment which showed the lowest mineralization intensity. In conclusion, higher SMS application rates resulted in greater carbon sequestration in soil.

Keywords: Spent mushroom substrate (SMS); Paddy soil; Organic carbon; Total nitrogen; Decomposition process; CO₂ release

Introduction

China is the world's leading producer of edible mushrooms, generating enormous quantities of spent mushroom substrate (SMS) annually [1]. SMS, the residual material after mushroom cultivation, is rich in cellulose, lignin, vitamins, antibiotics, mineral elements, and other biologically active substances [2,4], making it suitable for reuse as organic fertilizer or soil amendment. It can also be used for plant hormone extraction, animal feed, energy production [3,5-6], crop seedling cultivation, and growth substrates [7-9].

Previous research on SMS application has focused primarily on changes in plant physiological indicators. Studies have shown that SMS application can increase leaf length, leaf number, leaf area, and plant height in pineapple [*Ananas comosus* (Linn.) Merr.] [6]. *Agaricus blazei* Murr. and *Lentinus edodes* SMS can promote lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) growth and soil remediation [10], with 40% SMS application rate being optimal for melon (*Cucumis melo* L.) seedling growth [11]. SMS application also enhances soil microbial biomass carbon and glucose content [12-13], increases microbial diversity and enzyme activity [11], and can alter soil aggregate distribution [14]. However, few studies have examined the decomposition characteristics of SMS itself.

Soil CO₂ release constitutes an important component of ecosystem carbon budgets [15-16]. Organic material application promotes soil CO₂ emissions [17-21], which increase with soil organic carbon content [22-24]. After SMS and other organic materials are returned to fields, one portion becomes a source of soil organic carbon and is sequestered, while another portion of this fixed carbon is subsequently released as CO₂ through microbial turnover [25]. Medina et al. [26] found that SMS application increased soil respiration rates and phosphatase activity. However, other studies reported that SMS application did not significantly increase soil CO₂ release [13,16], possibly because soil respiration is constrained by soil type, moisture, temperature, and other factors [27], necessitating further investigation.

Soil organic matter is a crucial indicator for balanced fertilization, and its formation depends not only on the quantity of organic fertilizer input but also on its decomposition residue rate [28]. Understanding SMS decomposition patterns is theoretically and practically significant for scientifically replenishing and renewing soil organic matter and developing rational SMS fertilization strategies. Although organic fertilizer application significantly increases CO₂ emissions [17-18,29], different organic materials exhibit distinct carbon transformation characteristics. Research remains limited on the effects of SMS application in paddy soils, its decomposition process, the relationship between application rate and soil respiration, and CO₂ release characteristics.

Based on a long-term field experiment of SMS application in paddy fields, this study explored the decomposition process and CO₂ release characteristics of SMS in soil under laboratory conditions, aiming to establish quantitative relationships between SMS application rate and soil organic carbon decomposition. This research provides a theoretical foundation for understanding soil organic carbon cycling and CO₂ source-sink characteristics, offers scientific guidance for rational SMS application, and contributes to sustainable soil and agricultural development.

1.1 Study Site Description

The paddy soil was collected from a long-term monitoring station for SMS fertilization located in Longjiang Village, Jiaomei Taiwan Business Investment Zone, Longhai City, Fujian Province (117°53 46 E, 24°34 16 N). The site has cultivated double-cropping rice since 2007, using the hybrid rice variety 'Fengliangyou 1'. Initial soil chemical properties were: pH 6.07, organic carbon 9.66 g · kg⁻¹, total nitrogen 2.70 g · kg⁻¹, alkaline hydrolyzable nitrogen 101.2 mg · kg⁻¹, available phosphorus 35.42 mg · kg⁻¹, and available potassium 99.03 mg · kg⁻¹.

The SMS was obtained from local *Agaricus bisporus* growers. After pretreatment and grinding, its organic carbon, total nitrogen, total phosphorus, and total potassium contents were 398.45 g · kg⁻¹, 18.8 g · kg⁻¹, 4.61 g · kg⁻¹, and 6.37 g · kg⁻¹, respectively, with a C/N ratio of 33.2.

1.2 Experimental Design and Sample Collection

The experiment consisted of five treatments: (1) no mushroom substrate (TS), 100% paddy soil; (2) soil to mushroom substrate ratio of 10:1 (SM1); (3) soil to mushroom substrate ratio of 5:1 (SM2); (4) soil to mushroom substrate ratio of 2:1 (SM3); and (5) pure mushroom substrate (TM). Each treatment was replicated three times.

Sieved (2 mm) paddy soil and SMS were weighed according to the above ratios and thoroughly mixed, with 200 g total per treatment, then placed in 1000 mL plastic bottles. Soil moisture was adjusted to 70% of field water-holding capacity and pre-incubated for 7 days under the same conditions as the main experiment to activate soil microorganisms. The bottles were sealed with plastic wrap to

prevent rapid moisture loss while being perforated with small holes to ensure aeration, then incubated at 25°C in a constant temperature chamber. Moisture content was maintained through regular watering during the incubation period. Samples were collected on days 7, 21, 35, 49, and 63. At each sampling, the soil-substrate mixture in each bottle was thoroughly homogenized, and approximately 30 g was collected and refrigerated at 4°C for subsequent analysis, with three replicates.

For CO₂ measurement, additional mixtures of sieved (2 mm) paddy soil and SMS were prepared at the same ratios, with 50 g per treatment placed in 1000 mL incubation bottles and spread evenly at the bottom. Soil moisture was adjusted to 70% of maximum water-holding capacity. After 7 days of pre-incubation, a special vial containing 5 mL of 0.6 mol · L⁻¹ NaOH solution was carefully placed inside each incubation bottle, which was then sealed and incubated at (28±1)°C. On days 1, 3, 7, 14, 21, 28, and 35, the vials were removed, rinsed into Erlenmeyer flasks, mixed with 2 mL of 0.1 mol · L⁻¹ BaCl₂ solution and two drops of phenolphthalein indicator, then titrated with standard acid until the red color disappeared to calculate CO₂ release [30], with three replicates.

1.3 Measurement Methods

Soil carbon and nitrogen analysis: Collected samples were oven-dried, weighed, ground, and sieved through a 100-mesh screen before determination. Organic carbon was measured using the H₂SO₄-K₂CrO₇ external heating method, and total nitrogen was determined by the Kjeldahl method [31].

1.4 Data Processing and Statistical Analysis

The residue rates of organic carbon and nitrogen in SMS were calculated as:

$$rC = (g_1C/gC - g_2C/gC) \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$rN = (g_1N/gN - g_2N/gN) \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

where rC and rN represent the residue rates of organic carbon and nitrogen, respectively; g₁C and g₁N represent the carbon and nitrogen contents in the soil-SMS mixture after decomposition for a certain period; g₂C and g₂N represent the carbon and nitrogen contents in the control soil after decomposition for the same period; and gC and gN represent the carbon and nitrogen contents in the added SMS [32-33].

Soil CO₂ release rate [mg(C) · kg⁻¹ · d⁻¹] was defined as the amount of carbon mineralized and released as CO₂-C per unit mass of soil (dry weight) per unit time. Cumulative CO₂ release [mg(C) · kg⁻¹] was defined as the total amount of carbon mineralized and released as CO₂-C per unit mass of soil (dry weight) during a specific incubation period. Soil organic carbon mineralization intensity (mineralization rate) was the ratio of cumulative CO₂ release to soil organic carbon content over a given time period.

Since the original soil organic carbon and nitrogen also decomposed during incubation and the mass of added SMS decreased due to mineralization, corrections were applied in calculations by subtracting the control soil values.

Data were processed using Microsoft Excel. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 16.0 and DPS (v3.01 Professional Edition) software.

2.1 Soil Organic Carbon Content After Adding Different SMS Ratios

As shown in [Figure 1: see original paper], at any given time, adding different proportions of SMS increased soil organic carbon content, with higher application rates resulting in greater organic carbon content. The ranking of soil organic carbon content was consistently $TM > SM3 > SM2 > SM1 > TS$, with the magnitude of increase depending primarily on the SMS application rate. At each sampling time, differences in soil organic carbon content among treatments were statistically significant.

After 63 days of incubation, soil organic carbon in treatments SM1, SM2, and SM3 increased by 86.7%, 171.4%, and 351.4%, respectively, compared to the TS treatment, while the TM treatment showed a 10.7-fold increase. Following day 35, the TM treatment exhibited a relatively rapid decline in organic carbon, decreasing by 9.8% from day 35 to day 49 (a significant difference). Overall, soil organic carbon tended to decrease over time in all SMS-amended treatments, though differences were not substantial (except for TM), primarily because carbon decomposition proceeded slowly.

2.2 Organic Carbon Decomposition Residue Rate After Adding Different SMS Ratios

As illustrated in [Figure 2: see original paper], at any given incubation time, higher SMS application rates resulted in greater soil organic carbon residue rates, with the consistent ranking of $TM > SM3 > SM2 > SM1 > TS$. Differences in organic carbon residue rates among treatments were statistically significant at each sampling time.

On day 7, the organic carbon decomposition residue rates for SM1, SM2, SM3, and TM treatments were 7.09%, 13.39%, 28.76%, and 94.33%, respectively. By day 63, these values had decreased to 5.73%, 11.34%, 23.25%, and 70.62%, respectively. After 63 days of incubation, the organic carbon decomposition residue rate showed an extremely significant positive correlation with SMS application amount ($YC = 71.26X^{-0.6075}$, $r^2 = 1.0000$).

2.3 Soil Total Nitrogen Content After Adding Different SMS Ratios

Soil total nitrogen content serves as an indicator of baseline soil nitrogen fertility and reflects nitrogen reserves. As shown in [Figure 3: see original paper], at any given time, adding different proportions of SMS increased soil total nitrogen content, with higher application rates yielding greater nitrogen content. The

ranking was consistently $TM > SM3 > SM2 > SM1 > TS$, with the magnitude of increase depending primarily on the SMS application rate. Differences in total nitrogen content among treatments were statistically significant at each sampling time.

After 63 days of incubation, soil total nitrogen in treatments SM1, SM2, and SM3 increased by 95.3%, 186.7%, and 362.4%, respectively, compared to TS, while the TM treatment showed an 11-fold increase. Overall, soil total nitrogen tended to decrease over time in all treatments, though differences were not substantial due to slow nitrogen decomposition. The TM treatment, however, showed a relatively rapid decline after day 35, decreasing by 10.9% from day 35 to day 49 (a significant difference).

2.4 Soil Nitrogen Decomposition Residue Rate After Adding Different SMS Ratios

The nitrogen decomposition residue rate refers to the residual rate of organic nitrogen in organic materials after mineralization and decomposition for a certain period [33]. As shown in [Figure 4: see original paper], at any given incubation time, higher SMS application rates resulted in greater nitrogen decomposition residue rates, with the consistent ranking of $TM > SM3 > SM2 > SM1 > TS$. Differences in nitrogen decomposition residue rates among treatments were statistically significant at each sampling time.

The nitrogen decomposition trend was generally similar to that of organic carbon, with an initial rapid decomposition phase followed by a slower phase. On day 7, the nitrogen decomposition residue rates for SM1, SM2, SM3, and TM treatments were 7.17%, 13.40%, 27.05%, and 91.36%, respectively. By day 63, these values were 6.28%, 12.29%, 23.87%, and 73.70%, respectively. After 63 days of incubation, the nitrogen decomposition residue rate showed an extremely significant positive correlation with SMS application amount ($YN = 74.039X^{-0.4133}$, $r^2 = 0.9999$).

2.5 CO₂ Release Rate and Cumulative Release After Adding Different SMS Ratios

The dynamic changes in soil CO₂ release rate after adding different SMS ratios are shown in [Figure 5: see original paper]. During the 35-day incubation period, all treatments exhibited an initial increase in CO₂ release rate followed by a decrease and eventual stabilization. Higher SMS application rates produced higher CO₂ release rates, with peak release occurring on day 7 in all treatments. The TM treatment showed the highest release rate at $67.23 \text{ mg(C)} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ on day 7, followed by SM3 at $55.89 \text{ mg(C)} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$, with these values being significantly different from rates at other sampling times ($P < 0.05$). All treatments showed a gradual and steady decline after day 14. The ranking of CO₂ release rates across all sampling times was consistently $TM > SM3 > SM2 > SM1 > TS$.

Cumulative CO₂ release, representing the total amount of CO₂-C released per kilogram of dry soil over time, is an indicator of soil organic carbon mineralization rate [34]. Overall, cumulative CO₂ release in all treatments showed rapid initial growth followed by slower growth later in the incubation period [Figure 5: see original paper], consistent with the pattern of CO₂ release rates. After 35 days, the ranking of cumulative CO₂ release was TM > SM3 > SM2 > SM1 > TS, with significant differences among all treatments. The SMS-amended treatments (TM, SM3, SM2, SM1) showed cumulative CO₂ release 8.9, 6.4, 3.5, and 2.0 times higher than the TS treatment, respectively.

2.6 Soil Organic Carbon Mineralization Intensity After Adding Different SMS Ratios

Soil organic carbon mineralization intensity (mineralization rate) is the ratio of cumulative CO₂ release to soil organic carbon content over a given time period [34-35]. As shown in [Figure 6: see original paper], after 35 days of incubation, soil organic carbon mineralization intensity was minimal in all SMS-amended treatments, indicating that most organic carbon was sequestered in the soil. The mineralization intensity in treatments SM1, SM2, and SM3 was 57.61%, 49.08%, and 41.07% higher than in the TS treatment, respectively ($P < 0.05$), though differences among these three treatments were not significant. The TM treatment showed the lowest mineralization intensity, significantly different from all other treatments.

The decomposition of organic materials and their residue rates are important indicators for evaluating their effectiveness in maintaining and improving soil organic matter status and fertility. These processes are influenced by organic material type, chemical composition, soil type, and decomposition environment [36]. Clarifying decomposition patterns of organic fertilizers is essential for scientifically replenishing soil organic matter and developing appropriate fertilization strategies [28].

Different organic fertilizers from various plant and animal sources contain different qualities of carbon, nitrogen, and other elements, which may result in different soil CO₂ emissions when applied at equal rates. Soil CO₂ release is a major pathway of organic carbon output, directly affecting nutrient element release and supply as well as CO₂ gas emissions [34,37]. Soil organic carbon mineralization intensity reflects organic matter decomposition and nutrient supply status [37]. Numerous studies have demonstrated that organic material application promotes soil CO₂ release [17-18].

For example, Dai et al. [38] found that soils amended with manure and straw released significantly more CO₂ than unfertilized soils. Li et al. [39] reported that the ranking of potential organic carbon mineralization CO₂-C release in red soils under different fertilization treatments was: organic fertilizer > organic fertilizer plus chemical fertilizer > straw return plus chemical fertilizer > no fertilizer. The increased CO₂ emissions resulting from straw and organic

fertilizer application do not directly contribute to atmospheric CO₂ increase; instead, they can enhance soil carbon sequestration and mitigate the impact of soil carbon release on atmospheric CO₂ concentration [39].

Our results showed that during the 35-day incubation period, all SMS-amended treatments exhibited an initial increase in CO₂ release rate followed by a decrease and stabilization, similar to patterns observed with straw addition in previous studies [23,35,40-42]. This pattern occurs because SMS is rich in proteins, NPK, medium and trace elements, ash, crude fat, crude protein, crude fiber, and various amino acids. As an external organic material, SMS provides readily available nutrients and energy sources for microorganisms, thereby stimulating soil respiration. During the early stage, readily decomposable components in SMS and soil were rapidly mineralized, leading to rapid increases in soil organic carbon mineralization rate and amount. As incubation progressed, these readily decomposable components were depleted, and microorganisms began utilizing more recalcitrant components, causing mineralization rates to slow and organic carbon decomposition to decrease accordingly.

After 35 days of incubation with different SMS ratios, soil organic carbon mineralization intensity was minimal, with most organic carbon being sequestered in the soil, particularly in the TM treatment which showed the lowest mineralization intensity. This indicates that higher SMS application rates result in greater carbon sequestration, similar to effects observed with straw return [23].

It should be noted that this study was conducted under controlled laboratory conditions with small samples and constant temperature. Under field conditions, factors affecting SMS decomposition and soil CO₂ release are more complex and require further validation.

References

- [1] Weng B Q, Liao J H, Luo T, et al. Integrative technology of straw-edible fungi industry and management countermeasure for resource recycling utilization[J]. Chinese Journal of Eco-Agriculture, 2009, 17(5): 1007-1011
- [2] Stewart D P C, Cameron K C, Cornforth I S. Effects of spent mushroom substrate on soil chemical conditions and plant growth in an intensive horticultural system: A comparison with inorganic fertiliser[J]. Australian Journal of Soil Research, 1998, 36(2): 185-198
- [3] Phan C W, Sabaratnam V. Potential uses of spent mushroom substrate and its associated lignocellulosic enzymes[J]. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology, 2012, 96(4): 863-873
- [4] Wang S X, Xu F, Li Z M, et al. The spent mushroom substrates of *Hypsizygus marmoreus* can be an effective component for growing the oyster mushroom *Pleurotus ostreatus*[J]. Scientia Horticulturae, 2015, 186: 217-222
- [5] Kalembasa D, Becher M. Speciation of carbon and selected metals in spent mushroom substrates[J]. Journal of Elementology, 2012, 17(3): 409-419
- [6] Adedokun O M, Orluchukwu J A. Pineapple: Organic production on soil

- amended with spent mushroom substrate[J]. *Agriculture and Biology Journal of North America*, 2013, 4(6): 603-608
- [7] Medina E, Paredes C, Pérez-Murcia M D, et al. Spent mushroom substrates as component of growing media for germination and growth of horticultural plants[J]. *Bioresource Technology*, 2009, 100(18): 4227-4232
- [8] Sharma H S S, Furlan A, Lyons G. Comparative assessment of chelated spent mushroom substrates as casing material for the production of *Agaricus bisporus*[J]. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 1999, 52(3): 366-372
- [9] Zhou Q, Gong W Q, Li Y B, et al. Biosorption of Methylene Blue onto spent corn cob substrate: Kinetics, equilibrium and thermodynamic studies[J]. *Water Science and Technology*, 2011, 63(12): 2775-2780
- [10] Ribas L C C, de Mendonça M M, Camelini C M, et al. Use of spent mushroom substrates from *Agaricus subrufescens* (syn. *A. blazei*, *A. brasiliensis*) and *Lentinula edodes* productions in the enrichment of a soil-based potting media for lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) cultivation: Growth promotion and soil bioremediation[J]. *Bioresource Technology*, 2009, 100(20): 4750-4757
- [11] Tam N V, Wang C H. Use of spent mushroom substrate and manure compost for honeydew melon seedlings[J]. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation*, 2015, 34(2): 417-424
- [12] Peregrina F, Larrieta C, Colina M, et al. Spent mushroom substrates influence soil quality and nitrogen availability in a semiarid vineyard soil[J]. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 2012, 76(5): 1655-1666
- [13] René M, Rémi C. Long-term additions of organic amendments in a Loire valley vineyard. . Effects on properties of a calcareous sandy soil[J]. *American Journal of Enology and Viticulture*, 2008, 59(4): 353-363
- [14] Li F L, Wang H P, Zhang Q, et al. Effect of application of mushroom residue on composition of soil aggregates in paddy field and its evaluation[J]. *Journal of Ecology and Rural Environment*, 2015, 31(3): 340-345
- [15] Zhang Y, Li C S, Zhou X J, et al. A simulation model linking crop growth and soil biogeochemistry for sustainable agriculture[J]. *Ecological Modelling*, 2002, 151(1): 75-108
- [16] Carlisle E A, Steenwerth K L, Smart D R. Effects of land use on soil respiration: Conversion of oak woodlands to vineyards[J]. *Journal of Environmental Quality*, 2006, 35(4): 1396-1405
- [17] Ding W X, Meng L, Yin Y F, et al. CO₂ emission in an intensively cultivated loam as affected by long-term application of organic manure and nitrogen fertilizer[J]. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 2007, 39(2): 669-679
- [18] Singh K P, Ghoshal N, Singh S. Soil carbon dioxide flux, carbon sequestration and crop productivity in a tropical dryland agroecosystem: Influence of organic inputs of varying resource quality[J]. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 2009, 42(3): 243-253
- [19] Priha O, Smolande A. Fumigation-extraction and substrate-induced respiration derived microbial biomass C, and respiration rate in limed soil of scots pine sapling stands[J]. *Biology and Fertility of Soils*, 1994, 17(4): 301-308
- [20] Xiao Y, Xie G D, Lu C X, et al. The value of gas exchange as a service by rice paddies in suburban Shanghai, PR China[J]. *Agriculture, Ecosystems &*

Environment, 2005, 109(3/4): 273-283

[21] Zheng J F, Zhang X H, Li L Q, et al. Effect of long-term fertilization on C mineralization and production of CH₄ and CO₂ under anaerobic incubation from bulk samples and particle size fractions of a typical paddy soil[J]. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 2007, 120(2/4): 129-138

[22] Mariscal-Sancho I, Santano J, Mendiola M Á, et al. Carbon dioxide emission rates and β -Glucosidase activity in Mediterranean ultisols under different soil management[J]. Soil Science, 2010, 175(9): 453-460

[23] Qiang X C, Yuan H L, Gao W S. Effect of crop-residue incorporation on soil CO₂ emission and soil microbial biomass[J]. Chinese Journal of Applied Ecology, 2004, 15(3): 469-472

[24] Li C Z. The research on decomposition properties of different organic fertilizer and effect of increasing soil fertility[D]. Nanning: Guangxi University, 2012

[25] Yan H, Wei S, Zhang L, et al. Influence of organic material amount on CO₂ released rate from the soil[J]. Journal of Dalian University, 2005, 26(4): 46-50

[26] Medina E, Paredes C, Bustamante M A, et al. Relationships between soil physico-chemical, chemical and biological properties in a soil amended with spent mushroom substrate[J]. Geoderma, 2012, 173-174: 152-161

[27] Steenwerth K L, Pierce D L, Carlisle E A, et al. A vineyard agroecosystem: Disturbance and precipitation affect soil respiration under Mediterranean conditions[J]. Soil Science Society of America Journal, 2010, 74(1): 231-239

[28] Chi F Q, Kuang E J, Su Q R, et al. Study on organic carbon decomposition regularity of organic materials in different incorporation methods[J]. Journal of Northeast Agricultural University, 2010, 41(2): 60-65

[29] Galantini J, Rosell R. Long-term fertilization effects on soil organic matter quality and dynamics under different production systems in semiarid Pampean soils[J]. Soil and Tillage Research, 2006, 87(1): 72-79

[30] Li Z P, Wu X C, Chen B Y. Changes in transformation of soil organic carbon and functional diversity of soil microbial community under different land use patterns[J]. Scientia Agricultura Sinica, 2007, 40(8): 1712-1721

[31] Lu R K. Analytical Methods for Soil and Agricultural Chemistry[M]. Beijing: China Agricultural Science and Technology Press, 2000

[32] Liu M, Zhang L, Yu W T, et al. Decomposition process and residual rate of organic materials C and N in soils[J]. Chinese Journal of Applied Ecology, 2007, 18(11): 2503-2506

[33] Lou Y H, Zhuge Y P, Wei M, et al. Effect of extraneous organic materials on the mineralization of nitrogen in soil[J]. Chinese Journal of Soil Science, 2009, 40(2): 315-320

[34] Li S J, Qiu L P, Zhang X C. Mineralization of soil organic carbon and its relations with soil physical and chemical properties on the Loess Plateau[J]. Acta Ecologica Sinica, 2010, 30(5): 1217-1226

[35] Zhang J, Huang J S, Liu J, et al. Carbon dioxide emissions and organic carbon contents of fluvo-aquic soil as influenced by straw and lignin and their biochars[J]. Journal of Agro-Environment Science, 2015, 34(2): 401-408

[36] Ren Q R. Study on decomposition characteristics of mushroom residue returning to soil and its effect on soil nutrient and crop yield[D]. Ya' an: Sichuan

Agricultural University, 2009

[37] Li Z P, Zhang T L, Chen B Y. Dynamics of soluble organic carbon and its relation to mineralization of soil organic carbon[J]. Acta Pedologica Sinica, 2004, 41(4): 544-552

[38] Dai W H, Liu J, Wang Y Q, et al. Study on CO₂ emissions and its kinetics of soils with different fertilization systems[J]. Plant Nutrition and Fertilizer Science, 2002, 8(3): 292-297

[39] Li M Y, Wang B R, Xu M G, et al. Effect of long-term fertilization on mineralization of organic carbon and microbial activity in red soil[J]. Journal of Nuclear Agricultural Sciences, 2009, 23(6): 1043-1049

[40] Kemmitt S J, Lanyon C V, Waite I S, et al. Mineralization of native soil organic matter is not regulated by the size, activity or composition of the soil microbial biomass —a new perspective[J]. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 2008, 40(1): 61-73

[41] West T O, Marland G. A synthesis of carbon sequestration, carbon emissions, and net carbon flux in agriculture: Comparing tillage practices in the United States[J]. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 2002, 91(1/2/3): 217-232

[42] Mohamad R S, Verrastro V, Bitar L A, et al. Effect of different agricultural practices on carbon emission and carbon stock in organic and conventional olive systems[J]. Soil Research, 2016, 54(2): 173-181

Note: Figure translations are in progress. See original paper for figures.

Source: ChinaXiv –Machine translation. Verify with original.