



1 **Spatially Contrasting CO₂ Dynamics Driven by Green Manure**
2 **Intercropping in Subtropical Tea Plantations**

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19 **Abstract:**

20 Tea plantations are important contributors to greenhouse gas emissions due to intensive
21 fertilization and continuous cultivation. However, the mechanisms by which green
22 manure intercropping regulates soil CO₂ dynamics in these systems remain poorly
23 understood. We investigated how intercropping with *Vulpia myuros* (SM) and a
24 legume–nonlegume mixture of *Lolium perenne* and *Trifolium repens* (HM) influenced
25 spatial CO₂ flux dynamics compared with a no-intercropping control (CK) from tea
26 rows and inter-row zones in a subtropical tea plantation. Distinct seasonal variations
27 were observed, with CO₂ fluxes peaking in summer and autumn and declining in spring
28 and winter. Average tea-row fluxes were 7.41 ± 0.45 , 7.35 ± 0.44 , and 8.12 ± 0.46
29 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ under SM, HM, and CK, respectively, indicating emission reductions
30 with intercropping. In contrast, inter-row fluxes were higher under SM (10.83 ± 0.52
31 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) and HM ($9.77 \pm 0.54 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) than under CK ($9.07 \pm 0.44 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$
32 min^{-1}), demonstrating pronounced spatial contrasts. Diurnal patterns exhibited midday
33 peaks (12:00–14:00), especially in spring and summer, and short-term CO₂ pulses were
34 triggered by field operations such as fertilization and pruning. Notably, HM effectively
35 suppressed fertilization-induced CO₂ pulses, revealing the mitigation potential of
36 legume–nonlegume mixtures. Green manure increased soil organic carbon (6.4%),
37 lowered soil temperature (4.5%), and enhanced porosity (4.2%), collectively shaping
38 CO₂ dynamics. Multivariate analysis identified soil organic carbon (SOC) and
39 temperature as dominant flux drivers, and a potential SOC threshold was detected,
40 beyond which CO₂ emissions accelerated. While intercropping reduced tea-row
41 emissions by 7.1–7.9% but increased inter-row emissions by 12.7–28.9%, continuous
42 intercropping significantly decreased overall inter-row emissions over time. These
43 results highlight the spatially heterogeneous nature of carbon flux regulation and
44 demonstrate the long-term potential of green manure intercropping as a climate-smart
45 management strategy in perennial agroecosystems.

46

47 **Keywords:** tea plantations, green manure, CO₂ emissions, soil factors



48 **1 Introduction**

49 Mitigating greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions to address global warming and
50 associated climate challenges remains a priority in global environmental research.
51 Among long-lived GHGs, carbon dioxide (CO₂) plays the most prominent role,
52 contributing approximately 66% to the increase in global radiative forcing (IPCC,
53 2022). In 2023, the global average atmospheric CO₂ concentration reached 420.0 ± 0.1
54 ppm, representing a 151% increase compared to pre-industrial levels (prior to 1750)
55 (WMO, 2024). Agriculture is a major emission sector, accounting for about 14% of
56 total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Wang et al., 2025). In China, this share is even
57 higher, with agricultural activities accounting for up to 17% of national CO₂ emissions
58 (Xu and Lin, 2017). Therefore, accurately characterizing CO₂ emission dynamics in
59 agricultural systems and scientifically informed mitigation strategies are critical for
60 advancing global GHG reduction efforts and promoting sustainable, low-carbon
61 agricultural development (Xu et al., 2024).

62 Tea (*Camellia sinensis* L.) is an important economic crop in tropical and
63 subtropical regions. Over recent decades, global tea cultivation area has expanded
64 rapidly, reaching 4.70 million hectares in 2022. China has led the most significant
65 growth, with 3.35 million hectares of tea plantations and an annual production of 2.82
66 million tons, ranking first worldwide in both area and output (FAO, 2024). To maximize
67 yield and improve tea quality, fertilizer inputs to tea cultivation area can be up to four
68 times higher than those applied to staple crops during a single growing season (Zou et
69 al., 2009; Han et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2015). In China, average annual fertilizer use in
70 tea plantations reaches 678 kg ha^{-1} , with more than 30% of plantations experiencing
71 over-application (Ni et al., 2019). Such intensive fertilization not only accelerates soil
72 acidification but also significantly increases GHGs emissions from tea plantations (Liu
73 et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2020). However, most existing studies on agricultural CO₂
74 emissions have focused on staple cropping systems such as wheat (Song et al., 2024),
75 rice (Qian et al., 2023), and maize (Zhang et al., 2020), while studies on CO₂ emissions
76 from tea plantations remain limited.

77 For instance, Lang et al. (2017) reported that intercropping rubber trees with tea



78 in the tropical forests of Xishuangbanna, China, reduced CO₂ emissions, although it
79 simultaneously weakened the soil's methane (CH₄) uptake capacity. Wanyama et al.
80 (2019) found that converting tropical montane forests into tea plantations in Africa
81 decreased annual soil CO₂ emissions to 5.6 t ha⁻¹, with emissions positively correlated
82 with soil pH and negatively correlated with the soil C/N ratio. Pang et al. (2019)
83 quantitatively assessed the net ecosystem exchange (NEE) of tea plantations in
84 southeastern China from 2014 to 2017, reporting values ranging from -182.40 to
85 -301.51 g C m⁻², indicating that tea plantations act as net carbon sinks. However, their
86 carbon sequestration potential was lower than that of other subtropical ecosystems, with
87 temperature identified as the primary factor influencing ecosystem respiration. These
88 findings suggest that CO₂ emissions from tea plantations play a non-negligible role on
89 the carbon exchange between atmosphere and tea plantations. However, the limited
90 number of studies has led to substantial uncertainty on estimating tea plantation CO₂
91 emissions, restricting our understanding of their contribution to regional and global
92 agricultural GHG budgets (Li et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2020) and hindering the development
93 of low-carbon tea plantations.

94 In response, there is a growing emphasis on the development of eco-friendly and
95 low-carbon tea plantations (Wang et al., 2022). Toward reduction of fertilizer usage and
96 higher economic efficiency, various management practices were incorporated,
97 including by using green manure. As a modernized agricultural practice, green manure
98 has been widely adopted in farming systems and serves as an important measure for
99 improving soil quality, playing a vital role in sustainable agriculture. Within the context
100 of GHGs mitigation, green manure is recognized as an effective solution for improving
101 soil quality and enhancing CO₂ sequestration in agroecosystems (Forte et al., 2017).
102 However, most studies examining the relationship between green manure and carbon
103 emissions have focused on conventional croplands such as rice and wheat.
104 Comprehensive studies have shown that appropriate green manure management can
105 significantly reduce the global warming potential (GWP) associated with fertilization
106 (Zhang et al., 2024). For instance, Gong et al. (2021) demonstrated that long-term
107 ryegrass cover in organic soybean fields effectively reduced net GWP. In contrast, other



108 studies have reported that green manure application may increase CO₂ emissions. Kim
 109 et al. (2013) found that the application of Chinese milk vetch and ryegrass increased
 110 winter CO₂ fluxes in paddy fields by approximately 197% and 266%, respectively.
 111 Large-scale assessments have further revealed that green manure tends to increase CO₂
 112 emissions, primarily due to differences in plant species and biomass inputs. Biomass
 113 alone explained 63% of the variation in CO₂ emission increases, with emissions
 114 declining as the C/N ratio of cover crop biomass increased. Notably, mixed sowing of
 115 leguminous and non-leguminous green manures has been shown to improve residue
 116 C/N ratios and reduce GHGs emissions (Muhammad et al., 2019).

117 Existing studies on GHG mitigation in tea systems have predominantly focused on
 118 fertilizer reduction and substitution strategies. Wu et al. (2018) conducted a three-year
 119 fertilization control experiment in southern China and found that halving nitrogen input
 120 decreased nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions by 44.5% in tea plantations. In contrast, Yao
 121 et al. (2015) reported that organic fertilizer application led to a 71% increase in N₂O
 122 emissions compared to conventional urea, suggesting potential trade-offs in GHG
 123 outcomes. Organic amendments, such as compost or manure, have been shown to
 124 improve soil fertility, enhance soil structure, porosity, and pH, and promote carbon
 125 sequestration in tea plantation soils (Han et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2021). Biochar
 126 application has also been identified as an effective strategy for improving soil quality
 127 while simultaneously enhancing soil carbon storage and reducing emissions (Wu et al.,
 128 2021). The effect of green manure intercropping on tea plantations was mainly focused
 129 on improvements in tea plant growth and soil nutrient dynamics. For example,
 130 intercropping with green manure species has been shown to enhance nitrogen use
 131 efficiency and increase soil microbial diversity (Huang et al., 2023). The potential role
 132 of green manure intercropping in mitigating GHGs emissions in tea ecosystems remains
 133 poorly understood, and its interactions with key environmental factors have not been
 134 fully clarified (Zhu et al., 2018). Green manure may influence CO₂ emissions by
 135 altering carbon input levels and inducing soil disturbances, but the specific emission
 136 characteristics and driving factors require further investigation.

137 To address these gaps, this study selected cultivated tea plantations region located



138 in the east of China, where is recognized as a very important tea cultivation area famous
 139 by the tea name of Longjing. Commonly used green manure species in tea systems
 140 (*Vulpia myuros* C., *Lolium perenne* L., and *Trifolium repens* L.) were selected for
 141 intercropping, covering both leguminous and non-leguminous species, under
 142 monoculture and mixed-sowing configurations. CO₂ flux were carried out in both tea
 143 rows and inter-row zones across different intercropping treatments. Dynamics and key
 144 influencing factors of CO₂ emissions under various green manure intercropping models
 145 were analyzed, aiming to reveal the potential reasons by which green manure
 146 intercropping regulates carbon fluxes in tea plantations and provide support for the
 147 development of low-carbon tea plantations and sustainable regional agriculture.

148

149 **2 Methodology**

150 **2.1 Monitoring Site**

151 This study was conducted at the Comprehensive Experimental Tea Plantation Base
 152 of the Tea Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, located in
 153 Shengzhou, Zhejiang Province, China (120°83'E, 29°75'N; elevation 30 m a.s.l.) (Fig.
 154 1a). The site is situated in a low mountainous and hilly region of southeastern China
 155 and is characterized by a subtropical monsoon climate. During the experimental period
 156 (August 2022 to August 2024), the average annual temperature was approximately
 157 16 °C, with an average annual precipitation of about 1400 mm. The region experiences
 158 a concentrated rainy season from April to June and has a frost-free period of around
 159 240 days. The tea cultivated at the site is *Jinmudan*, an elite cultivar derived from the
 160 hybridization of *Tieguanyin* and *Huangdan*, and is widely planted across China. The
 161 soil type of the tea plantation is classified as red soil (Ultisol), typical soil species in
 162 this region.

163

164 **2.2 Experimental Setup**

165 Three green manure intercropping treatments were established in this study: *Vulpia*
 166 *myuros* C. (SM), a mixture of *Lolium perenne* L. and *Trifolium repens* L. (HM), and a
 167 control treatment without intercropping (CK). Each treatment has three duplications.



168 Gas fluxes were measured in both tea rows (T) and inter-row zones (G), resulting in six
169 treatments: SMT, SMG, HMT, HMG, CKT, and CKG, with a total of 18 representative
170 sampling points (Fig. 1b, c). Tea plantation followed standard management practices,
171 including fertilization, pruning, and tillage. Basal fertilization and tillage were
172 conducted in middle of October, followed by green manure sowing in early November.
173 Urea was applied as a topdressing in early February. Tea leaves were harvested in end
174 of March, and pruning was normally conducted in May and July.

175 Gas sampling was performed using the static chamber–gas chromatography
176 method. The dimensions of the static chambers were $1.25 \times 0.8 \times 1.0$ m for tea rows and
177 $0.3 \times 0.3 \times 0.5$ m for inter-row zones (Fig. 1b). Each chamber was equipped with an
178 internal fan to ensure uniform gas mixing. To avoid rapid heating due to sunlight, the
179 chambers were wrapped with aluminum foil and sponge, functioning as dark chambers.
180 To minimize disturbance, chamber bases with water grooves were installed one month
181 in advance at each sampling point, inserted 15 cm into the soil. During sampling, water
182 was added to the grooves, and the chamber was securely sealed onto the base to create
183 a closed environment. Four gas samples were collected at 7-minute intervals using gas
184 sampling bags.

185 For seasonal monitoring, sampling was conducted once per week between 9:00
186 and 11:00 a.m. (local time). Intensive sampling was also carried out following key
187 management events such as fertilization and pruning. Diurnal variation was monitored
188 over three consecutive days in January, April, July, and October, representing winter,
189 spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. During these campaigns, gas samples were
190 collected every 2 hours over a 24-hour period. All gas samples were analyzed within
191 24 hours by using a gas chromatograph (Agilent 7890B, Agilent Inc., USA). CO₂
192 concentrations were measured using a flame ionization detector (FID) at a working
193 temperature of 175 °C. High-purity nitrogen was used as the carrier gas, with an
194 injection volume of 30 mL and a flow rate of 250 mL·min⁻¹.

195 Meteorological data, including precipitation, atmospheric pressure, and air
196 temperature (AT), were obtained from an automatic weather station installed within the
197 tea plantation. Soil samples were recorded using an automatic weather station installed



198 within the tea plantation. Soil samples were collected monthly using a five-point
 199 composite method within a 1 m radius of each sampling point. After passing through a
 200 2 mm sieve, the samples were divided into three portions:

- 201 i. One fresh portion was analyzed for microbial biomass carbon (MBC) and
 202 microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) using the chloroform fumigation-extraction
 203 method and a TOC analyzer.
- 204 ii. A second portion was air-dried and ground for analysis of soil pH.
- 205 iii. The third portion was stored at 4 °C for analysis of nitrate nitrogen (NO_3^- -N)
 206 and ammonium nitrogen (NH_4^+ -N) by spectrophotometry, total carbon (TC) and
 207 total nitrogen (TN) by elemental analysis, and soil organic carbon (SOC) by the
 208 dichromate oxidation–spectrophotometry method.

209 Soil temperature (ST) and volumetric water content (VWC) were measured *in-situ*
 210 using a portable soil sensor (TDR-315H, Acclima). Soil bulk density (BD) and water-
 211 filled pore space (WFPS) were determined using the core ring method.

212

213 **2.3 Data Processing**

214 The flux refers to the amount of gas exchanged per unit time and unit area. A
 215 positive value indicates net emission to the atmosphere, while a negative value indicates
 216 net uptake from the atmosphere (Yao et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2020). Based on the flux
 217 measurements, cumulative CO_2 emissions under different green manure intercropping
 218 treatments were also estimated. All data analyses and visualizations were performed
 219 using R software. Two-way analysis of variance (Two-way ANOVA) was employed to
 220 assess the effects of treatment type and observation period on CO_2 fluxes and soil
 221 physicochemical properties. Spearman correlation analysis and Mantel tests were used
 222 to examine the relationships between CO_2 flux and environmental variables under
 223 different green manure intercropping treatments. Canonical correspondence analysis
 224 (CCA) was applied to comprehensively evaluate the influence of soil physicochemical
 225 properties on CO_2 emissions.

226



227 **3 Results**

228 **3.1 Long-term Variation of CO₂ Fluxes under Green Manure Intercropping**

229 Figure 2 illustrates the long-term trends of key environmental variables and CO₂
 230 fluxes in the tea plantation throughout the observation period. Overall, CO₂ fluxes from
 231 both tea-row and inter-row zones displayed distinct seasonal patterns: higher in summer
 232 and autumn, and lower in spring and winter. The seasonal differences between the warm
 233 (summer and autumn) and cool (spring and winter) periods were statistically significant
 234 (Table 1). The temporal dynamics of CO₂ fluxes closely tracked the trends in air
 235 temperature (Fig. 2a), suggesting that temperature is a key driver of soil respiration in
 236 tea plantations. Annual fluctuations in CO₂ fluxes were also strongly influenced by field
 237 management activities. For example, a sharp increase in CO₂ emissions was observed
 238 following basal fertilization in October, and another rise occurred in March of the
 239 following year after topdressing and with the onset of warmer temperatures, ultimately
 240 peaking in summer (Fig. 2b-c). The effects of management activities are further detailed
 241 in Section 3.3.

242 In tea rows, the annual mean CO₂ fluxes under HMT and SMT treatments were
 243 $7.35 \pm 0.44 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ and $7.41 \pm 0.45 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$, respectively, both lower than
 244 that of the control (CKT: $8.12 \pm 0.46 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) (Fig. 2b). In contrast, in inter-row
 245 zones, the annual mean CO₂ fluxes were significantly higher under HMG (9.77 ± 0.54
 246 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) and SMG ($10.83 \pm 0.52 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) compared to the control (CKG:
 247 $9.07 \pm 0.44 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) (Fig. 2c). Across seasons, CKT generally exhibited higher
 248 CO₂ fluxes than HMT and SMT, except during winter. In the inter-row zones, both
 249 HMG and SMG showed significantly higher fluxes than CKG in summer, while SMG
 250 consistently had significantly higher CO₂ emissions than both CKG and HMG during
 251 the remaining seasons ($p < 0.05$) (Table 1).

252 Overall, green manure intercropping significantly increased CO₂ emissions from
 253 inter-rows, but reduced emissions in tea rows. In terms of cumulative annual emissions,
 254 HMT and SMT resulted in $3.69 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ and $3.66 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ of CO₂ emissions, respectively,
 255 both lower than the $3.97 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ under CKT (Fig. 3). Similarly, cumulative CO₂
 256 emissions under HMG and SMG remained consistently higher than under CKG, but



they declined from $5.76 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ and $6.43 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ in the first year to $4.16 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ and $4.92 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ in the second year, respectively (Fig. 3). Two consecutive years of green manure intercropping led to a gradual reduction in CO_2 emissions from inter-rows, indicating its potential role in long-term emission mitigation in tea plantations. CO_2 emissions from inter-rows were substantially higher than those from tea rows. Compared with the control, HM and SM intercropping increased inter-row cumulative CO_2 emissions by 12.7% and 28.9%, respectively, while reducing tea-row emissions by 7.1% and 7.9% (Fig. 3a-b). Inter-row zones accounted for 52.6%, 57.3%, and 60.8% of the total annual CO_2 emissions in the CK, HM, and SM treatments, respectively (Fig. 3c-d), indicating that the inter-row emissions cannot be ignored.

267

268 **3.2 Diurnal CO_2 Variations**

CO_2 fluxes in the tea plantation exhibited pronounced diurnal variations across all seasons, particularly in spring and summer (Fig. 4), likely influenced by the growth stages of green manure species. In spring, CO_2 fluxes in tea rows under all treatments showed a similar diurnal trend: an initial decline followed by a rapid increase. HMT and SMT reached their minimum fluxes at 08:00 (local time), with values of $-3.74 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ and $-3.80 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$, respectively, then rose sharply and stabilized in the afternoon. The diurnal amplitudes under HMT and SMT were notably greater than that of the control (CKT) (Fig. 4a). In the inter-row zones, the diurnal patterns under green manure treatments differed notably from the control (Fig. 4b). CKG displayed a unimodal pattern with a peak at 12:00 ($12.74 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) and a trough at 08:00 ($5.45 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$), resulting in an amplitude of $7.29 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. In contrast, HMG and SMG exhibited later peaks at 16:00 ($23.26 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) and 14:00 ($24.17 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$), respectively, with troughs also at 08:00 (HMG: $12.28 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$; SMG: $12.43 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$). Both treatments showed substantially higher amplitudes than CKG.

Summer exhibited the most pronounced diurnal variation of CO_2 fluxes across all seasons. In tea rows, CKT, HMT, and SMT followed a bimodal pattern, with peaks at 02:00 and 12:00, and a trough at 08:00. Their respective diurnal amplitudes were 12.96,



287 6.70, and 10.10 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4c). In the inter-rows, the amplitudes were
 288 relatively lower, 7.72, 8.12, and 7.79 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ for CKG, HMG, and SMG,
 289 respectively, indicating smaller fluctuations compared to tea rows (Fig. 4d). Notably,
 290 summer also showed the most distinct contrast between tea rows and inter-rows: CKT
 291 recorded the highest average flux in the tea rows, while CKG had the lowest in the inter-
 292 rows.

293 In autumn, tea-row fluxes under all treatments exhibited a unimodal pattern, with
 294 minima at 08:00 and peaks at 14:00. The diurnal amplitudes were 11.27, 8.02, and 12.75
 295 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ for CKT, HMT, and SMT, respectively (Fig. 4e). In the inter-rows, HMG
 296 and SMG displayed relatively stable diurnal trends, whereas CKG showed a bimodal
 297 pattern with peaks at 06:00 and 16:00, and a greater amplitude than both HMG and
 298 SMG (Fig. 4f).

299 In winter, CO_2 fluxes showed the most stable diurnal variation of the year. In tea
 300 rows, amplitudes were only 2.96, 2.84, and 4.92 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ for CKT, HMT, and
 301 SMT, respectively (Fig. 4g). Unlike other seasons, 08:00 no longer corresponded to the
 302 daily minimum but rather to a relative maximum, with daily peaks generally occurring
 303 at 14:00. In inter-rows, diurnal patterns were less defined. SMG exhibited the highest
 304 flux at 08:00 (7.57 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), while HMG showed the lowest at 14:00 (0.99
 305 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) (Fig. 4h).

306

307 **3.3 Effect of Human Management on CO_2 Fluxes**

308 CO_2 fluxes from the tea field varied significantly across different growth stages of
 309 green manure, exhibiting a general increasing trend from the early growth stage to the
 310 vigorous, wilting, and decomposition stages (Fig. 5a). In the tea rows, the lowest fluxes
 311 were observed during the early growth stage, while the highest occurred during the
 312 decomposition stage. Differences among the three treatments (CKT, HMT, and SMT)
 313 were minimal during the early growth but became more apparent in the subsequent
 314 stages. Notably, during the vigorous stage, both HMT and SMT treatments reduced CO_2
 315 emissions compared to CKT. In contrast, the impact of green manure growth on CO_2
 316 fluxes was more pronounced in the inter-row zones (Fig. 5b). At all growth stages, CO_2



317 fluxes under the HMG and SMG treatments were significantly higher than those under
 318 CKG, with the largest differences observed during the wilting stage. Peak emissions
 319 occurred during the decomposition stage for HMG and during the wilting stage for
 320 SMG.

321 Fertilization substantially increased CO₂ emissions across the tea plantation (Fig.
 322 5c-d). In tea rows, the post-fertilization increase in CO₂ flux under HMT was 43.1%
 323 lower than that under CKT, whereas SMT showed a 9.2% higher increase. In the inter-
 324 row zones, HMG reduced the fertilization-induced increase by 10.4% compared to
 325 CKG, while SMG amplified it by 40.1%. These findings indicate that the HM treatment
 326 can effectively mitigated CO₂ emissions triggered by fertilization, while SM treatment
 327 may intensify them, revealing the potential of legume-based mixed green manure to
 328 reduce CO₂ emissions in tea plantations. It is worth noting that the mitigation effect in
 329 the inter-row zones was weaker than in the tea rows, possibly due to differences in root
 330 distribution or organic matter inputs.

331 The effects of grass planting and tea pruning on CO₂ fluxes varied by treatment
 332 type and location (tea row or inter-row) (Fig. 5c-d). In the CK treatment, grass planting
 333 had no significant impact on CO₂ fluxes. However, the HM treatment led to a marked
 334 increase after grass planting, with inter-row fluxes rising by 1.81 mg·m⁻²·min⁻¹.
 335 Similarly, the SM treatment showed significant increases in both zones, with an
 336 increase of 0.90 mg·m⁻²·min⁻¹ in tea rows and an inter-row increase that was 3.8 times
 337 greater. These increases can be attribute to soil disturbance during sowing.

338 After tea pruning, no significant changes in CO₂ flux were observed in the CK
 339 treatment. However, both HMT and SMT significantly increased CO₂ emissions in tea
 340 row, with increments of 2.74 mg·m⁻²·min⁻¹ and 2.94 mg·m⁻²·min⁻¹, respectively. In the
 341 inter-row zones, only the HMG treatment exhibited a significant post-pruning increase
 342 of 3.25 mg·m⁻²·min⁻¹. These increases may be attributed to pruning residues covering
 343 the green manure surface, which could elevate soil temperature and moisture, thereby
 344 enhancing soil respiration and CO₂ emissions.

345



3.4 Effects of Environmental Factors on CO₂ Fluxes

Significant differences in soil nutrient parameters were observed between tea rows and inter-row zones under various green manure intercropping treatments (Fig. 6). Green manure treatments generally increased soil total carbon (TC) and total nitrogen (TN), with consistently higher TC and TN levels in the inter-row zones than in the tea rows (Fig. 6a-b), resulting in significantly higher C/N ratios in the tea rows (Fig. 6c). Soil ammonium nitrogen (NH₄⁺-N) and nitrate nitrogen (NO₃⁻-N) concentrations were also significantly greater in the inter-row zones, with the highest NH₄⁺-N found in CKG (71.20 mg·kg⁻¹) and the highest NO₃⁻-N in SMG (14.56 mg·kg⁻¹). All green manure treatments significantly increased soil organic carbon (SOC), the average SOC contents under HM and SM were 3.6% and 9.3% higher than under CK, respectively (Fig. 6f). Microbial biomass carbon (MBC) and microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) showed no significant differences between tea rows and inter-row zones, but both were slightly elevated under green manure treatments (Fig. 6g-h). Soil pH ranged from 3.6 to 4.5, with no significant differences among treatments, although green manure application slightly increased soil pH (Fig. 6i).

During the monitoring, soil temperature ranged from 2.3–41.8°C in CK, 3.0–37.6°C in HM, and 3.5–36.6°C in SM. Average soil temperatures in HM and SM were 4.5% and 3.9% lower than in CK, indicating a cooling effect of green manure. Additionally, bulk density was reduced by 8.9% and 5.0% in HM and SM compared to CK, while total porosity increased by 5.3% and 3.0%, and WFPS decreased by 29.1% and 11.1%, respectively. These results suggest that green manure intercropping effectively reduces soil compaction and improves soil aeration. The combined effect of these factors is the key to the changes in CO₂ emissions.

To further clarify these relationships, we examined the correlations between CO₂ fluxes and environmental factors under different green manure treatments (Fig. 7). CO₂ fluxes across nearly all treatments were significantly positively correlated with air temperature (AT) and soil temperature (ST) ($r > 0.5$, $p < 0.05$), suggesting temperature as a major driver of CO₂ emissions in tea plantations. Treatment-specific differences were also apparent: in green manure treatments (HM and SM), both TC and SOC in tea



rows and inter-row zones showed negative correlations with CO₂ flux, whereas volumetric water content (VWC) showed significant positive correlation ($r > 0.5$, $p < 0.05$). In contrast, VWC was negatively correlated with CO₂ flux under CK treatment. These findings suggest that green manure intercropping alters soil pore structure and moisture regimes, thereby modifying CO₂ emission dynamics compared to bare soil conditions. Additionally, environmental controls on CO₂ fluxes differed between tea rows and inter-row zones. Emissions in tea rows appeared less sensitive to environmental fluctuations, likely due to the moderating effects of tea canopy coverage and root systems.

Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was further performed to examine the effect of green manure intercropping patterns and soil properties on CO₂ emissions in tea rows and inter-row zones (Fig. 8). The first two CCA axes explained 52.79% and 11.15% of the total variance, respectively. CCA1 was primarily associated with NH₄⁺-N, NO₃⁻-N, SOC, and the C/N ratio, while CCA2 was mainly linked to TN, TC, MBN, MBC, and pH. These results indicate distinct environmental drivers of CO₂ emissions between the two spatial zones. In tea rows, CO₂ flux was positively associated with NO₃⁻-N and the C/N ratio, with relatively minor influence from pH. The influencing soil factors were similar for CKT and SMT, whereas HMT displayed a distinct pattern, likely attributable to the presence of leguminous green manure. In inter-row zones, SOC emerged as the dominant factor controlling CO₂ fluxes in HMG and SMG treatments, whereas NH₄⁺-N was the key driver in CKG. Moreover, TC, TN, MBC, and MBN all showed positive associations with inter-row CO₂ fluxes, with consistent soil drivers under HMG and SMG that differed from CKG, indicating that green manure significantly affects soil–CO₂ interactions.

400

401 **4 Discussion**

402 **4.1 CO₂ Flux Dynamics under Green Manure Intercropping**

403 This study revealed pronounced seasonal variations in CO₂ fluxes from tea
 404 plantations, which were closely aligned with fluctuations in air temperature (Fig. 2a-c).
 405 In spring, rising temperatures enhanced both plant and microbial respiration, leading to



406 a sharp increase in CO₂ emissions (Yan et al., 2022). During summer, when
 407 temperatures reached their annual peak, intensified microbial activity accelerated the
 408 decomposition of soil organic matter, resulting in the highest CO₂ fluxes of the year
 409 (Allison et al., 2010). In autumn, declining temperatures and light availability reduced
 410 microbial activity and soil respiration, thereby lowering CO₂ emissions (Liu et al.,
 411 2020). In winter, low temperatures significantly inhibited both plant and microbial
 412 respiration, causing CO₂ fluxes to drop to their annual minimum (Schnecker et al.,
 413 2023). These seasonal flux patterns were consistent throughout the two-year
 414 observation period, indicating the pivotal role of temperature in regulating CO₂
 415 emissions in tea plantations (Chen et al., 2021).

416 Compared with the CK treatment, HM and SM increased annual cumulative CO₂
 417 emissions by 3.3% and 7.9%, respectively, revealing that green manure intercropping
 418 significantly elevated total CO₂ emissions. Similar findings have been reported in
 419 previous studies. For example, Lee et al. (2021) observed consistently higher
 420 cumulative CO₂ emissions in cropland soils under green manure treatments than under
 421 fallow conditions. A meta-analysis by Muhammad et al. (2019) also showed that the
 422 use of cover crops generally increases CO₂ emissions compared with bare soil. This
 423 effect can be attributed to two possible mechanisms: 1) green manure crops introduce
 424 exogenous carbon inputs into the soil, which stimulates CO₂ release (Ho et al., 2021);
 425 and 2) green manure intercropping reduces soil bulk density and increases total porosity
 426 (Song et al., 2016), thereby improving soil aeration and promoting aerobic microbial
 427 activity. The enhanced microbial activity accelerates the decomposition and
 428 mineralization of soil organic matter, consequently increasing CO₂ emissions (Chen et
 429 al., 2019). By contrast, under the CK treatment, higher WFPS and greater soil
 430 compaction may have inhibited gas diffusion and limited CO₂ release into the
 431 atmosphere (Lang et al., 2017).

432 Diurnal variations of CO₂ fluxes were influenced by both seasonal dynamics and
 433 the growth stages of green manure crops. CO₂ fluxes fluctuated most sharply during
 434 spring and summer, with temperature identified as the primary driver of daily flux
 435 patterns (Pang et al., 2019). In spring, negative CO₂ flux peaks were observed in tea



rows under HMT and SMT around 08:00, due to low morning temperatures suppressing microbial respiration. Moreover, the presence of easily degradable organic matter from green manure may have diverted microbial metabolism toward biomass accumulation rather than complete mineralization to CO₂. In summer, distinct spatial differences appeared between tea rows and inter-row zones. In tea rows, CO₂ fluxes under the CKT treatment were significantly higher than those under HMT and SMT, while in the inter-row zones, fluxes under HMG and SMG were higher than those under CKG. This spatial heterogeneity highlights the dual role of green manure: in tea rows, the shading effect of green manure canopy reduced soil temperatures, thereby inhibiting microbial respiration; in contrast, inter-row zones were exposed to direct sunlight, root exudates and decomposing plant residues provided additional carbon sources. Under favorable thermal conditions, this stimulated microbial activity and thus increased CO₂ emissions (Gui et al., 2024). In autumn and winter, CO₂ flux peaks were mostly recorded in the afternoon, possibly due to rising temperatures reaching a threshold that accelerated enzymatic reactions and microbial metabolism, enhancing root and soil respiration and thus elevating CO₂ emissions (Dove et al., 2021).

452

453 **4.2 Influence of Cultivation Management on CO₂ Fluxes**

Fertilization, pruning, and soil tillage with cover cropping are critical anthropogenic management practices in tea plantations that significantly affect CO₂ flux dynamics. Fertilizer application, in particular, is a major contributor to agricultural greenhouse gas emissions, with emission strength influenced by the type, amount, and method of application (Wang et al., 2024). In this study, the application of rapeseed cake and compound fertilizers significantly increased soil CO₂ fluxes, especially within tea rows. This increase can be attributed to two main factors: 1) the input of exogenous organic matter enriched soil organic carbon content; and 2) trench fertilization caused physical disturbance, disrupting soil aggregates and accelerating the decomposition of soil organic carbon. These disturbances stimulated the abundance and metabolic activity of aerobic heterotrophic microbes, promoting organic matter mineralization and resulting in elevated CO₂ emissions (Chappell et al., 2015; Struck et al., 2020).



466 Intensive pruning conducted in May and August further contributed to increased CO₂
467 fluxes. Pruning substantially reduces the photosynthetic biomass of tea plants,
468 diminishing their carbon sequestration capacity. Simultaneously, the resulting litterfall
469 provides abundant substrates for microbial respiration (Pang et al., 2019). The
470 combined effect of reduced carbon uptake and increased decomposition substrates leads
471 to a rapid short-term increase in CO₂ emissions after pruning.

472 Previous studies have demonstrated that intercropping systems introduce readily
473 decomposable carbon through root exudates, while green manure decomposition
474 increases organic matter inputs and improves soil organic carbon storage (Gui et al.,
475 2024). In this study, CO₂ fluxes in inter-row zones were significantly higher than the
476 control during the wilting and decomposition stages of green manure, suggesting that
477 microbial activity was enhanced during these periods, thereby accelerating the
478 decomposition and transformation of organic matter and intensifying soil respiration.
479 Additionally, soils under green manure treatments exhibited lower annual average
480 temperatures compared to the control, indicating that intercropping with green manure
481 moderated surface soil temperatures and reduced daily temperature fluctuations. This
482 effect was particularly pronounced in summer, when green manure not only reduced
483 inter-row CO₂ emissions but also improved the microclimatic conditions of the tea
484 plantation.

485 Traditional CO₂ flux measurements in tea plantations have mostly focused only on
486 tea rows, often neglecting inter-row soil emissions (Yao et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2021).
487 In this study, static chambers were parallelly employed to measure CO₂ fluxes in tea
488 rows and inter-row areas, enabling a more accurate understanding of CO₂ emissions.
489 Results showed that inter-row CO₂ fluxes were significantly higher than those in tea
490 rows ($p < 0.05$), accounting for 52.6%, 57.3%, and 60.8% of the annual cumulative CO₂
491 emissions under CK, HM, and SM treatments, respectively. These findings emphasize
492 the substantial contribution of inter-row zones to overall CO₂ emissions. This
493 discrepancy is due to differences in management intensity: fertilization and tillage are
494 commonly performed in inter-row areas, while the soil beneath tea canopies
495 experiences minimal disturbance (Hirono and Nonaka, 2012). Moreover, pruning



residues often accumulate in inter-row zones, further intensifying microbial activity and CO₂ emissions in these areas. The cumulative CO₂ emissions under HMG and SMG treatments were significantly lower in the second year. This reduction may be attributed to reduced human disturbance and the regulatory effects of green manure (Gui et al., 2024). Therefore, long-term and systematic monitoring of inter-row soil CO₂ emissions is essential for accurately assessing the carbon dynamics and mitigation potential of tea plantation ecosystems.

503

4.3 Differences in Environmental Drivers

Soil CO₂ fluxes are regulated by multiple environmental factors, including photosynthetic activity or vegetation productivity (Tang et al., 2005), and soil properties such as temperature and moisture (Liu et al., 2023; Widanagamage et al., 2025). Among them, temperature is widely recognized as a primary driver of seasonal variation in soil respiration (Lang et al., 2017). Our results showed that CO₂ fluxes in both tea rows and inter-row areas were significantly correlated with soil and air temperatures under different green manure treatments (Fig. 7). In addition, carbon and nitrogen transformation processes driven by microorganisms are closely coupled. Nitrification and denitrification alter NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-N levels, thereby influencing soil physicochemical properties and microbial activity. As a result, CO₂ emissions exhibit significant positive correlations with nitrogen mineralization, denitrification, and N₂O emissions (Dai et al., 2020). This carbon–nitrogen coupling may interact with the distinctive nutrient uptake characteristics of tea plants, which are ammonium-preferring species with rapid NH₄⁺ assimilation (Xin et al., 2024). In our study, CO₂ fluxes under the CKG treatment were positively correlated with NH₄⁺-N content (Fig. 9). NH₄⁺-N levels under this treatment (71.20 mg·kg⁻¹) were significantly higher than in the SMG and HMG treatments, whereas the corresponding soil pH value (3.97) was significantly lower ($p < 0.05$). This concurrent high NH₄⁺-N level and strong acidification is due to ammonium accumulation under conventional fertilization and subsequent H⁺ release during nitrification (Chen et al., 2021). By contrast, the soil pH under green manure intercropping treatments increased by 0.02–0.11 units compared to the CK treatment



(Fig. 6i), suggesting that root exudates and organic matter inputs from green manure buffered soil acidification by reducing H^+ release during NH_4^+ nitrification. Moreover, the NO_3^- -N concentration in the SMG treatment ($14.56 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) was significantly higher than that in other treatments (Fig. 6e), due to the high biomass of *Vulpia myuros* C., which may reduce nitrate losses via runoff or leaching. Its active root system also improved soil aeration, inhibiting denitrification under anoxic conditions.

SOC content reflects the dynamic balance between organic matter inputs and decomposition (Mo et al., 2024). In our study, SOC levels in the HMT and SMT treatments were higher than those in the CKT treatment, while their cumulative annual CO_2 emissions were lower. This indicates that increasing SOC storage can help mitigate greenhouse gas emissions, consistent with findings by Han et al. (2022). However, the HMG and SMG treatments exhibited much higher SOC levels than CKG, while their cumulative CO_2 emissions exceeded those of CKG. This implies that once SOC accumulation surpasses a certain threshold, the excess carbon supply may stimulate microbial activity and subsequently increase CO_2 emissions (Lim and Choi, 2014). Interestingly, recent studies reveal that SOC thresholds can modulate the impact of nitrogen fertilization on carbon sequestration. In SOC-poor soils, nitrogen inputs tend to promote carbon accumulation and soil aggregation, enhancing SOC storage. Conversely, in SOC-rich soils, nitrogen fertilization may enhance microbial metabolic efficiency and increase microbial residue production (Ling et al., 2025). These insights provide a new perspective for interpreting our results and highlight the importance of identifying threshold values under multifactorial interactions to better assess their effects on CO_2 emissions.

In tea rows, excessively high soil C/N ratios may result in nitrogen limitation, thereby inhibiting rapid decomposition of organic matter and reducing CO_2 fluxes. Green manure, as a fresh plant residue with a relatively low C/N ratio, can be rapidly decomposed by soil microbes after incorporation, thus maintaining or enhancing SOC levels (Li et al., 2024), which aligns with our observations (Fig. 7d). MBC and MBN are generally considered closely linked to SOC (Gao et al., 2022). However, in our study, a significant positive correlation between MBC and SOC was only observed in



the CKT treatment. The lack of correlation under green manure treatments may be due to the rapid and excessive input of exogenous carbon, which complicates the relationship between these variables. No significant differences in MBC and MBN levels were found among green manure treatments, and both showed weak correlations with CO₂ fluxes (Fig. 8), suggesting that MBC and MBN are not key drivers of CO₂ emissions in tea plantations.

5 Conclusion

This study revealed the regulation of CO₂ fluxes in tea plantations under different green manure intercropping treatments. Green manure significantly influenced CO₂ flux dynamics, with pronounced seasonal variations, higher fluxes in summer and autumn and lower fluxes in spring and winter. CO₂ emissions from inter-row areas were consistently higher than those from tea rows. CO₂ fluxes in the SM and HM treatments were significantly lower than in the CK treatment within tea rows, while the opposite trend was observed in inter-row areas, suggesting distinct spatial responses to green manure intercropping. Over the observation period, the HM and SM treatments reduced CO₂ emissions from tea rows by 7.1%–7.9%, while increasing inter-row emissions by 12.7%–28.9%. Inter-row CO₂ emissions accounted for 52.6%, 57.3%, and 60.8% of the annual cumulative CO₂ fluxes under the CK, HM, and SM treatments, respectively. These findings highlight the importance of incorporating spatial emission weighting into carbon accounting for agricultural ecosystems.

The observed spatial differences in CO₂ fluxes were closely related to variations in SOC content. Our findings suggest the existence of a critical SOC threshold that determines whether CO₂ emissions increase or decrease. Future research should focus on quantifying such thresholds under multi-factor interactions to better assess their impacts on greenhouse gas dynamics. Continuous green manure intercropping over two years significantly mitigated CO₂ emissions from inter-row areas. The HM treatment exhibited distinct diurnal CO₂ flux patterns and effectively suppressed fertilization-induced CO₂ emissions. These results demonstrate that green manure intercropping, particularly mixed legume and non-legume combinations, not only modifies the spatial



586 pattern of CO₂ emissions in tea plantations but also provides a practical strategy for
587 mitigating carbon losses from managed agroecosystems.

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589

590 **Data availability**

591 The datasets generated and analyzed during this study are available from the
592 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

593

594

595 **Author contributions**

596 S. Liu conceived and designed the study, performed the data analysis, and drafted the
597 manuscript. S. Liu, Z. Jin, and Z. Chen contributed to data visualization. H. Li, Z. Fan,
598 S. Li, H. Fu, K. Zang, W. He, and P. Yan conducted field and laboratory work. S. Fang
599 supervised the research, provided funding, and contributed to manuscript review and
600 editing.

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602

603 **Competing interests**

604 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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607 **Acknowledgments**

608 This study was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
609 (42307126), the National Key Research and Development Program of China
610 (2023YFC3705205), Key Scientific Research Project of Tea Research Institute,
611 Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (TRI-ZDRW-01-04), Open Fund Project of
612 Key Open Laboratory of Ecosystem Carbon Sources and Sinks (ECSS-CMA202309),
613 and the Zhejiang Provincial Research Development Program (2024C03246). We also
614 thanks to the staff who have contributed to the flux measurements at Shengzhou.



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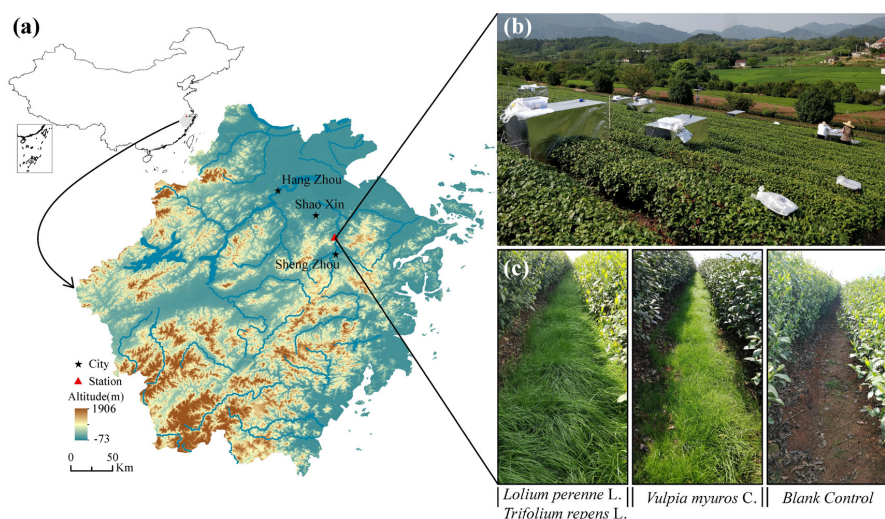


824 **Tables and Figures**

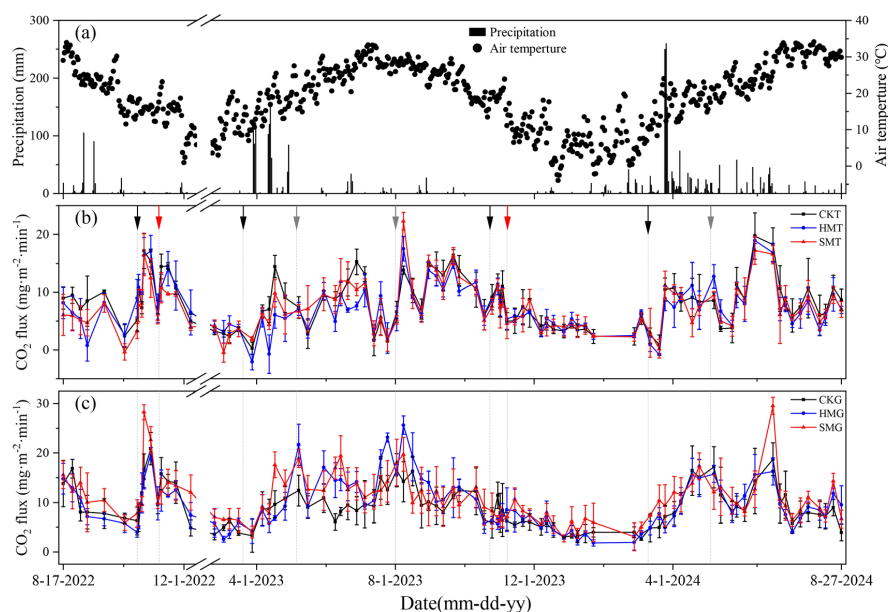
825 **Table 1.** Seasonal variation in CO₂ fluxes from tea rows and inter-row zones under
 826 different green manure intercropping treatments. Different lowercase letters indicate
 827 significant differences among treatments and seasons ($P < 0.05$).

Type	Spring (mg·m ⁻² ·min ⁻¹)	Summer (mg·m ⁻² ·min ⁻¹)	Autumn (mg·m ⁻² ·min ⁻¹)	Winter (mg·m ⁻² ·min ⁻¹)
CKT	6.46±0.58 ^{bcd}	9.66±0.49 ^a	9.93±0.68 ^a	3.60±0.36 ^f
HMT	5.65±0.44 ^{def}	7.97±0.39 ^{abc}	9.21±0.46 ^a	4.10±0.43 ^{ef}
SMT	6.05±0.39 ^{cde}	8.99±0.34 ^a	8.47±0.30 ^{ab}	3.71±0.37 ^f
CKG	8.83±1.14 ^{cd}	10.63±0.66 ^{abc}	9.76±0.83 ^{ab}	4.03±0.52 ^e
HMG	9.08±0.49 ^{cd}	13.03±0.29 ^a	9.38±0.39 ^{bcd}	4.19±0.29 ^e
SMG	10.76±0.43 ^{ab}	12.69±0.73 ^{ab}	10.94±0.86 ^{abc}	6.03±0.84 ^{de}

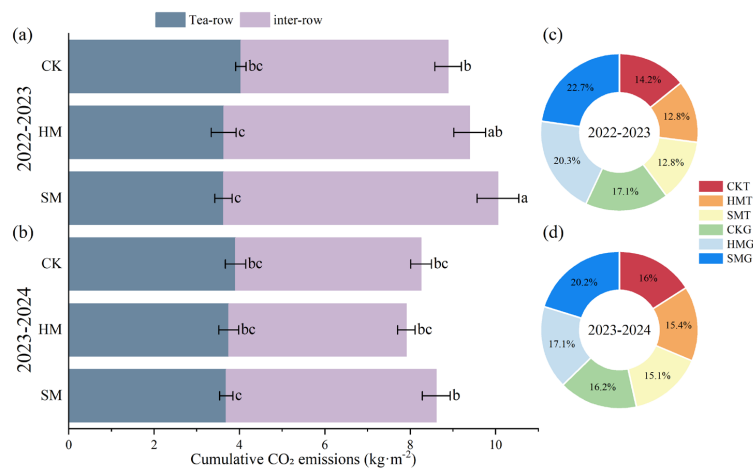
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 830 **Figure 1.** (a) Geographic location of the study area in Shengzhou City, Zhejiang
 831 Province, China; (b) field layout of the tea plantation experiment; (c) photos of *Lolium*
 832 *perenne* L. and *Trifolium repens* L. plot, and *Vulpia myuros* C. plot, the bare control
 833 plot, respectively.

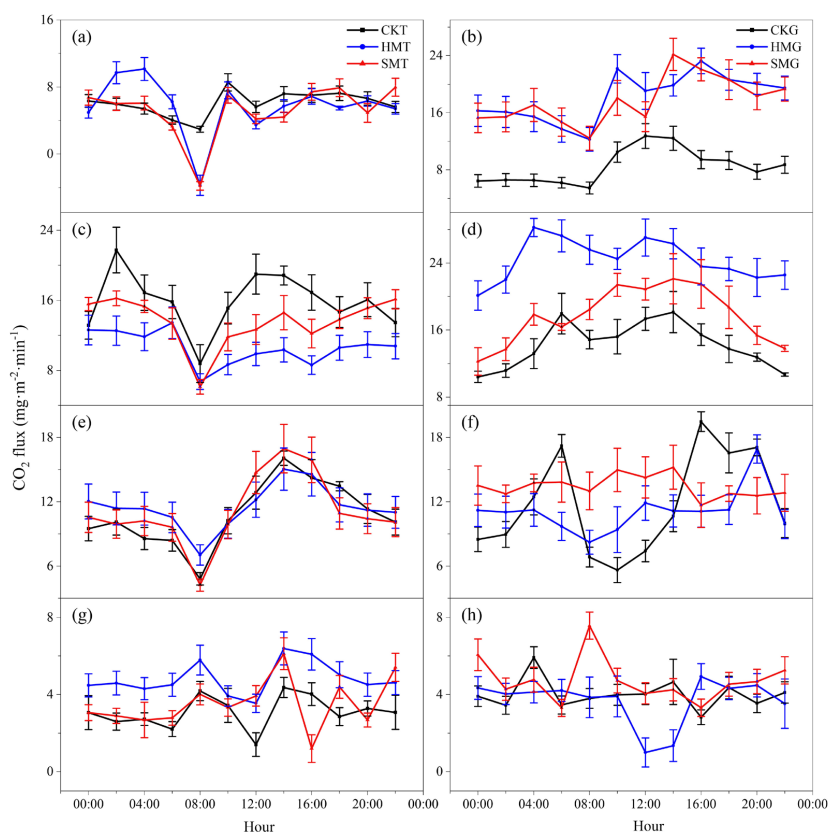


834
 835 **Figure 2.** Dynamics of (a) air temperature and precipitation, (b) CO₂ fluxes from tea
 836 rows, and (c) CO₂ fluxes from inter-rows during the observation period (2022–2024).
 837 Black, green and orange arrows represent the timings of fertilization, grass planting and
 838 tea pruning, respectively.

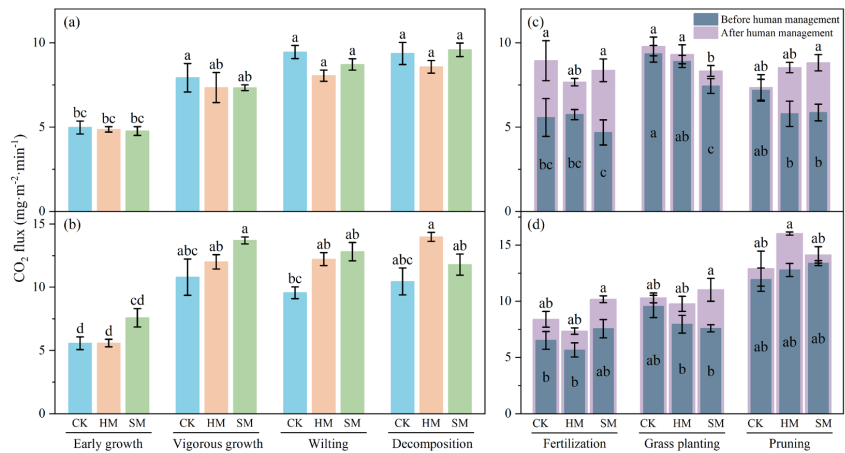


839

840 **Figure 3.** (a, b) Annual cumulative CO₂ emissions from tea rows and inter-rows under
841 different green manure intercropping treatments; (c, d) contribution of tea rows and
842 inter-rows to total annual CO₂ emissions under each treatment.



843
 844 **Figure 4.** Diurnal variation in CO₂ fluxes from (a, c, e, g) tea rows and (b, d, f, h) inter-
 845 row zones under different green manure intercropping treatments across seasons: (a–b)
 846 spring, (c–d) summer, (e–f) autumn, and (g–h) winter.



847

848 **Figure 5.** Temporal dynamics of CO₂ fluxes under green manure (a, b) growth stages
849 and (c, d) management events in tea plantations. Growth stages include: early growth
850 (mid-November to early April), vigorous growth (mid-April to late May), wilting (early
851 June to late July), and decomposition (August).

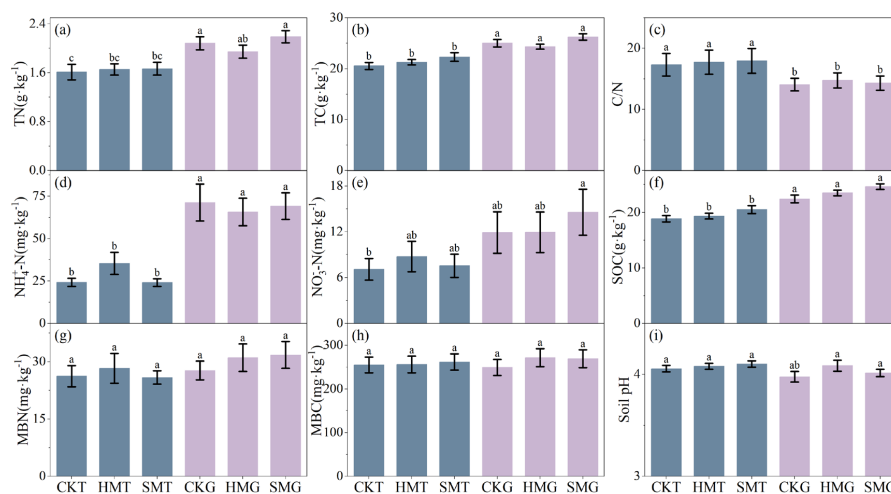


Figure 6. Basic physicochemical properties of soil in tea rows and inter-rows under different green manure intercropping treatments.

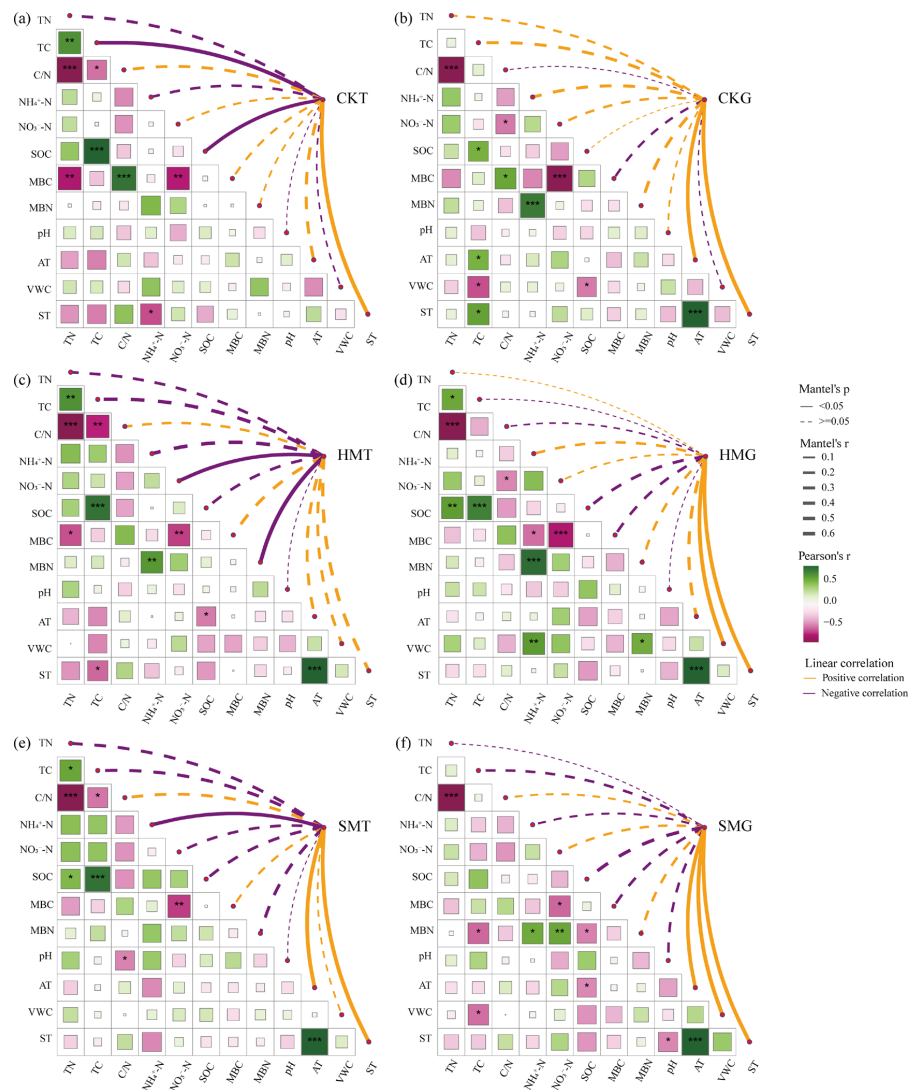
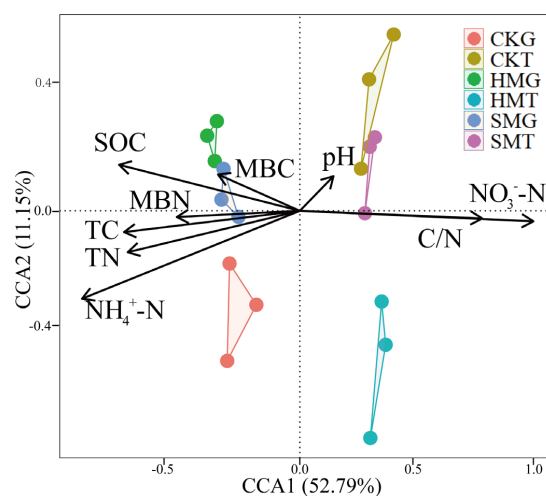


Figure 7. Pairwise correlations between environmental factors and their relationships with CO₂ fluxes under different green manure treatments (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$).



859
 860 **Figure 8.** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) showing the influence of soil
 861 physicochemical properties on CO_2 emissions from tea rows and inter-rows under
 862 different green manure treatments.