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12	3	decontaminated sandy soil paddy field in Fukushima Japan
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3	Abstract

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23	Abstract
24	On March 11, 2011, Japan experienced an unprecedented earthquake off the Pacific
25	coast of Tohoku, and suffered the direct and long-term effects of the earthquake and
26	tsunami in the area. In Fukushima prefecture, agricultural land contaminated with
27	radioactive Cesium from the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant. Therefore,
28	surface soil were removed for deconamination, and low fertility sandy soil was covered.
29	Organic matter input is necessary to increase soil organic matter and green manure
30	application is an effective method to improve soil fertility in the paddy field. Soil
31	microbes and enzyme activities are sensitively responded to organic matter addition, but
32	their dynamics on the dressed field are not well investigated. In this study, we focused
33	on changing the microbial community, diversity and enzyme activities along with the
34	green manure decomposition process in the sandy soil dressed paddy field in Japan. The
35	green manure of hairy vetch and oat were harvested and incorporated in May 2020 and
36	their decomposition process as cellulose and hemicellulose contents were determined.
37	Soil bacterial communities were analyzed using 16S amplicon sequencing. The green
38	manure was rapidly decomposed within the first 13 days, and they did not remain 50
39	days after green manure incorporation. Soil microbial biomass carbon was higher in the
40	M treatment after GM treatment, but was not significant between treatments after 50
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41	days. Dehydrogenase and β -glucosidase activities changed during the harvesting period,
42	but did not correlate with GM decomposition. Microbial diversity (OTU numbers and
43	Shannon index) also changed with GM application, but they were not associated with
44	GM decomposition. Soil prokaryotic communities and some bacteria (Baciili and
45	Chlorolfexi) are significantly influenced by GM treatment. However, Clostrida was not
46	affected by GM. Mixed green manure treatment showed significantly rapid
47	hemicellulose decomposition than other treatments. In this process, Anaerolineae were
48	negatively correlated with the decreasing of hemicellulose in this treatment. These
49	results showed that GM treatment affected microbial communities, and their response
50	was active during the decomposition process.
51	
52	Key words
53	16S rRNA, Enzyme activity, Decontaminated soil, Mixing effect
54	
55	Introduction
56	The Great East Japan Earthquake and tsunami on 11 March 2011, caused damage to
57	the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant (NPP), resulting in serious radioactive
58	pollution throughout Eastern Japan. The radioactive fallout extensively polluted
59	agricultural lands, including paddy fields, with radioactive Cs (MEXT 2011). The Cs

60	contaminated agricultural soil were removed for depth 10cm, and the sandy soils with
61	low soil carbon and nitrogen content (total carbon is 8.29 g kg soil-1 and total nitrogen is
62	0.74 g kg soil-1) were covered as decontamination. The decline of soil organic carbon
63	negatively impacts crop productivity and sustainability of agriculture (Lal 2004;
64	Agegnehu et al. 2016). Organic amendments can provide available nutrients for plants,
65	and the coupling of carbon and nutrient transformation during organic matter
66	decomposition strongly interacts with plant nutrient uptake (Kaye and Hart, 1997). The
67	application of organic materials to rice fields for yield increase has a long history in
68	Asian countries. Recent studies have focused on re-considering traditional fertilization
69	practices to enhance soil organic input by amendments of crop residues, green manure,
70	and farmyard manure (Liu et al. 2009). The most useful organic matter in the paddy
71	field is rice straw. However, the rice yields in this decontaminated paddy field in
72	Fukushima are less than half the average yield in Japan, therefore, not enough rice straw
73	can be applied to increase soil fertility. Livestock wastes are another important organic
74	amendment; however, the stock rising was not restarted yet in this area. The application
75	of green manure (GM) to paddy fields is considered a good management practice
76	(Zhang et al. 2017). GM application has been reported to increase soil organic matter,

77	and fertility, and nutrient retention, reducing the occurrence of plant disease and long-
78	term green manure incorporation increases rice yields (Gao et al. 2013; Li et al. 2019).
79	Soil microbes play an important role in maintaining soil fertility and productivity and
80	drive most soil processes, e.g. decomposition of organic materials, nutrient availability
81	and retention, and soil organic matter sequestration (Coleman et al., 2004). Soils with
82	high fertility generally possess larger microbial biomass, higher enzyme activities, and
83	better soil structure than those with low fertility (Fontaine et al. 2011; Lang et al. 2012)
84	could provide a suitable environment for substrate utilization by microbes. However,
85	microbial communities, abundance, and their activities that respond to plant residue
86	decomposition in the sandy soil are still limited. For recovering SOM in the covered
87	sandy paddy field after decontamination in Fukushima, it is essential to investigate
88	microbial response to SOM decomposition. It was reported that the mixing of different
89	species of GM can effectively improve soil fertility than a single GM application
90	(Fageria et al., 2005; Tosti et al., 2014). The mixtures of plant residue at rates faster
91	than expected from the average of the decomposition rates of the plant types
92	component. This phenomenon is termed the "mixing effect" and the hypotheses
93	proposed to explain it include physical, chemical, and biological mechanisms. The aim
94	of this study is to investigate the effects of GM application on soil enzyme activity and

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6 7	95	microbial community during the GM decomposition process in sandy soil
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9 10	96	decontaminated paddy fields in Fukushima Prefecture.
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14 15	98	Material and Methods
16 17	99	Sampling fields
18		
19 20	100	The paddy field was located in Tomioka town. Fukushima Prefecture, Japan (37°20'N.
21		
22 23	101	140°60'E). The fields are about 12km away from Fukushima 1st NPP. The soil was
24 25		
26	102	sandy loam soil (Fluvaquents) in the top 0.5 m, with 78.7 % sand, 17.7 % silt and 3.6 %
27 28		
29 30	103	clay. Soil physicochemical properties in the field were shown in Table 1. Two species
31		
32 33	104	of green manures were used, i.e., oat (A: Avena strigosa cv. Hayoats) and hairy vetch
34	105	(VI. Visia villes a sy. Evijement). These measure source of more stars and in and
35 36	105	(v. vicia villosa cv. Fujiemon). These species were sown as pure crops at an ordinary
37	100	convince note (4 log of heims sucted and 15 log oct coch in 100-1) and co a mintum with the
38 39	106	sowing rate (4 kg of hairy vetch and 15 kg oat each in 10a ⁻) and as a mixture with the
40 41	107	same quantity (M ^{\cdot} 4 kg of hairy yetch and 15 kg of oat 10a ⁻¹) Non-green manure
42	/	Junite Aumine) (
43 44	108	treatment plots (control: C) were included in the experiments. The experimental design
45 46		
47	109	was a randomized complete block with three replicates. Each plot size was 225 m^2 (15
48 49		
50 51	110	m×15m). GM was cultivated from 1 November 2018 to 5 May 2019.
52	111	
53 54		
55	112	Litterbag experiments
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113	Each green manure was harvested from randomly selected 2 points ($0.5m \times 0.5m$) in
114	each treatment on 5 May. The yields and chemical properties of each GM were shown
115	in Table 1. The GM dried at 70 °C and powdered. The litterbags (1mm mesh size) were
116	filled with 30g of air-dried paddy field soil mixed with each GM. The amount of each
117	GM input was equal to the amount of input carbon rate in the field (0.05 $\%$ of O and V
118	treatment and 0.11% of M treatment) (Table 2). A total of 72 litterbags (4 treatment \times 6
119	sampling times × 3 replicants) were prepared. All litterbags were incorporated in each
120	control plot of the paddy field on 30 May 2020. Within each plot, 24 litterbags (4
121	treatments and 6 were incorporated into the soil by burying them at 15cm depth. Each
122	litterbag from each plot was removed chronologically from 12 June (13 days), 3 July
123	(34 days), 30 July (50 days), 21 August (72 days), and 4 October (116 days). One gram
124	of soil in the litterbags were transported to the laboratory using an icebox and processed
125	immediately after their removal from the field.
126	
127	Soil chemical properties
128	Total carbon and nitrogen contents were measured with a NC analyzer (SUMIGRASH
129	NC-80, Sumitomo Chemical Co. Ldt., Tokyo, Japan). Cellulose and hemicellulose
130	content were determined with colormetric anthrone-sulfuric acid method (Koehler

131 1952) after hydorolysis of component sugars by Oades et al. (1970). The cellulose and

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132	hemicellulose content of the control at that time was subtracted from each treatment
133	section to obtain the cellulose and hemicellulose content at that time. The content at the
134	time of treatment was set to 100, and the degradation rate was determined.
135	Soil biological properties
136	Soil enzyme activity was determined as below. Dehydrogenase activity was
137	determined with the reduction of iodonitrotetrazolium chloride (INT) by Von Mersi and
138	Schinner (1991). β -glucosidase activities were assayed on the basis of p-Nitrophenyl- β -
139	D-glucopyranoside (PNG) hydrolysis after cleavage of enzyme-specific synthetic
140	substrates by Hayano (1973). Microbial biomass carbon and nitrogen were determined
141	by chloroform fumigation-extraction method with $0.5 \text{ M K}_2\text{SO}_4$ at 1:4 soil to extraction
142	ratio (Moore et al. 2000)

143 DNA extraction and microbial community analysis

DNA was extracted from 0.5 g of soil using the ISOIL for bead beating kit (Nippon
Gene Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan), according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA
quantification and integrity were measured using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer
(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and gel visualization (0.8% agarose in
Tris/acetic acid/ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid buffer), respectively. The V4 region of

Statistical analysis

> the 16S rRNA gene of each sample was amplified by PCR using the bacterial and archaeal universal primers 515F (5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and 806R (5'-GGAC-TACVSGGGTATCTAA-3') (Caporaso et al. 2011). A library was prepared by adaptor ligation with the PCR primer pairs using the TruSeq Nano DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). When two or more bands were detected using 1.5%-agarose gel electrophoresis, PCR products of approximately 300 bp in length were excised from the gel, non-specific amplicons were removed, and the products were purified using a MonoFas DNA purification kit for prokaryotes (GL Sciences, Inc., Tokyo, Japan). Each PCR amplicon was cleaned twice to remove the primers and short DNA fragments using the Agencourt AMPure XP system (Beckman Coulter, Inc., Brea, CA, USA) and quantified using a Oubit Fluorometer (Invitrogen Corporation, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The PCR products were adjusted to equimolar concentrations and subjected to unidirectional pyrosequencing, which was performed by Bioengineering Lab. Co., Ltd. (Kanagawa, Japan) using a MiSeq instrument (Illumina, Inc.). Overall, 3,521,651 sequences were obtained from the 72 samples (Supplemental Table 1). Sequencing data were deposited in the DNA Database of Japan Sequence Read Archive under the accession number DRA006673.

169	Illuming sequence data were sorted based on unique bareades and quality controlled
100	munima sequence data were sorted based on unique bareodes and quanty-controlled
169	using the Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology Qiime2 (version 2017.8,
170	https://docs.qiime2.org/2017.8/) with plugins demux (https://github.com/qiime2/q2-
171	demux), dada2 (Callahan et al., 2016) and feature-table (McDonald et al., 2012). Alpha
172	and beta diversity analyses were performed by using plugins alignment (Katoh and
173	Standley, 2013), phylogeny (Price et al., 2010), diversity (https://github.com/qiime2/q2-
174	diversity), and emperor (Vazquez-Baeza et al., 2013). A pre-trained Naive Bayes
175	classifier based on the Greengenes 13_8 99% OTUs database (http://greengenes.
176	secondgenome.com/), which has been trimmed to include the v4 re- gion of 16S rRNA
177	gene, bound by the 515F/806R primer pair, was applied to paired-end sequence reads to
178	generate taxonomy tables. Taxonomic and compositional analyses were conducted by
179	using plu- gins feature-classifier (https://github.com/qiime2/q2-feature- classifier), taxa
180	(https://github.com/qiime2/q2-taxa) and composition (Mandal et al., 2015). The
181	significant difference among each treatment was analyzed by Tukey-Kramer HSD
182	method using R. Beta diversity was measured according to Bray-Curtis distances which
183	were calculated by R, and displayed using Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA). The
184	significance of grouping in the PCoA plot was tested by analysis of similarity
185	(ANOSIM) in R with 999 permutations. The interacted factor between cellulose,

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6 7	186	hemicellulose, and carbon decomposition and related microbes were analyzed using
8 9 10	187	Spearman's rank correlation. The correlation coefficients (Rho value) less than -0.4
11 12 13	188	were defined as negatively correlated microbes and more than 0.4 were defined as
14 15 16	189	positively correlated microbes.
17 18 19 20	190	
20 21 22	191	Results
23 24 25	192	The dynamics of GM content during the harvesting period
26 27 28	193	GM, which mainly consists of cellulose and hemicellulose, was mainly degraded in 31
29 30 31	194	days after GM treatment. At the 13 days, 56-72% of cellulose was decomposed, and the
32 33 34	195	degradation rate did not differ among the treatments (Fig. 1). After 31 days, 5 to 14% of
35 36 37	196	cellulose remained in all treatments and they remained unchanged through the
38 39 40	197	harvesting period. Hemicellulose contents also decreased significantly over 13 days, but
41 42 43	198	they differed among treatments: M treatment, a mixture of V and A treatment,
44 45 46	199	decreased significantly (99%) compared to the other treatments (50% in V and 23% in
47 48 49	200	A). Thereafter, the residues remained below 10% until day 116. In the V treatment, the
50 51 52	201	rate of residues reached 33% on day 72, but they did not significantly differ from the
53 54 55	202	other treatments. Total carbon and total nitrogen contents were gradually decreased in
56 57 58 59	203	all treatments and the highest in M on 34 days after GM treatment (Figure 1). After 50
60		

204	days, TC and TN contents were similar among each GM treatment. Therefore, GM
205	might be completely decomposed until this time. Total carbon content in each field was
206	also changed during the harvesting stage, though they were not different between the
207	treatments (Supplemental figure 1). After the rice harvesting, soil carbon and nitrogen
208	content, cellulose, and hemicellulose were not different among the treatment (Table 3).
209	
210	Dynamics of microbial biomass, community structure, diversity, and enzyme
211	activities response to GM application
212	Soil microbial biomass carbon was significantly increased in M treatment followed by
213	A, V, and C treatment on 13 and 34 days after GM treatment (Figure 2). They
214	significantly decreased and were not significantly different among the treatments after
215	50 days. Dehydrogenase activities were increased 34 days after treatment, and they in A
216	treatment showed the highest activities than other treatments. After 50days, the
217	activities decreased and were not significantly different among the treatment. Beta-
218	glucosidase activities were drastically changed during the harvesting stage; however,
219	they were not significantly different among the treatments. Soil microbial diversity,
220	OTU numbers and Shannon index, did not differ among treatments on days 13 and 34.
221	They were the highest in M treatment compared to other treatments on 50 days and then

222	decreased. On day 72 and 116, they in V treatment were higher than A treatment and M
223	treatment, respectively.
224	The main prokaryotic phyla in the field were Firmicutes and Proteobacteria (Figure 4).
225	They were occupied more than 50% in all treatments and sampling times. In class level,
226	Bacilli were the most dominant bacteria in all treatments followed by Clostridia,
227	Alphaproteobacteria, and unidentified Proteobacteria (Figure 5). The relative abundance
228	of <i>Bacilli</i> was decreased on day 31 compared with that on 13 days, then was again high
229	in the C and A treatments at day 50. Chloroflexi was higher in the M treatment than in
230	the V treatment at day 50; the relative abundance of <i>Clostridia</i> did not differ among
231	treatments (Figure 6). Soil prokaryotic communities were affected by GM treatment
232	(anosim $p < 0.05$). PCoA analysis based on Bray-crutis analysis showed that
233	prokaryotic communities were roughly clustered by sampling times (Figure 7).
234	Prokaryotes sampled in 13 and 31 days were clustered by sampling times. But their
235	communities were not clustered in sampling time after 50 days. We analyzed the
236	microbes correlated between total carbon, hemicellulose, and cellulose contents (Table
237	4). Lachnospiraceae and Clostridiales belonged to Clostridia positively correlated to
238	cellulose and hemicellulose content, and Bacillus correlated to total carbon content.
239	Cellulose contents were negatively correlated ($\rho < -0.4$) Anaerolineae SJA15 and

240	unidentified Chloflexi belonged to Chloflexi, and Rhizobiales belonged to
241	Alphaproteobacteria. Hemicellulose contents were negatively correlated to
242	Anaerolineae SJA15 and unidentified Chloflexi belonged to Chloflexi, unidentified
243	betaproteobacteria, Pedosphaera belonged to Verrcomicrobia, Chrolobi, and
244	Methanomicrobia belonged to Euryarchaeota. Total carbon was negatively correlated
245	with Ktedonobacteria and unidentified Chloroflexi belonged to Chloroflexi, Rhizobiales
246	belonged to Alphaproteobacteria, and Chlorobi BSV26. We compared the correlation
247	between hemicellulose content and each microbe among the GM treatments (Table 5).
248	Bacillus were positively correlated to hemicellulose content in all treatments, and
249	Lachnospiraceae belonging to Clostridia positively correlated with E and M treatment.
250	On the other hand, Anaerolineae were negatively correlated in A and E treatment,
251	respectively, but not in M treatment. Some methanogen (Methenomicrobia and
252	Methanogulaceae) were negatively correlated with hemicellulose content only in M
253	treatment.
254	
255	Discussion
256	Microbial communities and activities during GM decomposition process
257	GM is used as a useful organic matter in the paddy field and it increases soil organic
258	carbon and nitrogen (Lee et al. 2010; Hwang et al. 2015). Gao et al. (2016) reported that

259	about 70% of wheat residue was mineralized under the anaerobic condition as well as
260	aerobic condition in a Cambisol after 12-month in a field experiment. Zech et al. (1997)
261	concluded that 30-45 % of plant residue carbon was accumulated in the soil after 1 year
262	treated with various SOM conditions. In Japanese field, 67 to 79 % of carbon from rice
263	residues was decomposed during one year (Shiga et al. 1985). On the other hand, in our
264	fields, cellulose and hemicellulose were decomposed within 50 days and soil carbon
265	was not accumulated after the rice harvesting period. The aboveground biomass of
266	green manure (barley and hairy vetch) in past related studies ranges from 3.66 to 11 t
267	ha ⁻¹ and is incorporated into the field (Tosti et al. 2014; Jeon et al. 2008, Hwang et al.
268	2015). However, in our field, only 1.24-2.55 t ha ⁻¹ of GM was harvested due to the cold
269	climate of Fukushima and low soil fertility of the covered sandy soil (Table 1). Another
270	possibility of the rapid GM decomposition is the sandy textured soil property. Most
271	sandy soils have low soil organic matter content and show low water holding capacity
272	and high permeability due to their coarse texture (Rutkowska and Pikuła, 2013;
273	Šimanský and Bajčan, 2014). Some studies showed that organic amendments generally
274	decompose rapidly in sandy soils due to high temperatures and aeration (Glaser et al.,
275	2002). Xu et al. (2019) showed that mineralization of residue carbon after 360 days of
276	incubation was higher in low fertility soils than in high fertility soils. Low fertility soils

277	have a higher C/N ratio than high fertility soils. In this case, soil microorganisms that
278	are deficient in nitrogen nutrients will use nitrogen derived from the residue pool, which
279	is more easily decomposed, and will preferentially decompose plant residues to meet
280	their nitrogen requirements. These two factors might contribute to the rapid degradation
281	of GM.
282	Dehydrogenase is an intracellular enzyme that participates in oxidative
283	phosphorylation in microorganisms and basically depends on the metabolic state of the
284	soil microbes (Tabatabai et al. 1994; Insam, 2001). β-glucosidase is an extracellular
285	enzyme that contributes to the degradation of cellulose and other β -1,4 glucans to
286	glucose and is considered to be one of the proximate agents of organic matter
287	decomposition (Sinsabaugh et al., 2008). Soil organic matter is the substrate for these
288	soil enzymes, therefore, dehydrogenase and beta-glucosidase are positively correlated
289	with soil organic matter (Bhattacharyya et al. 2012). However, in our study, each
290	enzyme activity was not correlated with soil carbon, cellulose, and hemicellulose
291	contents. Moreover, no microbes were correlated with each enzyme activity. The soil
292	microbial biomass carbon in this study (13.4 to 87.4 mg C kg soil-1) was much lower
293	than that in the previous study (more than 200 mg C kg soil ⁻¹) (Lu et al. 2002;
294	Bhattacharyya et al. 2012; Zheng et al. 2016). Because the amount of green manure

295	input was low, the small amount of enzymes may be secreted, and no difference was
296	observed between the treatment. Moreover, β -glucosidase is an extracellular enzyme;
297	therefore, it was leached from the outside of the litter bag in the flooded paddy field and
298	contaminated each treatment.
299	Clostridia, organic matter degradation bacteria under anaerobic conditions, is known to
300	increase during the degradation process under flooded conditions (Weber and Conrad
301	2001; Shrestha et al. 2011). Lee et al. (2017) showed that dried rice callus cells, a
302	model of easily degradable plant residues, are mainly degraded by Clostridia under
303	anaerobic conditions. In contrast, the abundance Clostridia did not change during the
304	harvest period and was positively correlated with cellulose and hemicellulose content.
305	Bacillus, the dominant aerobic bacteria in the field, was also significantly reduced
306	during the harvest period. Soil condition might be anaerobic and it is favorable for
307	Clostridia increasing. Clostridia and Bacilli are known for rapidly increasing bacteria
308	response to organic matter addition (Bao et al. 2019). Therefore, it was suggested that
309	they might be involved in the fast decomposition of GM and then they dominated.
310	Thereafter, they could not grow because of low substrates. Compared with their
311	decreasing, bacteria belonging to Chloroflexi, Rhizobiales, Betaproteobacteria, and
312	Chlorobi BSV26 negatively correlated to soil carbon and plant cell wall content. They

313	are well-known oligotrophic bacteria (Fierer et al. 2007; Tian et al. 2015). They can
314	grow in the low nutrient soil as oligotrophs, nitrogen-fixing, sulfate-reduction, and
315	photosynthesis. In this study, there was no effect of GM treatment on carbon
316	accumulation in soil. On the other hand, we revealed that the soil microbial community
317	was affected by GM treatment. The microbial community associated with carbon from
318	GM accumulation was also increased. In the future, the microbes involved in carbon
319	sequestration and link it to the implementation of soil improvement and rice production
320	in the covered field.
321	
322	Mixing effect on GM decomposition and microbial properties
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322 323	Mixing effect on GM decomposition and microbial properties The types of GM also affected their decomposition rate. In general, plant residue
322 323 324	Mixing effect on GM decomposition and microbial properties The types of GM also affected their decomposition rate. In general, plant residue decomposition is correlated with C/N ratio of each plant (). The combination of barley
322 323 324 325	Mixing effect on GM decomposition and microbial properties The types of GM also affected their decomposition rate. In general, plant residue decomposition is correlated with C/N ratio of each plant (). The combination of barley and hairy vetch optimizes the C/N ratio, which can favor the mineralization of organic
322 323 324 325 326	Mixing effect on GM decomposition and microbial properties The types of GM also affected their decomposition rate. In general, plant residue decomposition is correlated with C/N ratio of each plant (). The combination of barley and hairy vetch optimizes the C/N ratio, which can favor the mineralization of organic substrates in soil (USDA, 2011). In this study, C/N ratio of V was 12 and that of E was
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31	faster than expected decomposition speed and single litter types. Cuchietti et al (2014)
32	explained that the fast-slow mixture decomposition rate is greater than expected due to
33	the fast decomposing GM. In chemical aspects, the carbon limitation for decomposing
34	fast decomposing plant residue and the slow decomposing plant residue it contains high
35	CN ratio, will supply the carbon for carbon decomposition, therefore, decomposition
36	will be accelerated. They indicated that fast-decomposing species would transfer
37	nutrients to slow decomposing species, thereby increasing the decomposition rate of the
38	slow decomposition species. Microbial communities also influence the mixing effect.
39	Our results showed that microbes affected by hemicellulose decomposition in single and
40	mixed treatment showed differently. Methanogens negatively correlated with
841	hemicellulose content only in M treatment. They are faculty anaerobic, use H_2/CO_2 and
42	formate as a substrate for methanogenesis, and acetate is required for growth. The
43	microbes involved in the mixing effect are not well studied. Our study provides some
844	evidence that can shed light on some mechanisms of in the sandy soil environemnt, but
45	on microbial and to the mechanisms proposed is critical.

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Figure legends 534

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536	Figure 1. Dynamics of cellulose, hemicellulose, total cabon and nitrogen contents in
537	each treatment during the harvesting period
538	Error bars indicate standard deviations. Statistically significant treatments in each
539	sampling days are indicated by alphabetic labels (Tukey HSD analysis, $p < 0.05$).
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541	Figure 2. Dynamics of microbial biomass, and each enzyme acticity during the
542	harvesting period
543	Error bars indicate standard deviations. Statistically significant treatments in each
544	sampling days are indicated by alphabetic labels (Tukey HSD analysis, $p < 0.05$).
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546	Figure 3. Dynamics of microbial diversity and richness during the harvesting
547	period
548	Error bars indicate standard deviations. Error bars Statistically significant treatments in
549	each sampling days are indicated by alphabetic labels (Tukey HSD analysis, $p < 0.05$).
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5 6 7	551	Figure 4. Changing the relative abundance of prokayoric communities during the
9 10 11	552	harvesting period in genus level
12 13 14	553	The date indicated the sampling days and the alphabet at the bottom indicated each
15 16 17	554	treatment.
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21 22 23	556	Figure 5. Changing the relative abundance of prokayoric communities during the
24 25 26	557	harvesting period in order level
27 28 29	558	The date indicated the sampling days and the alphabet at the bottom indicated each
30 31 32	559	treatment.
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36 37 38	561	Figure 6. Dynamics of each microbes during the harvesting period
39 40 41	562	Error bars indicate standard deviations. Statistically significant treatments in each
42 43 44	563	sampling days are indicated by alphabetic labels (Tukey HSD analysis, $p < 0.05$).
45 46 47	564	
48 49 50	565	Figure 7. Beta diversity: principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) of prokaryotic
51 52 53	566	community structure based on Buray–Curtis distances for each treatments during
54 55 56 57 58 59 60	567	the harvesting period.

Sample names were assigned x/y-z in which x, y and z indicate the date of sampling and replication number, respectively (ex, 6/12-1 was sampled at 12 June and the replication 1).

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Table 2. Yields and chemical properties of each GM

	Yields	ТС	TN	CN ratio
	t/ha	t/ha	t/ha	
V	1.24	0.53	0.045	11.8
А	1.31	0.61	0.01	61.0
М	2.55	0.9	0.03	30.0

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		Table 3. Inpu	ts of GM in the	litter bag
		Input amount	Input carbon contents	Input nitrogen contents
		mg litter bag ⁻¹	(mg kg⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)
	С	0	0	0
	V	37.2	500	42.3
	А	39.3	500	8.3
502	M	76.5	1000	50.7
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Table 4. Soil chemical and microbial properties after the harvesting stage

TC	NT	Cellulose	Hemicellulose	Microbial biomass C	beta- glucosidase	Dehydrogenase	OTU number	Shannon index
C 5.52±0.39.0	43±0.03	238±17	391±18	27.3±16.5	0.09±0.02	0.27±0.17	1271±323	6.39±0.45
V 5.84±0.36 0	48±0.04	226±32	397±6	28.1±14.5	0.11 ± 0.08	0.35 ± 0.01	1893±389	7.03±0.25
A 5.61±0.88 0	49±0.06	222±49	370±38	25.5±17.8	0.16±0.04	0.41 ± 0.15	1334±375	6.37±0.31
M 6.66±0.66 0.	56±0.06	282±51	422±30	24 9±4 4	0.15 ± 0.04	0.48±0.2	838±125*	5.69±0.19*

Table 5. Correlations between each microbes and cellulose, hemicellulose, and soil carbon content

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8		Phylum	Closest relatives	Cellulose	Hemicellulose	Total Carbon
9		Firmicutes	Lachnospiraceae	0.606	0.679	0.242
10			Clostridiales	0.46	0.401	0.203
11			Bacillus	0.261	0.285	0.759
12		Chloroflexi	Anaerolineae SJA15	-0.474	-0.551	-0.347
13			Ktedonobacteria	-0.205	-0.053	-0.438
14			Unidentified	0.41	0.400	0 417
15			Chloroflexi	-0.41	-0.406	-0.417
17		Proteobacteria	Rhizobiales	-0.457	-0.292	-0.757
18			Unidentified	-0.394	-0.45	-0.173
19		.,	Betaproteobacteria	0,070	0,104	0,11,5
20		Verrucomicrobia	Pedosphaerales	-0.3/3	-0.404	-0.088
21		Chlorobi	BSV26	-0.2//	-0.496	-0.401
22	600	Euryarchaeota	Methanomicrobia	-0.097	-0.435	-0.219
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	Table 6. Correlations between ea	ach microbes and, hem	icellulos	e conte	nts in eacl
	Dydum	Clocost rolativos	^	E	М
	Fyldm Firmicutes	Bacillus	0.46	0.50	0.45
		Lachnospiraceae	-0.08	0.45	0.41
		, Ruminococcaceae	0.32	-0.43	0.24
	Chloroflexi	Anaerolineae	-0.41	-0.42	-0.01
		Unidntified Chloroflexi	-0.49	0.05	-0.37
	Proteobacteria	Desulfobulbaceae	0.01	-0.44	-0.10
	Chlorobi	Becapioleobacteria BSCV6	0.00	-0.42	-0.25
	Eurvarchaeota	Methanomicrobia	0.05	-0.23	-0.41
		Methanoregulaceae	-0.02	-0.05	-0.45
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Page 41 of 48

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Soil Science and Plant Nutrition



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Lee et al. Fig 2 Page 42 of 48





Soil Science and Plant Nutrition

Lee et al. Fig 4 Page 44 of 48

³⁵ 6/12 7/3 7/30	8/21 10/4 6/1	2 7/3 7/30 8/21 10/	4 6/12 7/3 7/30 8/21 10/4	6/12 7/3 7/30 8/21 10/4
37 C 38	■ Eirmicutes	A Proteobactoria Chlored	V Ievitus com (Tr Acidobacteria Dianeto	M M
39 40 41	Euryarchaeota	Verrucomicrobia Chlorol	oi ■Actinobacteria ■Others	myoetes

Soil Science and Plant Nutrition

Lee et al. Fig 5







Supplemental Figure 1. Changing the soil carbon content in the paddy field

