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CARBON AND PHOSPHORUS LOSSES FROM DECOMPOSING CROP
RESIDUES IN NO-TILL AND CONVENTIONAL TILL AGROECOSYSTEMS

by

Marc Buchanan* and Larry D. King

*Assistant Professor, Board of Environmental Studies, University of California,
Santa Cruz, CA. 95064 and Professor, Department of Soil Science, North Carolina State
University, Raleigh, NC. 27695

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ABSTRACT

54 An increased knowledge of crop residue decomposition characteristics is a critical component
55 for nutrient cycling studies in agroecosystems. Carbon and P losses from shoot residues of maize
56 (*Zea mays* L.), wheat (*Triticum vulgare* L.), soybean (*Glycine max* L.), and shoot and root
57 residues of crimson clover (*Trifolium incarnatum* L.) were compared in no-till and conventional
58 till systems. Grain crop residues were generally collected from senescent plants following harvest
59 and placed in fiberglass mesh litter bags. However, soybean leaf residues were sampled following
60 pre-harvest abscission, while crimson clover residues were collected at spring anthesis and buried
61 only in a conventional till system. Generally, the changes in C and P content of residues were best
62 described by exponential and/or logarithmic functions. Losses of C and P from crop residues were
63 consistently greater, and more rapid when residues were buried versus left on the soil surface.
64 Crimson clover shoots lost C and P more rapidly than root residues. Generally, greater initial
65 losses of P occurred in comparison to C in most residues. The lack of correlation between C and P
66 losses is believed to be due to an initial but likely variable inorganic P content, which is readily
67 leached prior to the decomposition and mineralization losses of C. Differences in the rate and
68 magnitude of C losses were related to seasonal effects, the initial N and P content, and/or the
69 proportional amount of lignin in the plant residues. Tillage is clearly an important regulator or
70 driving variable for element cycling in agroecosystems.

7 1
7 2 The study of nutrient cycling in agroecosystems may lead to more efficient nutrient use by
7 3 crops and reduce negative impacts on the environment. Residue decomposition is an important
7 4 driving variable of nutrient cycling processes in terrestrial ecosystems. Therefore, an increased
7 5 knowledge of crop residue decomposition characteristics is a critical component for nutrient cycling
7 6 studies in agroecosystems. There has been renewed interest in the management of legume cover
7 7 crop residues for the supply of N to crops (Ebelhar et al., 1984; Wilson and Hargrove, 1986;
7 8 Wagger, 1989), and crop residue management for soil erosion control and moisture conservation
7 9 (Gallaher, 1977; Sojka et al., 1985). However few studies, particularly in field environments,
8 0 have observed mass loss and the release of P from decaying agricultural residues.

8 1 Decomposition of residues is regulated by a number of variables, including the residue's
8 2 physical and chemical properties, climate, and the interactions between soil microflora and fauna.
8 3 Perhaps most important are climatic variables and the susceptibility of the residue to colonization
8 4 by decomposers (Meentemeyer, 1978; Swift et al., 1979). Soil disturbance from tillage operations
8 5 alters the microclimatic variables and is an important regulator of decomposition in agroecosystems
8 6 (House et al., 1984; Wilson and Hargrove, 1986; Hendrix et al., 1986). Previous investigations
8 7 have demonstrated that lignin and N concentrations and the C:N ratio in the residue are important
8 8 chemical characteristics affecting decomposition rates (Mellilo et al., 1982; Muller et al., 1988;
8 9 Wagger, 1989).

9 0 A large amount of P is recycled annually through above-ground and below-ground plant
9 1 residues. The P contained in crop residues, or in a legume green manure that is incorporated in
9 2 soil, can increase available soil P (Fuller, 1956; Dalal, 1979). However, results in many of the
9 3 studies have been conflicting. Fuller et al. (1956) concluded that microbial immobilization of P
9 4 would not occur if residue P concentrations were $> 2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$. Other studies have attempted to
9 5 establish C:P ratios as an index for decomposition rates, P mineralization, and/or plant uptake of
9 6 released residue P (Enwezor, 1967; Blair and Boland, 1978; White and Ayoub, 1983) with
9 7 inconsistent results. Blair and Boland (1978) concluded that P turnover dynamics observed in

8 laboratory investigations may be significantly altered by the presence or absence of active plant
9 roots. Varying magnitudes of chemical and biological immobilization inherent in differing soils
10 rather than P concentrations or C:P ratios in residues are more likely the cause of conflicting
11 results. Another important factor influencing the release patterns and fate of residue P may be the
12 variable and significant inorganic P in the original plant materials (Bielecki, 1973; Dalal, 1979;
13 Stewart, 1984).

14 Jones and Bromfield (1969) found that inorganic P was readily leached from residues when
15 microbial colonization and, therefore immobilization of P was inhibited. This effect may be the
16 dominant mechanism contributing to differences in P release patterns from surface applied and soil
17 incorporated residues. Soluble inorganic P concentrations in runoff or leaching waters are higher
18 in conservation tillage systems in comparison to conventional till (McDowell and McGregor, 1984;
19 Sharpley and Stewart, 1989).

20 Hendrix and Parmelee (1985) reported changes in the P concentration of weed residue as
21 affected by herbicide applications using mesh litter bags. However, it appears that no other work
22 has been done to estimate the release of P from agricultural residues under no-till and conventional
23 tillage practices using this method. Additionally, we are not aware of studies that have examined P
24 release from the shoot and root residues of winter legume cover crops. Therefore, the objective of
25 this study was to measure loss of mass, C and P from residues of three field crops under no-till
26 and conventional till management, and from shoot and roots of a winter legume.

27

MATERIALS AND METHODS

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120 The crop residues used in this study came from plants grown in a long-term cropping systems
121 experiment at the North Carolina State University Agricultural Research Unit 9 at Raleigh. Each
122 system was managed with conventional tillage (CT) and no tillage (NT). The site, which is in a
123 typical Southern Piedmont landscape, is rolling with maximum slopes not exceeding 10%.
124 Temperatures in the area range between a mean of 26^o C in July to 6^o C in January, while mean
125 annual precipitation is 1168 mm. Each cropping system is replicated four times in a randomized
126 complete block design. The plots are 7.7 m wide by 30.5 m long, which allows for the use of full
127 size equipment for all field operations. The plot width accomodates eight maize or soybean crop
128 rows spaced at 0.96 m. All sampling occurred within the four inner rows.

129 Additional details of the management systems are shown in Table 1. Conventional tillage
130 practices utilized fall chisel plow, spring disk, and disk-sweep cultivation for weed control. In all
131 cases, with the exception of crimson clover, only above-ground material was collected. The
132 decomposition of crimson clover shoots and roots was observed only in the CT continuous maize
133 system which incorporates a winter crimson clover cover crop .

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136 **Residue sampling**

137 All residues, except crimson clover, were sampled from four 0.25 m² quadrates chosen at
138 random in each of four plot replicates (n=4). All samples were dried at 60^o C and then weighed.
139 Dry residue samples were subsampled and weighed before placing them in 20 by 20-cm fiberglass
140 mesh bags (1.3 mm square openings). No size reduction (cutting or grinding) of residues was
141 performed prior to placement in the bags. It was assumed that the use of fiberglass mesh with 1.3
142 mm openings would give results reasonably comparable to changes occurring in unconfined
143 residue.

144 Sample weights were equivalent to field estimates (kg ha⁻¹) of standing residues of each crop
145 type. Duplicate litter bags were prepared for each anticipated sample date in each of the four plot
146 replicates. Residues were placed on the soil surface (with underside contact with soil) in NT plots

147 or buried vertically in the 0- to 20-cm depth in CT plots to best represent full distribution within
148 that profile interval. The mesh bags in CT systems were removed and replaced during each tillage
149 operation. A total of eight litter bags were sampled at each date for each residue type and tillage
150 system.

151 Residues became available and were placed in the plots at different times. The residue types,
152 time of field placement, and the sample intervals are given in Table 3. Additional details or
153 deviations from procedures mentioned above are provided in the following:
154

155 Maize - Residues were collected from NT and CT systems (both continuous and
156 rotation) following harvest and rotary mowing of the standing stover. Data provided
157 is from the NT rotation system and CT continuous system.
158

159 Wheat - Residues were placed on the surface in NT plots or partially buried in
160 CT plots to simulate residue incorporation by disc harrowing.
161

162 Soybean - Leaves were sampled after complete leaf drop. Stem and stalks were
163 collected following harvest. Residues were initially placed on the soil surface in CT
164 plots, as no tillage operations occurred until the following spring. The previously
165 surface-placed residue was buried in the CT plots after the first tillage operation in spring.
166

167 Crimson Clover - Crimson clover residues were not sampled from field plots.
168 Rather in the fall, crimson clover was seeded into two free standing cylindrical
169 enclosures located adjacent to the field site which measured 0.75 m in diameter and
170 0.40 m high. This was done to facilitate the collection of root material in the spring.
171 The steel cylinders had previously been filled in layers with subsoil and topsoil
172 which was tamped to approximate field conditions. The walls of the enclosures
173 were insulated with hay and soil.

174 In the following spring, shoots were sampled from 0.25 m² quadrates in each
175 cylinder by clipping live plants level with the soil. Roots were then removed from

176 within the 0.5 by 0.5 by 0.4-m volume of soil. Blocks of soil were first soaked,
177 then gently washed with a stream of water through a nest of sieves. Losses of root
178 material appeared to be minimal. Immediately after sampling, ten subsamples were
179 weighed, then dried to constant weight at 65° C for a mean dry matter determination.
180 Samples were stored fresh at 4° C for 32 hours before subsampling and placing in
181 litter bags. Fresh residue samples were placed in the mesh bags to mimic the actual
182 field conditions. The mean dry matter percentage was used to convert fresh weight
183 to dry weight during the filling of mesh bags.
184

185 **Mass loss estimates and C and P analysis**

186 The initial total C and P in all crop residues was determined from subsamples. All materials
187 were ground with a Wiley mill to pass a 1-mm screen. Two replicate 100-mg samples were
188 analyzed for C using a hybrid of the Walkley-Black and Mebius wet digestion procedures (Nelson
189 and Sommers, 1982). Phosphorus was determined from two replicate 200-mg samples following
190 micro-Kjeldahl digestion (Bremner and Mulvaney, 1982) with a molybdate-ascorbic acid method
191 (Olsen and Sommers, 1982) which includes an alkali addition step to neutralize the acid digest
192 sample. Two replicate 1-g samples of residues were analyzed for lignin content using a
193 permanganate reduction procedure (Goering and Van Soest, 1970).

194 After removal from the field, the remaining residue was removed from mesh bags and
195 weighed. Samples were dried at 60° C, then ground to < 500 µm for quantitative analysis. A 1-g
196 subsample was ashed at 550° C for 12 hrs to correct for soil contamination and, thus, express
197 changes on an ash-free basis. The C and P determinations of residues were corrected to an ash-
198 free basis. It was assumed that all of the ash content was from soil, trusting that the ash content of
199 the residues themselves had declined to minimal levels due to leach losses. A previously
200 determined estimate of total soil P was subtracted for calculations of ash-free P.

201 In most cases, the decomposition of plant materials have been described by linear and
202 exponential functions. Wieder and Lang (1982) suggested that mass loss and elemental release

3 might best be described, after log transformation, by double-exponential decay functions. In this
204 study equations describing mass loss versus time were calculated with linear and non-linear
205 regression analysis options on PC-SAS.

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RESULTS

210 Initial chemical composition of the residues is presented in Table 2. Total C did not vary
211 greatly among residue types, but all other constituents varied substantially. Initial total P
212 concentrations were in the order of clover shoots > soybean leaves > soybean stems > maize >
213 clover roots > wheat. Initial lignin (L) and total N concentration and, in some cases L:N ratios
214 within the same crop residue, differed due to differing management. Initial L:N ratios were in the
215 order of wheat > soybean stems > maize > clover roots > soybean leaves > clover shoots.

216

Maize

217
218 The patterns of total C and P losses from maize residues are shown in Figure 1. This data is for
219 the rotation maize system only, as results in all systems were quite similar. The C and P remaining
220 in the residue at each sampling date is represented as a percentage of the elements in the residue at
221 the time of placement. The decline in residue C and P in both cropping systems is best described
222 by exponential functions.

223 Carbon losses were greater at all sample dates for maize buried in soil. However, at the first
224 sample date (4 weeks), P losses were identical in NT and CT systems. After this date P losses
225 were consistently greater for residue in the CT system. After 44 weeks (1988 maize harvest), only
226 11% of the original P remained under CT, whereas 29% of the original P remained in residues
227 under NT. In comparison, the C remaining at 44 weeks was 21% and 39% for CT and NT
228 respectively. At 100 weeks following placement (1989 maize harvest), the C remaining was 5%
229 and 25% for CT and NT, while the P remaining was 3% and 18% for CT and NT respectively.

230 The greater proportional P losses from maize residues under CT resulted in consistently wider C:P
231 ratios in comparison to NT after the 4 week sample date (Figure 1).
232

233 **Wheat**

234 The decline in C and P in wheat residue in both CT and NT was best described by exponential
235 functions (Figure 2). Following the 3-week sample date, the C loss from wheat residues was
236 greater under CT. However, P losses were consistently greater at all dates for residue under CT.
237 After 9 weeks, only 53% of the original P remained in wheat under CT, whereas 79% of the
238 original P remained in residue under NT. In comparison, the C remaining at 9 weeks was 70%
239 and 80% for CT and NT, respectively. After 72 weeks in the field (1989 maize harvest), the C
240 remaining was 23% and 36% for CT and NT, while the P remaining was 20% and 23%
241 respectively. The greater proportional P losses from wheat residue under CT resulted in
242 consistently larger C:P ratios after the 9-week sample date (Figure 2). It is interesting to note that
243 C:P ratios decreased with time under NT, but generally increased under CT.
244

245 **Soybean**

246 The decline in C and P in soybean leaf and stem-stalk residue under CT and NT could be
247 described by exponential functions (Figure 3). However, slightly more of the variation in C and P
248 losses from leaves under CT could be accounted for with linear regression equations than with
249 exponential functions.

250 Carbon losses from leaf residue under CT and NT were generally similar until 33 weeks. At
251 this time, the residue was buried in soil in the CT treatments. The effect of that incorporation is
252 evident in the data at 45 weeks where a marked increase in C and P loss is apparent. The C:P
253 ratios were identical under CT and NT through the 33-week sampling date (Figure 3).
254 Subsequently, the C:P ratio became much greater under CT than under NT. At 45 weeks (1989
255 maize harvest), the C remaining was 18% and 32% for CT and NT, while the P remaining was 9%
256 and 21% for CT and NT respectively.

257 At 16 weeks, C and P losses from stem-stalk residue became greater under CT. However, P
258 losses were greater under NT at 8 weeks. After 16 weeks, P losses became proportionately greater
259 than C losses in both cropping systems. Mesh bags were buried at 30 weeks in the CT system.
260 The effect of that incorporation is evident in a comparison of the C and P losses at 32 and 40
261 weeks. At 40 weeks (1989 maize harvest), the C remaining in the residue was 35% and 53%
262 under CT and NT, while the P remaining was 20% and 34% under CT and NT respectively. The
263 C:P ratios were identical under CT and NT until the final sample date, when the ratio was greater in
264 CT than NT.
265

266 **Crimson clover**

267 The decline in C and P in clover root residue under CT and NT could be described by
268 exponential functions (Figure 4.). However, the decline in C and P in shoots was described more
269 accurately with logarithmic functions. After 2 weeks, C and P losses were consistently greater for
270 shoots than roots. Note that the regression curves for root samples which extend beyond the final
271 sample date are based on the regression model and not actual data.

272 Phosphorus declines were very rapid in shoots, such that 73% of the original P was lost after
273 only 2 weeks. The loss of P from roots was not as great, but still surprisingly large, as 44% of the
274 original P was lost at 2 weeks. After 16 weeks (1988 maize harvest), the P remaining in the
275 residues was 4% and 17% for shoots and roots, while the C remaining was 10% and 32% for
276 shoots and roots, respectively. Little C and P was lost between the 16- and 48-week (1989 maize
277 planting) sampling dates, i.e., 7% of the initial C and 2% of the initial P remained. Generally, the
278 C:P ratios of shoot and root residues increased with time.
279

280 **Climate**

281 It should be noted that the years 1987 and 1988 were dryer and warmer than normal for the
282 Central Piedmont region of North Carolina. Conversely, the spring of 1989 (when field sampling
283 ended) was wetter and cooler than normal. These climatic variants must be acknowledged as

284 important regulators of our observed decomposition and nutrient release patterns. Rainfall and
285 mean surface soil temperatures during the study period are given in Figures 5 and 6, respectively.

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DISCUSSION

290 This study has observed crop residue decomposition under field conditions starting at the actual
291 time of crop harvest, senescence, or plowdown. These results comparing C and P losses from
292 residues under CT and NT are consistent with studies evaluating N release patterns from residues
293 (House et al., 1984; Wilson and Hargrove, 1986). Generally, C and P loss from all residues,
294 independent of season effects, was faster and greater under CT. The effect of soil incorporation
295 was evident in the data for soybean residues as C and P losses were accelerated following the
296 burial of mesh bags at 30 weeks (Figure 3).

297 We acknowledge that the use of mesh bags may alter the decomposition process. Some
298 workers have been concerned with experimental artifacts due to the exclusion of predatory and
299 saprophytic microarthropods (Hagvar and Kjondal, 1981; Seastedt, 1984). St. John (1980)
300 demonstrated that nylon mesh material interfered with the contact of fungal vegetative structures
301 with confined litter. Christensen (1985) identified problems with losses and gains of organic
302 particles in large mesh size bags. Wilson and Hargrove (1986) minimized this effect by using very
303 small (53 μm) nylon mesh. House et al. (1987) found that decomposition of wheat straw was not
304 altered by mesh openings ranging from 0.05 to 5.0 mm. However, nylon or fiberglass mesh bags
305 have been used extensively in natural ecosystem investigations, and have been employed in mass
306 loss and N release studies in agroecosystems (Bocock and Gilbert, 1957; Douglas et al., 1980;
307 House et al., 1984; Wilson and Hargrove, 1986; Wagger, 1989). This method has been useful in
308 comparisons of placement and management effects on mass loss from crop residues (Holland and
309 Coleman, 1987) and also facilitates the estimation of decomposition rate equations for use in
310 simulation model development (Meentemeyer, 1978).

1 After 100 weeks in the field almost 95% of the initial C in maize residues under CT was lost.
3 1 2 In comparison approximately 75% of the initial C was lost under NT in the same time period. This
3 1 3 suggests that during repeated cropping, accumulation of surface residues would continue for some
3 1 4 time under NT. A parallel assumption could be made for P, as the difference between NT and CT
3 1 5 was 6-fold. We observed a similar pattern in wheat and soybean. However, the differences in
3 1 6 wheat residue C and P loss under CT and NT after 72 weeks were not as dramatic as for maize. It
3 1 7 is clear that with repeated cropping the NT systems will continue to accumulate significant C and P
3 1 8 pools in surface residues over time.

3 1 9 There were very good fits ($R^2 > 0.90$) of the decomposition data to simple exponential
3 2 0 functions. However, as was mentioned, soybean leaf C and P loss was more adequately described
3 2 1 by linear functions ($R^2 = 0.98$, in both cases) and loss from clover shoots by logarithmic functions
3 2 2 ($R^2 = 0.96-0.98$). An exponential or logarithmic decomposition behaviour is likely related to the
3 2 3 various chemical constituents of differing resistance to decomposition contained in the materials.

3 2 4 The differences in the release patterns of C and P among residues is most likely related to seasonal
3 2 5 effects, initial N and P content, and the proportional amount of lignin in the residues. The higher
3 2 6 the initial L:N ratio the more resistant a given substrate becomes to attack by decomposers (*need*
3 2 7 *citation*). This effect is well evidenced in the much greater loss of C from soybean leaves (lower
3 2 8 L:N ratio) compared to stems and stalks (higher L:N ratio).

3 2 9 While the L:N ratio has been found to be a reliable index for mass loss and N release from
3 3 0 decomposing residues, it may not be as effective a predictor of P release. As we noted earlier,
3 3 1 previous studies have not always found a consistent effect of C:P ratios on decomposition rates
3 3 2 and release of P from plant materials. Enwezor (1967) concluded that the variable and significant
3 3 3 quantities of inorganic P present in plant materials could largely affect the early release patterns of
3 3 4 P. Jones and Bromfield (1969) found that 40-60% of the P in selected grasses and legumes was
3 3 5 present as inorganic P. They concluded that this predominantly water-soluble fraction could be
3 3 6 rapidly lost by leaching and microbial uptake. Possibly, such an effect led to the very high P
3 3 7 losses that we observed for crimson clover shoots and roots after 2 weeks in the soil. We

338 speculate that similar or possibly greater proportions of inorganic P to total P may have been
339 present in shoots of crimson clover. Martin and Cunningham (1973) found a rapid release of
340 inorganic P from wheat roots in which approximately 55% of the initial total P was water-soluble
341 inorganic P. So we also speculate, though without direct evidence, that the relatively rapid loss of
342 P from clover roots may also be due to a significant inorganic P fraction. However, one cannot
343 assume that this rapidly released P would dramatically increase plant available P as we have not
344 accounted for the rate and magnitude of microbial and chemical immobilization in soil.

345 The interrelationship of C and P cycles in soils is likely different from that of C and N and C
346 and S cycles (McGill and Cole, 1981; Coleman et al., 1983; Stewart, 1984). It has been proposed
347 that N and part of soil S are stabilized in direct association with C (C-N and C-S bonds) and are
348 mineralized as a result of C oxidation for energy. Conversely, organic P and S are found as esters
349 (C-O-P and C-O-S bonds), which are stabilized by adsorption and precipitation reactions with soil
350 solids and are mineralized by enzymes in response to microbial need. As a result, P turnover from
351 stable organic fractions will generally be slower than N and S. The same constraints should apply
352 for the interrelationship of C and P mineralization from residues.

353 Based on the above, C and P losses should not be expected to parallel one another during
354 decomposition of plant materials. This is apparent in comparison of the changes in C:P ratios of
355 wheat decomposing under CT and NT. Under NT the ratio decreased with time. Carbon losses
356 were proportionately greater than P losses under NT, while they were often quite similar to P
357 losses under CT. We also observed a consistently increasing C:P ratio with time in decomposing
358 clover residues, thus indicating that P loss proceeded more rapidly than C. Only the early data
359 (winter season) for soybean leaf residues indicated that C:P ratios remained essentially the same as
360 C and P loss occurred. In all other cases, the C:P ratio of residues tended to increase with time in
361 the field.

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CONCLUSIONS

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367 This study illustrates that crop and soil management can influence crop residue decomposition
368 and, thus, the turnover rates of plant nutrients such as P. Tillage can be considered to be a
369 regulator or driving variable of elemental cycling in agroecosystems. We have also shown that P
370 release from crimson clover shoots and roots incorporated in soil can be quite rapid. However,
371 without accounting for the fate of released P in soil we cannot determine how crop residue
372 decomposition influences soil P fertility and plant nutrition. The urgent needs for maximizing
373 nutrient use efficiency requires that we improve our understanding of residue dynamics in relation
374 to nutrient turnover in differing crop ecosystems and environments.

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Table 1. Pesticides and commercial fertilizer used in no-till continuous maize and no-till maize-wheat-soybeans, 1987-1989.

Table 2. Selected chemical composition of crop residues prior to decomposition in mesh bags.

Table 3. Residue type, cropping system placement dates, and sampling intervals used for comparisons

Figure 1. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in maize residue and the C:P ratio of the residue in systems with conventional tillage (CT) and no-till (NT).

Figure 2. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in wheat residue and the C:P ratio of the residue in systems with conventional tillage (CT) and no-till (NT).

Figure 3. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in soybean residue and the C:P ratio of the residue in systems with conventional tillage (CT) and no-till (NT).

Figure 4. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in clover residue and C:P ratio of the residue.

Figure 5. Rainfall during the 1987 - 1989 cropping seasons.

Figure 6. Mean weekly soil surface temperatures for 1987 - 1989.

Table 1. Pesticides and commercial fertilizer used in no-till continuous maize and no-till maize-wheat-soybeans, 1987-1989.

| Crop | Pesticide | | NH ₄ NO ₃ fertilizer N — (kg N ha ⁻¹) — |
|----------|------------------------------------|---|---|
| | Type | Rate | |
| Maize | <u>Soil insecticide</u> | | |
| | Furadan [®] with seed | 9.0 kg ha ⁻¹ | 140 in continuous 105 in rotation |
| | <u>Preplant herbicide</u> | | |
| | alachlor (Lasso [®]) | 7.0 L ha ⁻¹ | |
| | atrazine (AAtrex [®]) | 4.7 L ha ⁻¹ | |
| | glyphosate (Roundup [®]) | 3.5 L ha ⁻¹ 9.4 L ha ⁻¹ (1989) | |
| | <u>Post emergence herbicide</u> | | |
| | Accent [®] | 36.0 g ha ⁻¹ (1989) | |
| Wheat | <u>Post emergence herbicide</u> | | |
| | glyphosate | 4.7 L ha ⁻¹ | 44 in October 44 in February |
| Soybeans | <u>Preplant herbicide</u> | | |
| | paraquat (Paraquat [®]) | 2.3 L ha ⁻¹ | No N applied |
| | alachlor | 7.0 L ha ⁻¹ | |
| | linuron (Lorox [®]) | 3.4 kg ha ⁻¹ | |
| | <u>Post emergence herbicide</u> | | |
| | sethoydim (Poast [®]) | 1.8 L ha ⁻¹ | |

Table 2. Selected chemical composition of crop residues prior to decomposition in mesh bags.

| Crop | ----- Total ----- | | | | | |
|----------------|--|-------|------|--------|--------|-----------|
| | C | N | P | Lignin | Ash | L:N ratio |
| | ----- mg kg ⁻¹ tissue ----- | | | | | |
| Maize (NT) | 432000 | 10854 | 1382 | 76400 | 9100 | 7.0 |
| Maize (CT) | 428000 | 12155 | 1359 | 74800 | 11900 | 6.2 |
| Wheat (NT) | 454000 | 7950 | 704 | 112200 | 34320 | 14.1 |
| Wheat (CT) | 446000 | 4060 | 801 | 81700 | 26400 | 20.1 |
| Bean lf.* (NT) | 413000 | 20912 | 2194 | 88200 | 7100 | 4.2 |
| Bean lf. (CT) | 422000 | 24250 | 2101 | 103400 | 88700 | 4.3 |
| Bean st.* (NT) | 453000 | 9060 | 1401 | 116800 | 8640 | 13.0 |
| Bean st. (CT) | 451000 | 9750 | 1400 | 115200 | 9260 | 11.8 |
| Clover shoot | 421000 | 30257 | 2634 | 74700 | <100 | 2.5 |
| Clover root | 453000 | 26125 | 1200 | 139000 | 174700 | 5.3 |

* lf. = leaf, st. = stems-stalks

Table 3. Residue type, cropping system placement dates, and sampling intervals used for comparisons.

| Residue | Crop system | Placement date | Sample interval ----- weeks ----- |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------|--------------------------------------|
| Maize | NT and CT (rotation & continuous) | Sept. 1987 | 4, 16, 32, 44, 76, 100 |
| Wheat | NT and CT (rotation) | June 1988 | 3, 9, 18, 36, 54, 72 |
| Soybean leaves | NT and CT (rotation) | Nov. 1988 | 3, 9, 21, 33, 45 |
| stem-stalk | NT and CT (rotation) | Dec. 1988 | 2, 8, 16, 32, 40 |
| Clover shoots | CT (continuous) | Apr. 1988 | 2, 4, 8, 16, 48 |
| roots | CT (continuous) | Apr. 1988 | 2, 4, 8, 16 |

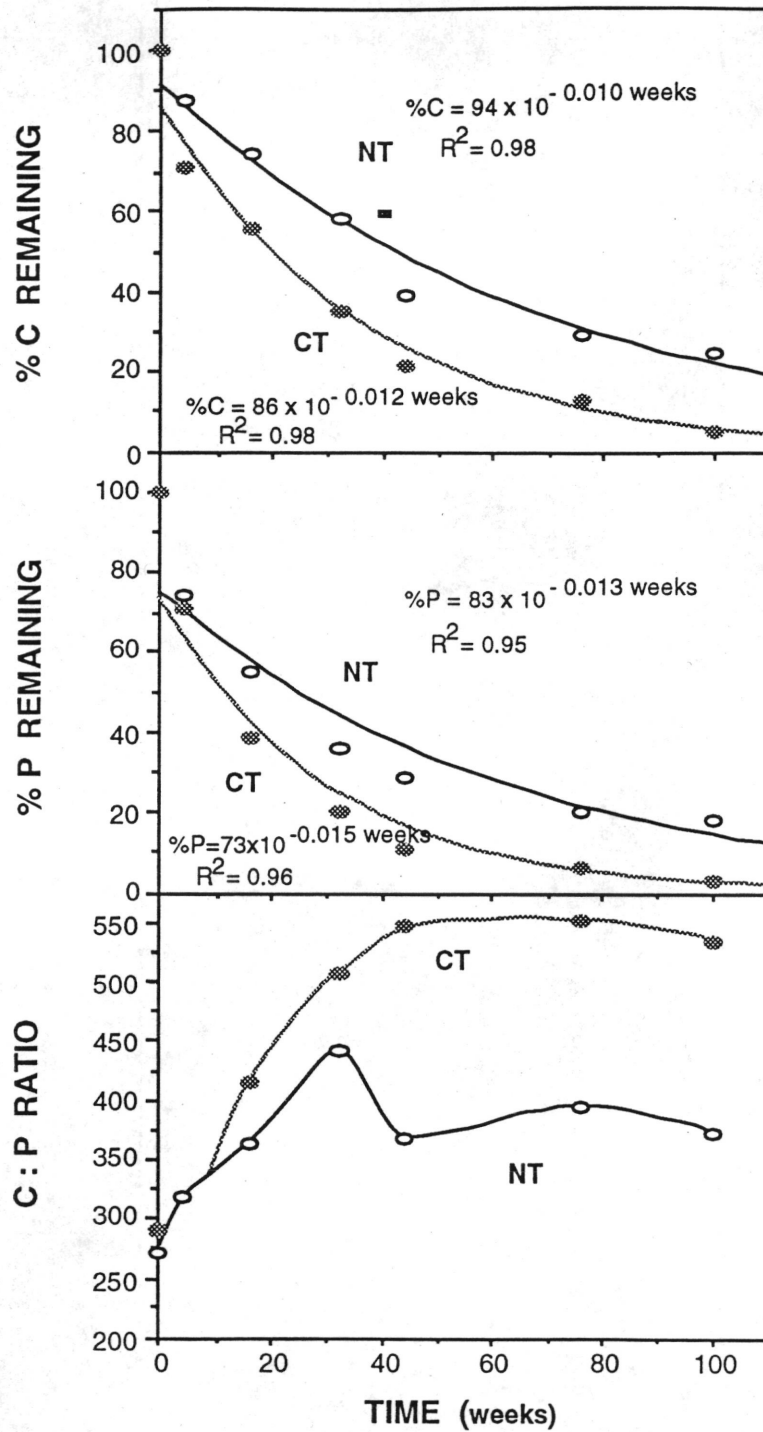


Figure 1. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in maize residue and the C:P ratio of the residue in systems with conventional tillage (CT) and no-till (NT).

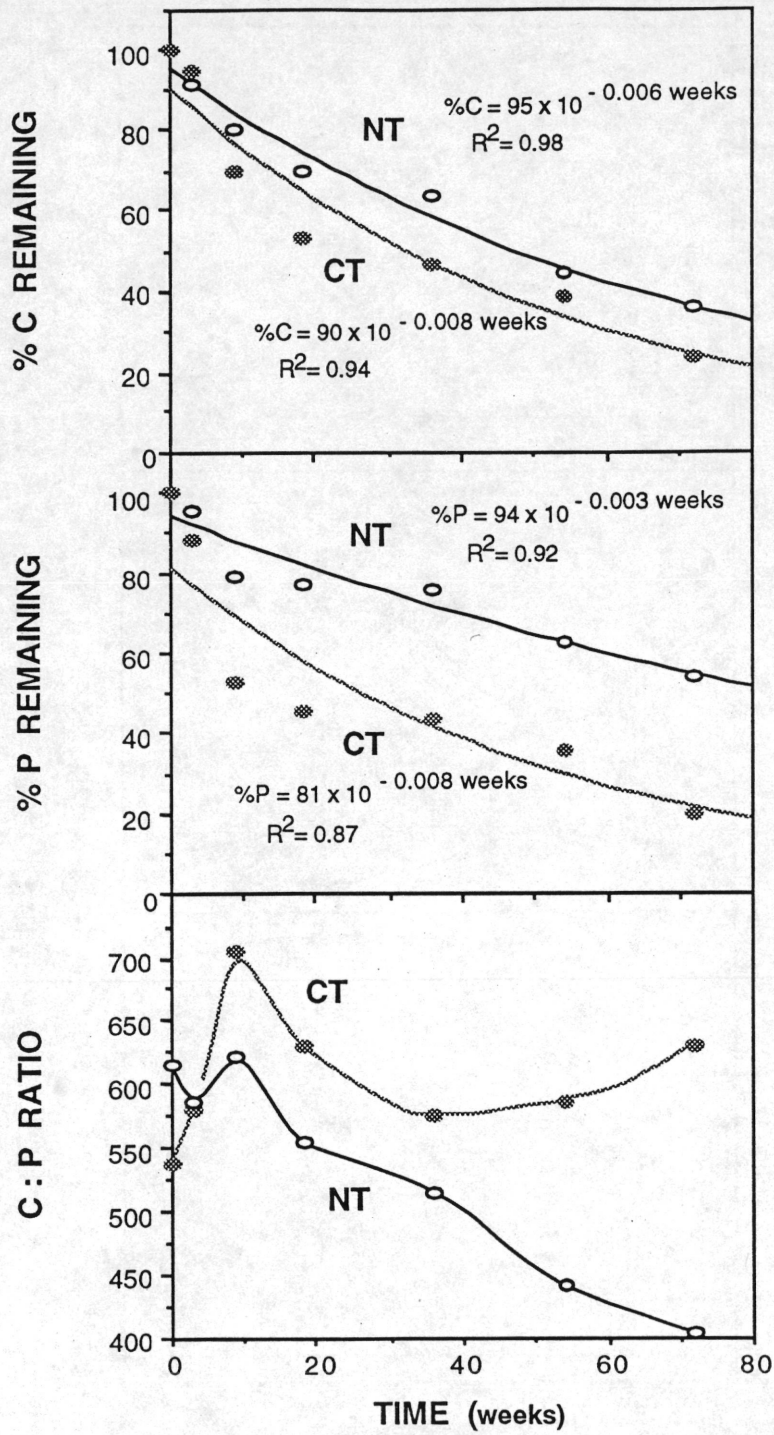


Figure 2. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in wheat residue and the C:P ratio of the residue in systems with conventional tillage (CT) and no-till (NT).

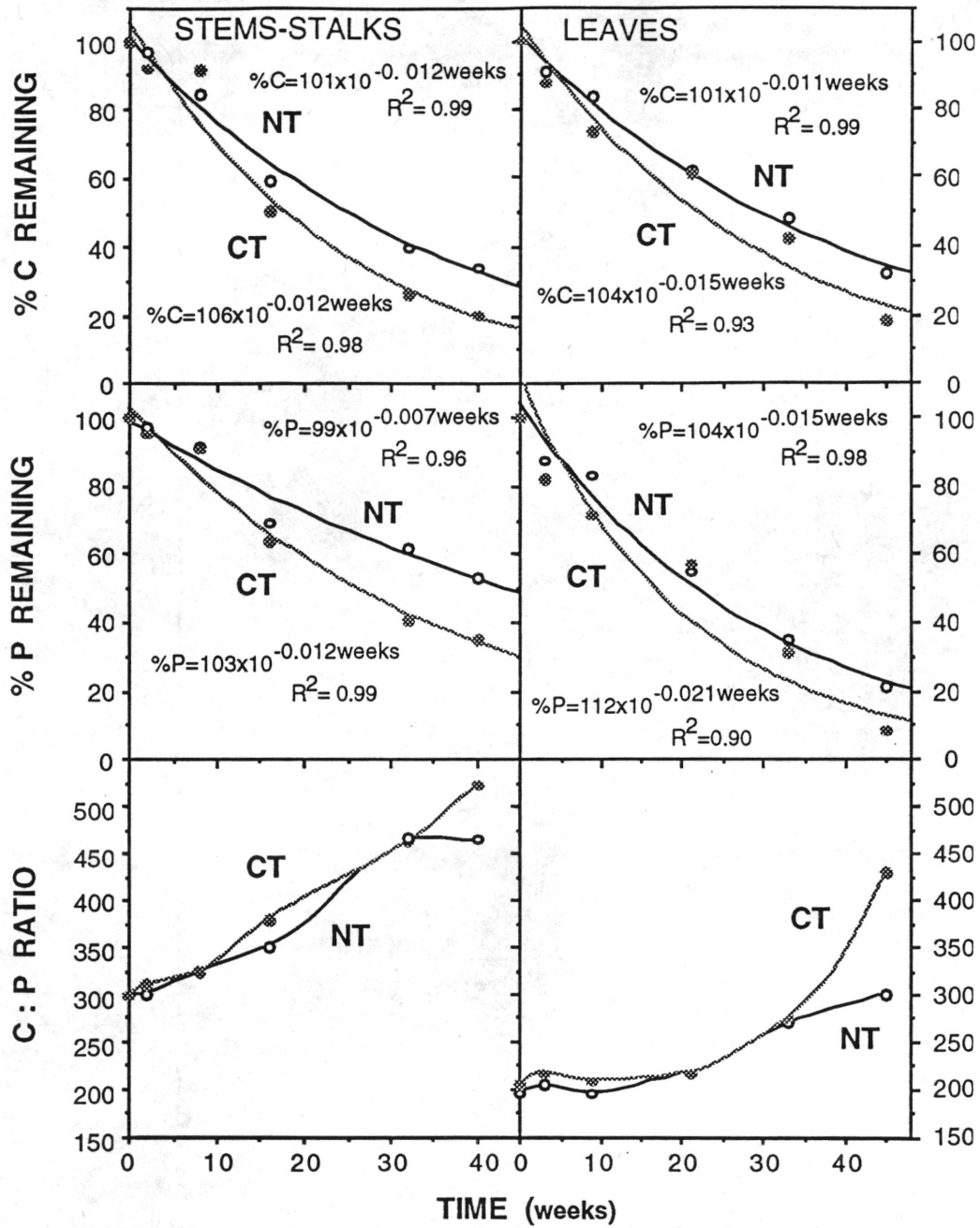


Figure 3. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in soybean residue and the C:P ratio of the residue in systems with conventional tillage (CT) and no-till (NT).

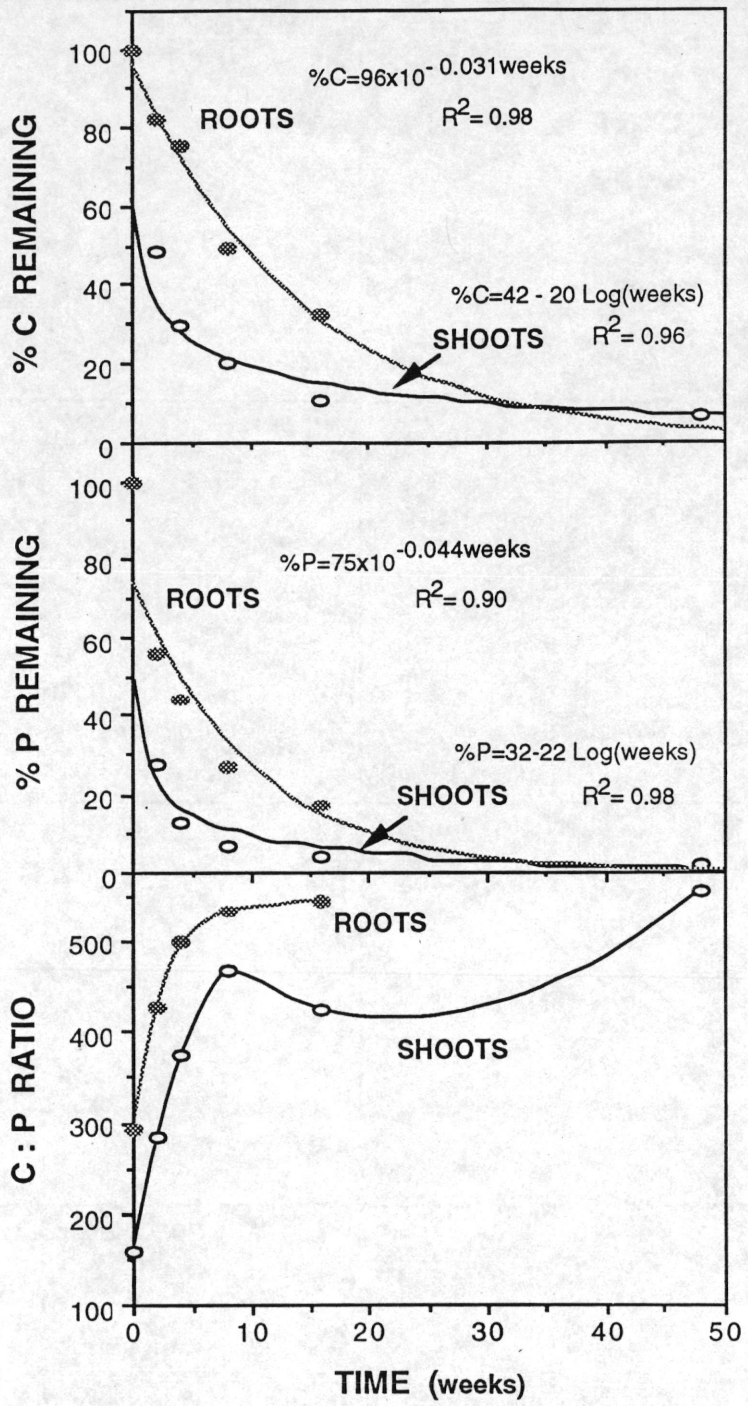


Figure 4. Carbon and phosphorus remaining in clover residue and C:P ratio of the residue.

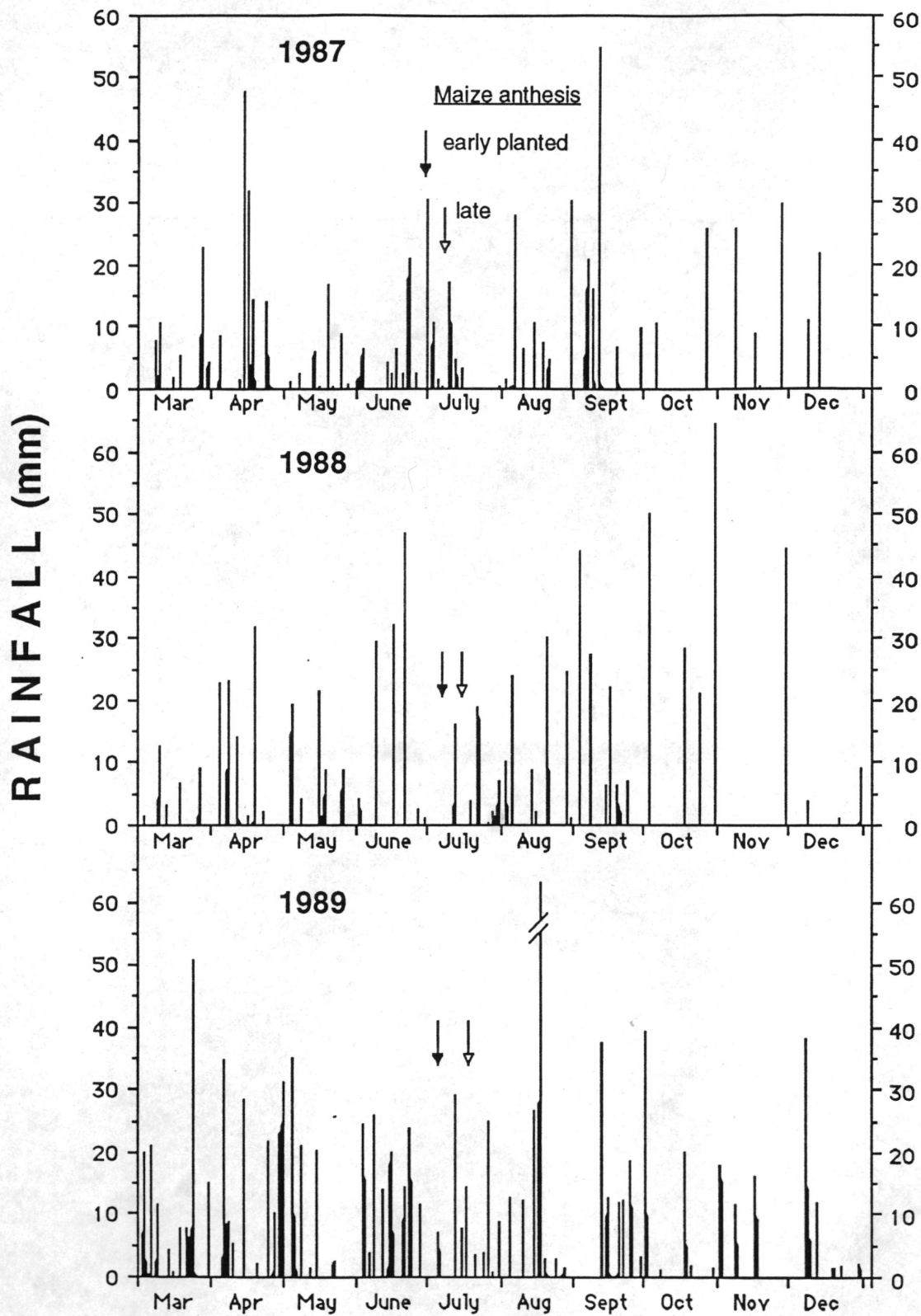


Figure 5. Rainfall during the 1987-1989 cropping seasons

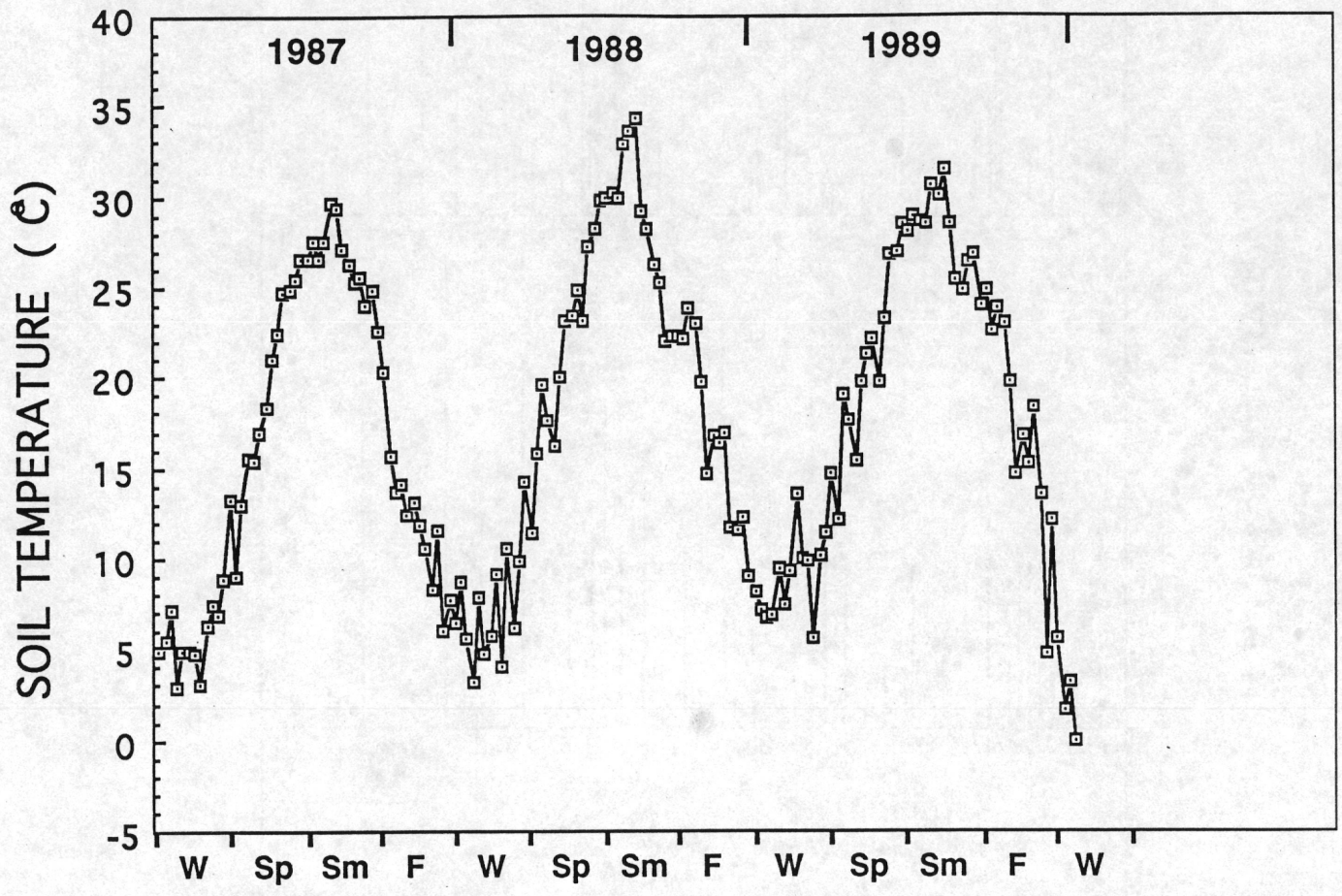


Figure 6. Mean weekly surface soil temperatures during 1987-89