

Dynamics of Soil CO₂ Flux in Rice Systems Under Biochar and Poultry Manure Application Using a Portable NDIR-Based Sensor System

Muhamad Afif Akbar^{1,✉}, Cahyo Prayogo², Zaenal Kusuma²

¹ Study Program of Soil and Water Management, Faculty of Agriculture, Universitas Brawijaya, Malang, INDONESIA.

² Soil Science Department, Faculty of Agriculture, Universitas Brawijaya, Malang, INDONESIA.

Article History:

Received : 14 January 2026

Revised : 01 August 2026

Accepted : 01 August 2026

Keywords:

Biochar,
Carbon emission,
Manure,
MH-Z19B sensor,
Paddy,
Soil respiration.

Corresponding Author:

✉ afitnh@gmail.com
(Muhamad Afif Akbar)

ABSTRACT

Soil CO₂ emission from paddy systems is an important component of agricultural carbon fluxes, yet field monitoring remains constrained by labor-intensive methods. This study aimed to examine a portable NDIR-based CO₂ sensor system and to quantify soil CO₂ flux dynamics and vegetative growth of paddy under different organic amendments. A greenhouse pot experiment with four treatments, biochar 30 Mg/ha (B), poultry manure 40 Mg/ha (K), biochar 30 Mg/ha + manure 20 Mg/ha (BK1), and biochar 15 Mg/ha + manure 40 Mg/ha (BK2), was conducted during the vegetative stage of paddy. Soil CO₂ flux was measured daily from 1 to 60 days after transplanting (DAT) using an MH-Z19B sensor inside a closed chamber. Integrated over the vegetative stage, mean soil CO₂ fluxes were 311, 391, 461, and 516 mg CO₂·m⁻²·h⁻¹ for B, BK1, BK2, and K, respectively, indicating that manure based treatments enhanced respiration compared with sole biochar. Soil CO₂ flux tended to increase from early to late vegetative stages and was positively correlated with plant height and leaf number, indicating a significant positive association between carbon loss and biomass accumulation. These results show that portable low cost sensors can support the design of biochar-manure strategies that sustain paddy growth while moderating manure induced CO₂ emissions.

1. INTRODUCTION

Soil CO₂ emission (soil CO₂ flux) is one of the largest components of carbon flow in agroecosystems and plays an important role in the dynamics of global greenhouse gases. In paddy cultivation systems, soil and plant respiration have been reported to contribute 8–15% of emissions from the agricultural sector (Nurhidayati *et al.*, 2023). This contribution is governed by the decomposition of organic matter, root respiration, and microclimatic conditions that change across crop growth stages. Soil CO₂ flux in paddy fields can vary widely, ranging from 150 to more than 1500 mg CO₂/m²/h depending on growth stage, soil conditions, and fertilization practices (Ray *et al.*, 2020; Yin *et al.*, 2025). Such variability underscores the need for continuous emission monitoring to more accurately capture plant physiological responses and soil carbon dynamics.

The application of amendments is one of the main strategies to improve soil quality and modulate carbon flows in paddy systems. Biochar is characterized by highly stable carbon and can reduce soil respiration through enhanced carbon retention and improved pore structure (Lehmann & Joseph, 2015). Numerous studies have shown that biochar can decrease CO₂ flux by 10–35% under certain conditions because of its low proportion of labile carbon (Han *et al.*, 2023; Seki *et al.*, 2022). In contrast, poultry manure is rich in readily decomposable carbon and nitrogen, and thus tends to increase microbial activity and soil respiration, particularly at early growth stages. Increases in CO₂ flux

following poultry manure application have been reported to reach 20–60%, depending on application rate and environmental conditions (Ali *et al.*, 2025; Haque *et al.*, 2020).

The combination of biochar and poultry manure may generate different responses because interactions between stable and labile carbon fractions can alter the balance of decomposition, microbial activity, and nutrient availability (Mon & Ueno, 2024). However, the CO₂ flux response of such combined organic amendments is strongly dependent on their proportion and characteristics, requiring structured quantitative evaluation. Seki *et al.* (2022), estimated cumulative CO₂ fluxes of 2.4, 2.7, 4.0, and 3.7 Mg C/ha in control, biochar, manure, and biochar–manure treatments, respectively, showing that biochar alone did not enhance CO₂ emission, while biochar manure application slightly reduced manure induced CO₂ flux and simultaneously produced the largest increase in soil organic carbon and a positive carbon budget. These results indicate that biochar–manure combinations can attenuate the emission stimulus of labile organic inputs while improving soil carbon sequestration, but their effectiveness is strongly dose dependent, thereby justifying further quantitative evaluation under different paddy management scenarios.

The dynamics of CO₂ flux in paddy systems are strongly influenced by the crop growth stage. Fluxes are usually low during the early stage when root biomass and vegetative tissues are still limited, and then increase sharply at the maximum vegetative stage (30–60 days) in response to enhanced root respiration and the formation of new tissues (Ben-Noah & Friedman, 2018; Min & Rulik, 2020). Yin *et al.* (2025) reported that CO₂ flux in paddy systems can increase by 2–4 times at the active vegetative stage compared with the early stage because of the high metabolic rate of plants. The close relationship between vegetative growth (plant height and leaf number) and plant respiration makes these parameters important for interpreting CO₂ flux. Therefore, CO₂ flux monitoring needs to be carried out comprehensively to quantitatively capture this physiological relationship.

Conventional chamber based techniques that rely on alkali absorption or intermittent sampling, although widely used for measuring soil CO₂ flux, still present several practical limitations, measurements are discontinuous, require intensive laboratory processing, and may underestimate actual fluxes because CO₂ is not fully captured during the incubation period (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018). Non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) sensor technology offers a more practical alternative with the capability to record continuous data at high temporal resolution (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018). Recent studies have shown that low cost NDIR sensors can yield strong linear relationships ($R^2 = 0.90\text{--}0.95$) with reference instruments when properly calibrated (Curcoll *et al.*, 2022). However, the use of portable sensors for continuous monitoring of CO₂ flux in paddy systems, particularly for comparing the responses of biochar, poultry manure, and their combinations, remains very limited.

Based on this background, three gaps remain insufficiently documented: limited quantitative comparison of CO₂ flux among biochar, poultry manure, and their combinations during the vegetative stage of paddy; limited understanding of the relationship between CO₂ flux and vegetative growth under organic amendments; and limited use of portable NDIR sensors for daily CO₂ flux monitoring from 1 to 60 DAT. This study, therefore, aimed to analyze the dynamics of soil CO₂ flux under four organic soil amendment treatments, biochar (B), poultry manure (K), a combination of biochar and poultry manure at a lower dose (BK1), and a higher dose (BK2) using a portable NDIR-based CO₂ sensor system. In addition, the study evaluated the relationship between CO₂ flux and vegetative growth of paddy to provide a quantitative understanding of how organic amendments influence soil biological activity. The findings are expected to provide empirical information that supports soil carbon management practices and promotes the use of portable sensors in field based agronomic research.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was conducted from April to June 2025 in a greenhouse at the Faculty of Agriculture, Universitas Brawijaya (7°57'15.76" S, 112°36'41.09" E). The greenhouse environment allowed temperature, humidity, and light intensity to be controlled, making it suitable for continuous monitoring of soil respiration during the vegetative stage of paddy.

2.2. Instruments and Materials

The main instrument used was a portable CO₂ sensor system based on the MH-Z19B NDIR module connected to a microcontroller for automatic data acquisition. The system was equipped with a BMP280 air temperature–pressure

sensor, a DS18B20 soil temperature sensor, and a SEN0193 capacitive soil moisture sensor. Measurements were carried out inside an acrylic chamber with dimensions of 20 cm × 20 cm × 90 cm. The KOH titration method was used as a reference for sensor calibration.

The experimental materials consisted of paddy soil as the growth medium, biochar, poultry manure, and seeds of a local paddy variety. Biochar and poultry manure were applied according to the treatment doses before transplanting. The plants were grown in pots with dimensions of 20 cm × 20 cm × 10 cm.

2.3. Portable CO₂ Sensor System and Calibration

The CO₂ sensor system was designed as a portable, stand alone unit powered by a battery (Figure 1). The MH-Z19B module was selected because it can directly and stably measure CO₂ concentration in ppm within a range suitable for field measurements.

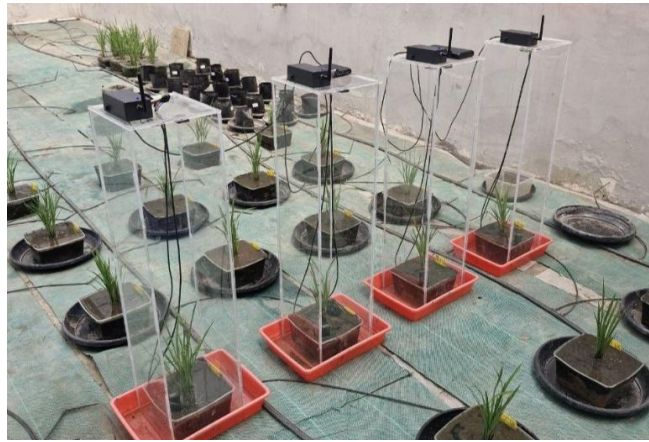


Figure 1. Portable CO₂ sensor with the MH-Z19B module

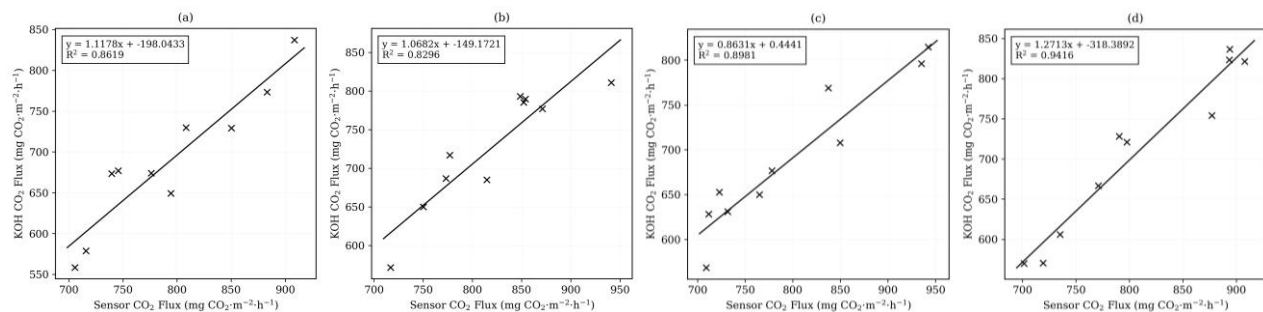


Figure 2. Calibration of the CO₂ sensor against the KOH method: (a) sensor 1, (b) sensor 2, (c) sensor 3, and (d) sensor 4.

Linear regression analysis (Figure 2) showed that all sensors exhibited a strong linear relationship with the KOH method, with coefficients of determination (R^2) ranging from 0.829 to 0.942. Sensor 4 showed the best performance ($R^2 = 0.9416$), followed by sensor 3 ($R^2 = 0.8981$), sensor 1 ($R^2 = 0.8619$), and sensor 2 ($R^2 = 0.8296$). Differences in slope among sensors reflect variations in internal sensitivity, but the stable linear patterns confirm the consistent performance of all sensor units.

To support the interpretation of calibration performance, the coefficient of determination (R^2) values were converted into correlation coefficients (r) using $r = \sqrt{R^2}$. Criteria commonly applied for correlation strength based on absolute r values are as follows: very weak ($r < 0.20$), weak ($0.20 \leq r < 0.40$), moderate ($0.40 \leq r < 0.60$), strong ($0.60 \leq r < 0.80$), and very strong (≥ 0.80). In this study, the R^2 values of the four sensors ranged from 0.8296 to 0.9416, corresponding to r values of 0.911–0.970 (Table 1). These values indicate a very strong relationship between the

portable NDIR based CO₂ sensor readings and the KOH reference method, confirming the suitability of the sensor system for soil CO₂ flux monitoring.

Table 1. Interpretation of sensor calibration performance based on *r* values

Sensor	R ² value	$r = \sqrt{R^2}$	Interpretation
Sensor 1	0.8619	0.928	Very strong
Sensor 2	0.8296	0.911	Very strong
Sensor 3	0.8981	0.948	Very strong
Sensor 4	0.9416	0.970	Very strong

2.4. Experimental Design

Before the treatments were applied, the soil used as the planting medium was prepared as a homogeneous composite medium to minimize initial variability among experimental units. The collected soil was air dried, cleaned of visible plant residues and stones, crushed, and thoroughly mixed. The homogenized soil was then weighed equally into each pot before the application of biochar and poultry manure according to the treatment doses. This procedure was carried out to ensure relatively uniform initial planting medium conditions, thereby supporting the use of a completely randomized design under greenhouse conditions.

The treatments represented contrasting amendment inputs, including a biochar dominant treatment, a manure dominant treatment, and two biochar manure combinations with different proportions. The selected rates were adapted from previous studies that evaluated biochar and organic manure amendments in rice and soil amendment experiments, including biochar application rates of 10–40 Mg/ha in paddy systems and biochar poultry litter combinations of up to 30 + 30 Mg/ha (Suswana & Maulana, 2022; Yang *et al.*, 2021).

The experiment was arranged in a completely randomized design (CRD) with four organic soil amendment treatments and five replications, resulting in a total of 20 experimental units. Each experimental unit contained one paddy hill and was randomly placed inside the greenhouse. Table 2 presents treatment combinations used in the study.

Table 2. Treatment combinations exploited to evaluate dynamics of soil CO₂ flux in rice systems

No	Treatment Code	Description
1	B	30 Mg/ha biochar
2	K	40 Mg/ha poultry manure
3	BK1	30 Mg/ha biochar + 20 Mg/ha poultry manure
4	BK2	15 Mg/ha biochar + 40 Mg/ha poultry manure

2.5. Soil CO₂ Flux Measurement

Soil CO₂ flux was measured daily from 1 to 60 days after transplanting (DAT) using a closed acrylic chamber placed on the soil surface. The MH-Z19B CO₂ sensor was placed inside the chamber to record changes in CO₂ concentration (ppm) over 60 minutes. Daily measurements were conducted to capture short term temporal variation in soil respiration, as soil CO₂ flux can fluctuate substantially over daily and seasonal time scales (Curcoll *et al.*, 2022; Jian *et al.*, 2018). However, for graphical presentation, representative weekly observation points (1, 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42, 49, 56, and 60 DAT) were displayed to improve figure readability while retaining the overall temporal trend.

The calculation of soil CO₂ flux followed the closed chamber method based on NDIR as described by Dossa *et al.* (2015). The first step was to convert Δppm into CO₂ mass concentration (mg CO₂/m³) using the ideal gas equation, incorporating air pressure (P), air temperature (T, in Kelvin), the gas constant (R), and the molar mass of CO₂ (MCO₂ = 44 g/mol). The conversion formula is as follows:

$$C_{CO_2} = \Delta ppm \times \frac{M_{CO_2} \times P}{R \times T} \quad (1)$$

where C_{CO_2} is the CO₂ concentration in mg CO₂/m³. The second step was to calculate soil CO₂ flux based on the chamber volume, chamber surface area, and measurement duration. The soil respiration rate was calculated using the following equation:

$$F = \frac{C_{CO_2} \times V}{t \times A} \quad (2)$$

where F is the soil CO₂ flux (mg CO₂/m²/h), V is the chamber volume (m³), A is the chamber cross sectional area (m²), and t is the measurement duration (h).

2.6. Plant Measurements

Plant height and leaf number were measured daily from 1 to 60 days after transplanting (DAT). Plant height was measured from the base of the stem at the soil surface to the highest growing point, while leaf number was counted as the total number of fully expanded active leaves. Daily observations were conducted to follow the progressive vegetative development of paddy, particularly during tillering, leaf emergence, and stem elongation. Similar to the CO₂ flux data, representative weekly observation points were presented in the figures to improve visual clarity. The 60 DAT observation period was selected to represent the vegetative monitoring phase, as the vegetative stage of transplanted rice generally extends from transplanting to panicle initiation and may last approximately 1.5–3 months depending on cultivar and environmental conditions.

2.7. Data Analysis

CO₂ concentration data were converted into flux units and analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test the effects of the treatments. When the ANOVA indicated significant effects, mean separation was conducted using the Least Significant Difference (LSD) test at the 5% significance level. Plant growth data were analyzed using the same procedure.

Sensor calibration data were analyzed using linear regression to obtain the slope, intercept, and coefficient of determination (R²). In addition to ANOVA and mean comparison, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed to explore treatment clustering patterns based on the combination of soil CO₂ flux and vegetative growth of paddy. All data analyses were carried out using Python in the Visual Studio Code environment.

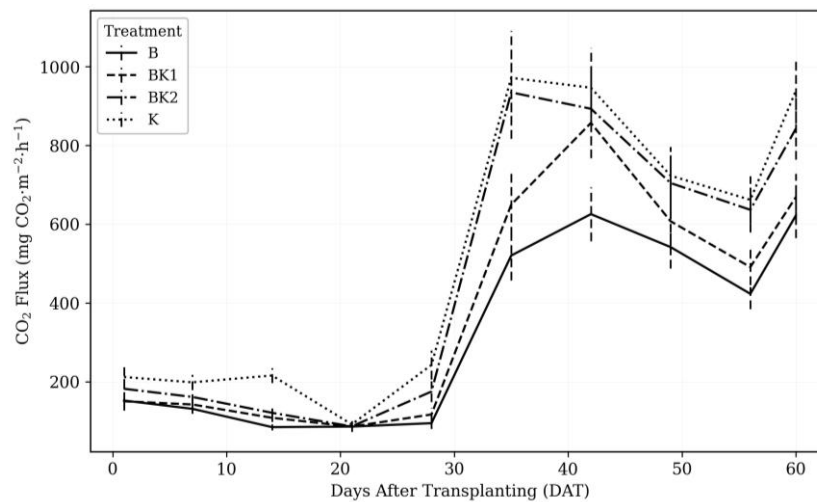


Figure 3. Soil CO₂ flux under four treatments from 1 to 60 DAT. [Daily measurements were conducted, but representative weekly observation points are shown for visual clarity.]

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Soil CO₂ Emission

The dynamics of soil CO₂ flux from 1 to 60 days after transplanting (DAT) showed a clear temporal pattern closely linked to the vegetative growth stages of paddy (Figure 3). During the early growth stage, soil CO₂ flux values were relatively low, ranging from 50 to 376 mg CO₂·m⁻²·h⁻¹ with an average of 142 mg CO₂·m⁻²·h⁻¹. These low fluxes

reflect the limited root biomass and vegetative tissues, so that autotrophic respiration was still minimal (Ben-Noah & Friedman, 2018). In addition, soil microbial activity had not yet reached its peak because the availability of carbon substrates was still low.

As the crop entered the maximum vegetative stage (> 30 DAT), soil CO_2 flux increased sharply, reaching 298–1302 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ with an average of 713 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$. Comparable magnitudes have been reported for paddy fields elsewhere: in situ soil respiration measured across an entire rice growing season ranged from 26.9 to 1293.6 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ in karst paddy soils and from 63.0 to 1501.2 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ in non-karst paddy soils, at soil temperatures of 27–36 °C (Zhou *et al.*, 2023). The fluxes recorded in the present study fall within this range. This pronounced increase is associated with the accumulation of root and shoot biomass, which enhances root respiration and the supply of organic exudates, thereby intensifying plant metabolic activity and soil microbial processes (Min & Rulik, 2020; Yin *et al.*, 2025). Yin *et al.*, (2025) reported that CO_2 flux in paddy systems can increase by 2–4 times at the late vegetative stage compared with the early stage.

Throughout the observation period, clear differences in soil CO_2 flux were observed among treatments. The poultry manure treatment (K) consistently produced the highest CO_2 flux at most measurement times. For example, Seki *et al.* (2022) reported that cumulative CO_2 emission over 27 months reached about 4.0 Mg C/ha in plots receiving poultry manure, much higher than the 2.4 Mg C/ha observed in control plots without organic amendments. Similar increases were observed in another study where the application of composted livestock manure raised CO_2 flux to 9.38 Mg/ha over a single growing season, the highest among the treatments tested (Min & Rulik, 2020). In contrast, the sole biochar treatment (B) tended to produce the lowest CO_2 flux. Cumulative CO_2 emission with biochar alone was reported to be only about 2.7 Mg C/ha (Seki *et al.*, 2022), and several analyses even indicated that biochar does not substantially increase CO_2 emission (Shrestha *et al.*, 2023). The combined biochar + poultry manure treatments generated intermediate flux values. The BK2 treatment (low dose biochar + high dose poultry manure) tended to approach the flux level of poultry manure alone, whereas BK1 (high dose biochar + low dose poultry manure) occupied an intermediate position. Data from Seki *et al.* (2022) indicate that the combination of biochar and poultry manure resulted in cumulative CO_2 emission of approximately 3.7 Mg C/ha, slightly lower than that of poultry manure alone (4.0 Mg C/ha). This pattern is consistent with the findings of the present study, in which the poultry manure treatment produced the highest soil CO_2 flux, followed by BK2, BK1, and the lowest values under biochar (B).

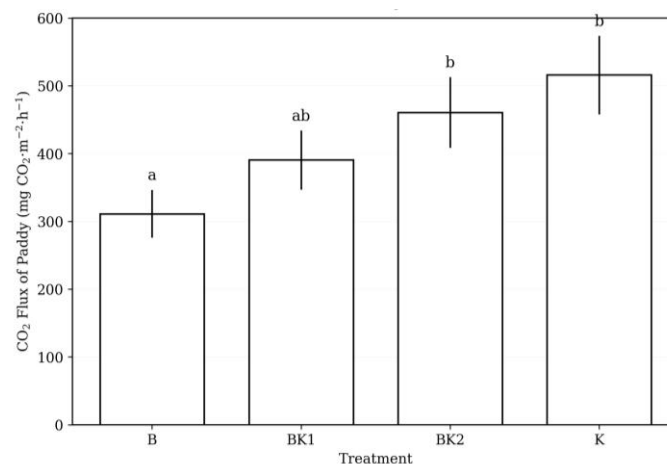


Figure 4. Average soil CO_2 flux of paddy during the vegetative stage

The ANOVA conducted on the mean CO_2 flux over the entire vegetative period showed a significant effect of organic amendment treatments ($F_{(3,16)} = 3.40$, $p = 0.043$). Mean flux values ranged from 311 to 516 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ across treatments (Figure 4). The poultry manure treatment (K) produced the highest mean flux, 516 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, followed by the low biochar, high manure combination (BK2) with 461 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ and BK1 with 391 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, whereas sole biochar (B) resulted in the lowest mean flux, 311 $\text{mg CO}_2\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$. The LSD test at the 5%

level ($LSD_{0.05} = 144 \text{ mg CO}_2\text{-m}^{-2}\text{-h}^{-1}$) grouped the treatments into B (group a), BK1 (group ab), and BK2 and K (group b), indicating that manure based treatments, particularly K and BK2, induced significantly higher CO₂ flux than B, while BK1 did not differ significantly from either B or the higher flux treatments. This pattern confirms that the availability of labile organic carbon from poultry manure is a major driver of increased soil respiration when fluxes are integrated over the whole vegetative period. The consistently lower flux under sole biochar (B) suggests that converting part of the labile carbon into more recalcitrant biochar effectively dampens CO₂ release compared with manure only applications, while mixed treatments (BK1 and BK2) partially moderate the manure effect. Similar trends have been reported in paddy systems, where medium biochar application rates (~20 Mg/ha) reduced cumulative CO₂ emissions by 1.6–8.8% relative to non-amended controls (Yang *et al.*, 2018), and a recent synthesis showed that straw derived biochar at 10–40 Mg/ha can lower CO₂ emissions from flooded rice systems by up to 12–37% (Sun *et al.*, 2024). In line with our finding that manure alone (K) generated the highest fluxes, studies in other cropping systems also demonstrate that biochar either reduces or does not enhance CO₂ emissions compared with labile organic amendments: wheat straw biochar produced 90% lower CO₂ emissions than raw straw (Wang *et al.*, 2020), and blending biochar with manure reduced manure induced CO₂ emissions by about 60% in an agricultural soil (Lebrun *et al.*, 2024).

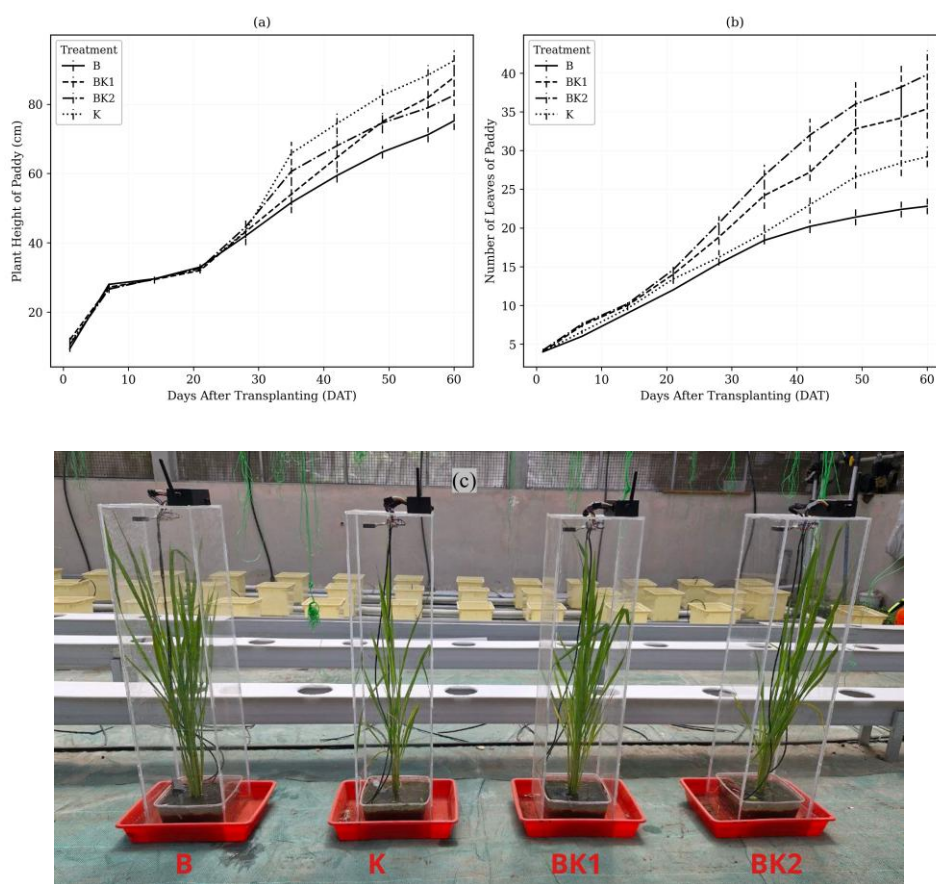


Figure 5. Vegetative growth of paddy based on daily observations, with representative weekly observation points shown for visual clarity: (a) plant height, (b) leaf number, and (c) plant condition at 60 days after transplanting (DAT).

3.2. Vegetative Growth of Paddy

Vegetative growth of paddy showed distinct patterns among treatments and was closely related to the dynamics of soil CO₂ flux measured over the same period. The two main parameters observed, plant height and leaf number, exhibited consistent responses to the application of biochar, poultry manure, and their combinations (Figure 5). During the early growth phase (1–14 DAT), plant growth was relatively uniform across all treatments. This reflects the initial adaptation phase, when root and shoot biomass were still limited and the effects of organic amendments had not yet

become pronounced. Differences among treatments began to emerge from 21 DAT and became more apparent during the active growth phase (around 28–49 DAT), when plants experienced rapid biomass accumulation along with more vigorous root and canopy development.

The poultry manure treatment (K) produced the greatest plant height at most observation times. The high availability of nitrogen and readily decomposable carbon from poultry manure provides abundant nutrients for plants, thereby supporting the formation of new tissues and optimal stem elongation (Zhang *et al.*, 2020). The low biochar, high manure combination (BK2) showed plant height comparable to that under K. This indicates a synergy between the two amendments, for example through improved soil water retention and nutrient availability, together with stimulation of soil microbial activity (Ali *et al.*, 2025). Increases in soil water content, porosity, and nutrients such as N and P under combined biochar–manure applications have been reported to be significant compared with soils without amendments (Ali *et al.*, 2025). As a result, the improved growth medium promotes stronger vegetative growth. The lower dose combination treatment (BK1) produced intermediate plant height. In contrast, the sole biochar treatment (B) consistently resulted in the lowest plant height throughout the vegetative phase. Biochar provides predominantly stable carbon fractions and nutrients in organic forms that require time to decompose, so that the direct nutrient supply to plants is relatively limited (Zhang *et al.*, 2020). Consequently, plants under the B treatment grew slower because nutrient availability was lower than in treatments receiving additional inputs from poultry manure.

The pattern of leaf number followed a trend similar to that of plant height. At the peak vegetative phase (around 28–49 DAT), the BK2 treatment produced the highest leaf number, followed by the other organic treatments (K and BK1). The increase in leaf number under treatments with nutrient rich organic amendments reflects a greater photosynthetic and metabolic capacity of the plants. Conversely, the biochar only treatment (B) resulted in the lowest leaf number, again indicating that nutrient availability in this treatment was relatively lower than in those containing poultry manure, thereby constraining leaf formation.

3.3. Relationship between CO₂ Flux and Plant Growth

The relationship between CO₂ flux and vegetative growth of paddy was evaluated using plant height and leaf number as the main indicators. Pearson correlation analysis showed strong positive correlations between CO₂ flux and plant height ($r = 0.729$, $p < 0.001$) and between CO₂ flux and leaf number ($r = 0.698$, $p < 0.001$).

The relationship between CO₂ flux and plant height as well as leaf number showed a consistent positive trend, in which CO₂ flux increased with increasing growth parameters (Figure 6). To reflect the nonlinear response of respiration to biomass related drivers, the relationships were fitted using an exponential regression model ($y = a \cdot \exp(bx)$). The exponential model in Figure 6a produced the equation $y = 145.05 \cdot \exp(0.0194x)$ with $R^2 = 0.479$, indicating that plant height explained about 47.9% of the variation in CO₂ flux. In Figure 6b, the exponential model yielded $y = 219.27 \cdot \exp(0.0327x)$ with $R^2 = 0.381$, suggesting that leaf number accounted for approximately 38.1% of the variation in CO₂ flux.

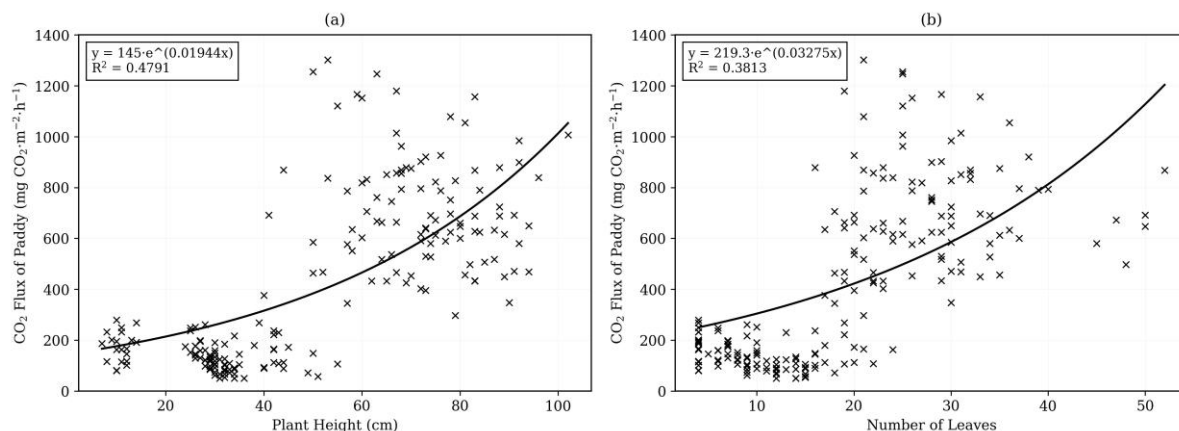


Figure 6. Relationship of CO₂ flux and plant growth of paddy during the vegetative stage: (a) plant height, (b) number of leaves

Similar results were reported by Min & Rulik (2020), who found a significant positive relationship between paddy plant height and CO₂ emission flux ($R^2 = 0.69$). Faster growing plants with greater biomass require higher respiratory energy, thereby increasing CO₂ release (Ben-Noah & Friedman, 2018; Choi *et al.*, 2018). Consistent with this mechanism, soil respiration has been reported to increase nonlinearly with biomass related drivers, including an exponential relationship with root biomass (Lee, 2018). Plant-derived CO₂ is a major component of soil CO₂ efflux in paddy systems, as ¹³C partitioning has shown that planted rice soil emits substantially more CO₂ than unplanted soil (Zhu *et al.*, 2018).

PCA was performed to explore the multivariate association among soil CO₂ flux, plant growth, and soil–environmental variables at 60 DAT (Figure 7). The first two principal components explained 61.04% of the total variance, with PC1 and PC2 accounting for 33.31% and 27.73%, respectively. This indicates that the PC1–PC2 plane captured a substantial proportion of treatment-related variation, although the pattern should be interpreted as exploratory.

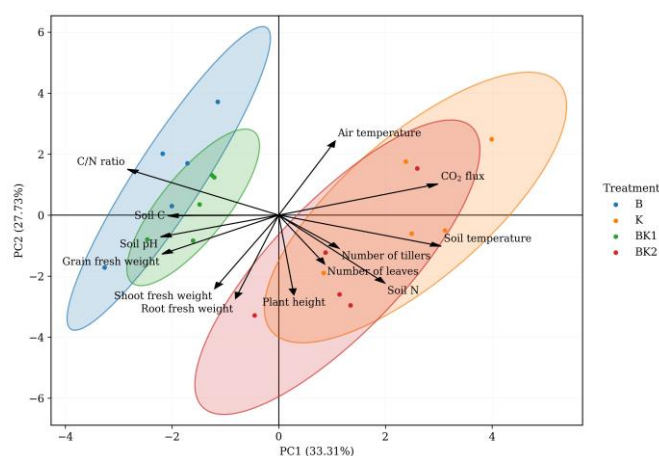


Figure 7. PCA biplot showing treatment clustering at 60 DAT based on soil CO₂ flux, plant growth, and soil–environment variables (95% confidence ellipse for each treatment).

The poultry manure treatment (K) was positioned on the positive side of PC1 and was closely associated with CO₂ flux, soil temperature, and air temperature, indicating higher respiration activity under manure application. The low-biochar, high-manure treatment (BK2) was also located on the positive side of PC1 but was more closely associated with plant growth variables, including plant height, number of leaves, number of tillers, and soil N. In contrast, the sole biochar treatment (B) was positioned on the negative side of PC1 and was more closely related to soil chemical properties such as C/N ratio, soil C, and soil pH. The BK1 treatment showed an intermediate position, closer to B than K.

Overall, the PCA results support the univariate findings that manure-rich treatments were more strongly associated with soil CO₂ flux and vegetative growth, whereas sole biochar showed a lower association with CO₂ emission. These patterns suggest that labile organic inputs from manure stimulated soil respiration and plant growth, while biochar acted more as a physical–chemical soil conditioner with a moderating effect on CO₂ flux.

4. CONCLUSION

A portable NDIR-based CO₂ sensor system was successfully applied to monitor soil CO₂ flux in paddy under different organic amendments. Across the vegetative period, poultry manure (K) produced the highest mean flux (516 mg CO₂·m⁻²·h⁻¹), followed by BK2 (461 mg CO₂·m⁻²·h⁻¹) and BK1 (391 mg CO₂·m⁻²·h⁻¹), whereas biochar alone (B) yielded the lowest flux (311 mg CO₂·m⁻²·h⁻¹). Soil CO₂ flux increased from early to late vegetative stages and was positively associated with plant height and leaf number, confirming the close coupling between vegetative growth and respiratory carbon loss. These results indicate that partially substituting poultry manure with biochar, or applying biochar with manure at appropriate proportions, can moderate CO₂ emissions while maintaining the growth benefits of organic amendments.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Faculty of Agriculture, Brawijaya University, Indonesia under Professor Grant with contract number 0854.1/UN10.F0401/B/KS/2025. We also thank the field and laboratory assistants for their assistance in collecting and analyzing samples.

DECLARATION OF GENERATIVE AI AND AI-ASSISTED TECHNOLOGIES IN THE MANUSCRIPT PREPARATION

Not applicable. The authors did not use any generative AI tools or services in the preparation of this manuscript. All content is entirely the intellectual work of the authors.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

Author	C	M	So	Va	Fo	I	R	D	O	E	Vi	Su	P	Fu
MAA	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓
CP	✓	✓			✓	✓				✓		✓		✓
ZK	✓	✓								✓		✓		
C: Conceptualization			Fo: Formal Analysis			O: Writing - Original Draft			Fu: Funding Acquisition					
M: Methodology			I: Investigation			E: Writing - Review & Editing			P: Project Administration					
So: Software			D: Data Curation			Vi: Visualization								
Va: Validation			R: Resources			Su: Supervision								

REFERENCES

- Ali, N., Jiang, Q., Akhtar, K., Luo, R., Jiang, M., He, B., & Wen, R. (2025). Biochar and manure co-application improves soil health and rice productivity through microbial modulation. *BMC Plant Biology*, 25(1), 914. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-025-06834-x>
- Ben-Noah, I., & Friedman, S.P. (2018). Review and evaluation of root respiration and of natural and agricultural processes of soil aeration. *Vadose Zone Journal*, 17(1), 1–47. <https://doi.org/10.2136/vzj2017.06.0119>
- Choi, J., Ko, J., Ng, C.T., Jeong, S., Tenhunen, J., Xue, W., & Cho, J. (2018). Quantification of CO₂ fluxes in paddy rice based on the characterization and simulation of CO₂ assimilation approaches. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 249, 348–366. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2017.10.004>
- Curcoll, R., Morgu, J.-A., Kamnang, A., Cañas, L., Vargas, A., & Grossi, C. (2022). Metrology for low-cost CO₂ sensors applications: The case of a steady-state through-flow (SS-TF) chamber for CO₂ fluxes observations. *Atmospheric Measurement Techniques*, 15(9), 2807–2818. <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-15-2807-2022>
- Dossa, G.G.O., Paudel, E., Wang, H., Cao, K., Schaefer, D., & Harrison, R.D. (2015). Correct calculation of CO₂ efflux using a closed-chamber linked to a non-dispersive infrared gas analyzer. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 6(12), 1435–1442. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12451>
- Ferreira, C.R.P.C., Antonino, A.C.D., Sampaio, E.V.D.S.B., Correia, K.G., Lima, J.R.D.S., Soares, W.D.A., & Menezes, R.S.C. (2018). Soil CO₂ efflux measurements by alkali absorption and infrared gas analyzer in the Brazilian Semiarid Region. *Revista Brasileira de Ciência Do Solo*, 42. <https://doi.org/10.1590/18069657rbc20160563>
- Han, Z., Xu, P., Li, Z., Guo, S., Li, S., Liu, S., Wu, S., Wang, J., & Zou, J. (2023). Divergent effects of biochar amendment and replacing mineral fertilizer with manure on soil respiration in a subtropical tea plantation. *Biochar*, 5(1), 73. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42773-023-00273-3>
- Haque, M.M., Biswas, J.C., Maniruzaman, M., Akhter, S., & Kabir, M.S. (2020). Carbon sequestration in paddy soil as influenced by organic and inorganic amendments. *Carbon Management*, 11(3), 231–239. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17583004.2020.1738822>
- Jian, J., Steele, M.K., Day, S.D., Thomas, R.Q., & Hodges, S.C. (2018). Measurement strategies to account for soil respiration temporal heterogeneity across diverse regions. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 125, 167–177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2018.07.003>
- Lebrun, M., Zahid, Z., Bednik, M., Medynska - Juraszek, A., Száková, J., Brtnický, M., Holátko, J., Bourgerie, S., Beesley, L., Pohořelý, M., Macků, J., Hnátková, T., & Trkal, L. (2024). Combined biochar and manure addition to an agricultural soil

- benefits fertility, microbial activity, and mitigates manure - induced CO₂ emissions. *Soil Use and Management*, **40**(1), e12997. <https://doi.org/10.1111/sum.12997>
- Lee, J.-S. (2018). Relationship of root biomass and soil respiration in a stand of deciduous broadleaved trees—A case study in a maple tree. *Journal of Ecology and Environment*, **42**(1), 19. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41610-018-0078-z>
- Lehmann, J., & Joseph, S. (Eds.). (2015). *Biochar for Environmental Management: Science, Technology and Implementation* (2nd ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203762264>
- Min, S., & Rulik, M. (2020). Comparison of carbon dioxide (CO₂) fluxes between conventional and conserved irrigated rice paddy fields in Myanmar. *Sustainability*, **12**(14), 5798. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12145798>
- Min, S., & Rulik, M. (2020). Effects of different water management and fertilizer applications on CO₂ fluxes from a selected myanmar rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) cultivar. *International Journal of Plant & Soil Science*, **32**(19), 22–37. <https://doi.org/10.9734/ijps/2020/v32i1930394>
- Mon, W.W., & Ueno, H. (2024). Short-term effect of the combined application of rice husk biochar and organic and inorganic fertilizers on radish growth and nitrogen use efficiency. *Plants*, **13**(17), 2376. <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants13172376>
- Nurhidayati, N., Basit, A., Tito, S.I., Machfudz, M., & Ansari, A.S. (2023). Responses of soil respiration and organic carbon to organic soil amendments in upland paddy. *Soil Science Annual*, **74**(2), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.37501/soilsa/169655>
- Ray, R.L., Griffin, R.W., Fares, A., Elhassan, A., Awal, R., Woldesenbet, S., & Risch, E. (2020). Soil CO₂ emission in response to organic amendments, temperature, and rainfall. *Scientific Reports*, **10**(1), 5849. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-62267-6>
- Seki, M., Sugihara, S., Miyazaki, H., Jegadeesan, M., Kannan, P., Bertrand, I., & Tanaka, H. (2022). Impact of biochar and manure application on in situ carbon dioxide flux, microbial activity, and carbon budget in degraded cropland soil of southern India. *Land Degradation & Development*, **33**(10), 1626–1636. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.4234>
- Shrestha, R.K., Jacinthe, P., Lal, R., Lorenz, K., Singh, M.P., Demyan, S.M., Ren, W., & Lindsey, L.E. (2023). Biochar as a negative emission technology: A synthesis of field research on greenhouse gas emissions. *Journal of Environmental Quality*, **52**(4), 769–798. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jeq2.20475>
- Sun, Y., Wang, X., Yang, C., Xin, X., Zheng, J., Zong, T., & Dou, C. (2024). Effects of biochar on gaseous carbon and nitrogen emissions in paddy fields: A review. *Agronomy*, **14**(7), 1461. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy14071461>
- Suswana, S., & Maulana, D.D. (2022). Residual effect of rice husk biochar on growth and yield of aerobic rice. *Agrotechnology Research Journal*, **6**(2), 87–94. <https://doi.org/10.20961/agrotechresj.v6i2.57344>
- Wang, H., Ren, T., Yang, H., Feng, Y., Feng, H., Liu, G., Yin, Q., & Shi, H. (2020). Research and application of biochar in soil co₂ emission, fertility, and microorganisms: A sustainable solution to solve China's agricultural straw burning problem. *Sustainability*, **12**(5), 1922. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12051922>
- Yang, S., Jiang, Z., Sun, X., Ding, J., & Xu, J. (2018). Effects of biochar amendment on co₂ emissions from paddy fields under water-saving irrigation. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, **15**(11), 2580. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph15112580>
- Yang, X., Vancov, T., Peñuelas, J., Sardans, J., Singla, A., Alrefaei, A.F., Song, X., Fang, Y., & Wang, W. (2021). Optimal biochar application rates for mitigating global warming and increasing rice yield in a subtropical paddy field. *Experimental Agriculture*, **57**(5–6), 283–299. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0014479721000259>
- Yin, X., Li, Q., Zhang, X., Wang, Z., Li, Q., Wei, L., Huang, T., & Gao, M. (2025). Paddy–upland rotation improves rice growth and reduces greenhouse gas emissions in winter paddy fields. *Agronomy*, **15**(2), 349. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy15020349>
- Zhang, Z., Dong, X., Wang, S., & Pu, X. (2020). Benefits of organic manure combined with biochar amendments to cotton root growth and yield under continuous cropping systems in Xinjiang, China. *Scientific Reports*, **10**(1), 4718. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-61118-8>
- Zhou, J., Jin, Z., Yuan, W., Chen, W., Li, X., Xiong, L., & Cheng, G. (2023). Microbial communities and soil respiration during rice growth in paddy fields from karst and non-karst areas. *Agronomy*, **13**(8), 2001. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy13082001>
- Zhu, Z., Ge, T., Liu, S., Hu, Y., Ye, R., Xiao, M., Tong, C., Kuzyakov, Y., & Wu, J. (2018). Rice rhizodeposits affect organic matter priming in paddy soil: The role of N fertilization and plant growth for enzyme activities, CO₂ and CH₄ emissions. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, **116**, 369–377. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2017.11.001>