

Effects of pasture introduction on soil CO₂ emissions during the dry season in the state of Rondônia, Brazil

B. J. FEIGL¹, P. A. STEUDLER² & C. C. CERRI¹

¹ Centro de Energia Nuclear na Agricultura, CENA/USP, CP 96, 13416-000 Piracicaba-SP, Brazil; ² The Ecosystem Center, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Massachusetts 02543, U.S.A.

Received 11 October 1994; accepted 30 May 1995

Key words: Amazonia, Brazil, carbon dioxide, ¹³CO₂, chronosequence, soil respiration, tropical forest, tropical pasture

Abstract. Soil CO₂ evolution rates, soil temperatures and moisture were measured during the dry season in two forest-to-pasture chronosequences in Rondônia, Brazil. The study included pastures ranging from 3 to 80 years-old. Mean dry-season CO₂ evolution from the forest in chronosequence I, 88.8 mg CO₂-C m⁻²h⁻¹ was lower than from the pastures which ranged from 111 to 158 mg CO₂-C m⁻²h⁻¹. We found that temperature was not a good predictor of CO₂ emissions from pasture but that there was a significant relationship ($r = 0.72$, $p < 0.05$) between soil moisture and pasture emissions. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the soil CO₂ emissions also was measured on chronosequence I; $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the CO₂ emitted from the C₃ forest was -29.43‰ . Pasture ¹³CO₂ δ values increased from -17.91‰ in the 3 year-old pasture to -12.86‰ in the 80 year-old, reflecting the increasing C₄ inputs with pasture age. Even in the youngest (3 year-old) pasture, 70 percent of the CO₂ evolved originated from C₄ pasture-derived carbon.

Introduction

Tropical deforestation alters the exchange of carbon between terrestrial ecosystems and the atmosphere which is important in understanding the global carbon cycle (Bueno & Helene 1991; Houghton 1990). The Brazilian Amazon River Basin contains the world's largest tropical forest (approximately 4.6×10^6 km²) and also has one of the highest deforestation rates (Skole et al. 1994). To understand the consequences of deforestation on soil carbon dynamics, it is important to document the differences in soil respiration among natural and managed tropical ecosystems. Indeed, little information is available on tropical soil respiration rates, a major component of ecosystem carbon dynamics (Raich & Nadelhoffer 1989; Raich & Schlesinger 1991), in either natural or agricultural systems (Raich 1983; Steudler et al. 1991).

Rondônia state, located in the Amazon Basin, is one of the most important new agricultural regions of the country. As of 1988, 29,600 km² or 13.9% of the original forests of Rondônia had been cut (Fearnside 1993) and by 1985 nearly 880,000 ha, that is, 30% of the total deforested area, were converted directly into pasture (Anuário estatístico do Brasil, IBGE 1992). This fact

makes the region an ideal location to investigate how land use change affects soil respiration rates along a forest-to-pasture chronosequence of sites. The pasture chronosequence also represents a unique opportunity to apply stable carbon isotope dilution techniques to determine the origin of the mineralized organic material (C_3 forest or C_4 pasture) using the $\delta^{13}C$ natural abundance of the evolved CO_2 (Schönwitzer et al. 1986).

Soil respiration is usually defined as the amount of CO_2 evolved from the soil surface and is primarily derived from soil organic matter (SOM) mineralized by microbiological processes and root respiration (Behera et al. 1990; Bowden et al. 1993). A major proportion of the variability in soil respiration rates can be explained by temperature and soil water content, with moisture usually the dominant controlling factor in tropical systems (Rajvanshi & Gupta 1986). Since there is only a small change in temperature throughout the year in the tropics, we made a series of measurements along forest to pasture chronosequences during the dry season, when soil respiration rates may be less variable (Kursar 1989).

The objectives of this study were to determine: 1) how the conversion of a natural forest to a chronosequence of pastures affected the dry season soil respiration rates and 2) what was the origin of the emitted CO_2 (forest or pasture derived material) using isotopic techniques.

Methods

Site description

The study was conducted at Fazenda Nova Vida, a 22,000-ha cattle ranch about 250 km south of the city of Pôrto Velho along the BR-364 road in the central region of Rondônia state, Brazil. The local climate is humid tropical, with an annual mean temperature of 25.5 °C and precipitation of 2200 mm (Bastos and Diniz 1982) including a dry season of approximately four to five months from May to September. The predominant soil at the ranch is an Ultisol (Podzólico Vermelho-Amarelo in the Brazilian soil classification) one of the dominant soil types (22%) in the basin (Moraes et al. 1995). The natural vegetation is classified as open moist tropical forest (Projeto Radambrasil 1978). According to the ranch manager's records, a slash and burn technique was used to clear the forest after selective removal of the economically important trees. Pasture grasses (*Brachiaria brizantha* and *Panicum maximum*) were sowed by airplane and weeds were controlled by fire two years after pasture establishment. Neither mechanized agricultural practices nor chemical fertilizers were used on any of the pastures.

Two forest-to-pasture chronosequences were selected on the same soil type. Chronosequence I included a forest site and pastures created directly from forest in 1989, 1987, 1983, 1979, 1972, 1951 and 1911, corresponding to pasture ages of 3, 5, 9, 13, 20, 40 and 80 years. Chronosequence II was located about 10 km away and had a forest site and pastures created in 1989, 1987 and 1972.

A detailed description of the soil characteristics of the study area has been given by Moraes et al. (1994). Total carbon stocks in the upper 30 cm ranged from 3.4 Kg m^{-2} to 2.8 Kg m^{-2} in the forests and were higher (4.0 to 3.9 Kg m^{-2}) in the 20 year-old pastures of chronosequences I and II, respectively. The 80 year-old pasture had the maximum carbon stock, 5.25 Kg m^{-2} , of all the pasture sites. Soil pH ranged between 4.6 and 4.7 in the chronosequence I and II forests and increased from 5.5 to 6.7 in the pastures of chronosequence I and from 4.9 to 6.4 in chronosequence II. Soil clay content had mean values of 27.6 percent and 21.6 percent for all sites in chronosequence I and II, respectively. Pasture bulk densities were greater than in the forests (1.44 – 1.41 g cm^{-3}) and increased with pasture age, reaching values of 1.53 g cm^{-3} in the 9 and 40 year-old pastures.

Field measurements

Measurements of carbon dioxide emission were made once per month at chronosequence I in early June, July and August 1992. Forest, 1987 and 1972 pastures from chronosequence II were sampled in July and August, and the 1989 pasture only in August 1992. Fluxes were measured three times during the day at 0700, 1200 and 1700 hours, corresponding approximately to the minimum, maximum and intermediate soil and ambient air temperatures. Five soil cores were taken at each site for determination of gravimetric soil moisture at 0–5 and 5–10 cm depths once per day.

Carbon dioxide emission measurements were made using a two-part chamber design (Bowden et al. 1990) with three chambers at each site. Chamber anchors were installed in June 1992, several days before flux measurements were made, and remained in place throughout the study period. In the pastures chamber anchors were located between the grass cultivars with anchors separated from each other by about six meters. Surface litter material was left in place. Initial headspace gas samples were collected using 20-ml nylon syringes (Bowden et al. 1990) at the beginning of the 30-min incubation and at 10-min intervals thereafter. Ambient air, 2, 5 and 10 cm soil temperatures were measured during each incubation. Gas samples were returned to Piracicaba and analyzed within one week. Carbon dioxide concentrations were determined using gas chromatography with a ^{63}Ni electron capture detector operated at 230°C (Steudler et al. 1991). Two Scott certified standards of 234

and 2030 ppmv CO₂ in N₂ were used for calibration. Fluxes were calculated using the linear change in CO₂ concentration with incubation time.

$\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ measurements

During the July 1992 sampling, gases were collected from the chambers of chronosequence I pastures to determine the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of the emitted CO₂. Initial and final CO₂ concentrations and corresponding $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were measured. Initial ambient air samples for determination of $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ were taken with one-liter evacuated glass flasks (Quay et al. 1989) at the soil surface inside the chamber anchor just before the start of the flux incubation. Gas samples were collected from the chamber headspace immediately after the 30-min flux sample using a 100-ml evacuated flask. An ambient air and 30-min headspace sample was taken from each chamber at all sites. Gas samples for isotope analysis were returned to the lab in Piracicaba and analyzed within 2 weeks. Carbon dioxide from ambient air and chamber headspace gas samples was purified and the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values determined using a Finnigan Matt-Delta E mass spectrometer.

Calculations

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of the CO₂ emitted into the chamber was corrected for dilution by the initial ambient CO₂ values using equation 1:

$$^{13}\text{CO}_{2e} = \{[\text{CO}_{2f}] * ^{13}\text{C}_f\} - \{[\text{CO}_{2i}] * ^{13}\text{C}_i\} / [\text{CO}_{2f}] - [\text{CO}_{2i}] \quad (1)$$

where $^{13}\text{CO}_{2e}$ is the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of the emitted CO₂ into the chamber during the incubation; $[\text{CO}_{2i}]$ and $[\text{CO}_{2f}]$ are the initial and final CO₂ concentrations, respectively and $^{13}\text{C}_i$ and $^{13}\text{C}_f$ are the initial and final $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the CO₂ inside the chamber.

The amount of carbon derived from pasture (Cdp) evolved as CO₂ was calculated using the $^{13}\text{CO}_{2e}$ data in Fig. 2 and equation 2:

$$\text{CO}_2\text{-Cdp} = \{(\delta p - \delta f) / (\delta gl - \delta f)\} * \text{Total evolved C} \quad (2)$$

where CO₂-Cdp is the amount of pasture derived carbon, δp is the $^{13}\text{CO}_{2e}$ value of a pasture site, δf the $^{13}\text{CO}_{2e}$ value of the forest (−29.43 ‰) and δgl is the ^{13}C value of −13.00 ‰ for C₄ grass litter (Cerri and Andreux 1990). The total evolved C is calculated by multiplying the mean daytime hourly CO₂ soil evolution rates by the number of hours in each of the dry season months and summing over all months.

Results

Temperature and moisture variations

Maximum and minimum ambient air temperatures during the period ranged from 29 to 16 °C in the forest sites and from 37 to 16 °C in the pastures. Soil temperatures had the smallest variation in the forest sites, where a maximum difference of 5 °C was observed at a depth of 2.5 cm (19 to 24 °C). In the pasture sites this difference increased to 19 °C (17 to 36 °C), while in the deepest soil layer (10 cm) it was about 10 °C.

Between the first sampling period on June 10 and the third sampling on August 11, there was a total rainfall of 54 mm distributed as follows: 7 mm in late June, 25 mm in July three days before sampling and 4 mm in August one week before sampling. These rainfall amounts are in the range of the longer-term (1984–1992) monthly averages of 26, 5, and 47 mm measured approximately 20 km away at Fazenda Rancho Grande. Soil moistures in the forest remained relatively constant (9–12%), generally with lower values than the pasture sites in the beginning of the dry season (Table 1). However, the pattern changed in August when the forest sites had higher soil moistures than the pastures except for chronosequence II 1989 pasture.

Soil respiration

We did not observe a consistent pattern of CO₂ evolution related to the daytime cycle of soil temperature in either the forest or pasture sites.

CO₂ evolution from forest soils

Chronosequence I and II forest soils had mean respiration rates of 88.8 ± 6.9 and 112.0 ± 7.3 mg CO₂-C m⁻²h⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). Although chronosequence I and II forest sites are under the same climatic conditions and have similar vegetation, slight variations in soil composition may contribute to the differences in respiration rates. The forest soil of chronosequence II always had greater respiration rates than the forest in chronosequence I with a difference between the daily means of about 25% (Table 2). Chronosequence II forest soil had a lower bulk density and percent clay content, indicating higher soil porosity. These factors may have resulted in more favorable conditions for microbial activity and increased gas diffusion rates.

CO₂ evolution from pasture soils

Pastures of chronosequence I had greater CO₂ emissions than the forest site, except for the 9-year-old pasture in June (Table 2). All pastures had the highest

Table 1. Soil moisture measurements (%) at 0-5 and 5-10 cm depths during the soil respiration samplings in chronosequences I and II.

Sites	June		July		August	
	depth (cm)		depth (cm)		depth (cm)	
	0-5	5-10	0-5	5-10	0-5	5-10
Chronosequence I						
Forest	11.6 ± 2.1*	12.0 ± 1.2	9.0 ± 0.9	11.8 ± 0.5	10.9 ± 1.7	12.9 ± 1.3
Pasture age						
3 year-old	15.2 ± 2.8	15.1 ± 2.3	11.3 ± 4.0	13.0 ± 1.3	9.1 ± 1.7	10.8 ± 1.0
5 year-old	17.2 ± 4.2	15.8 ± 1.3	10.3 ± 1.0	10.8 ± 0.7	7.1 ± 0.5	9.3 ± 0.5
9 year-old	12.5 ± 3.0	12.5 ± 2.2	13.3 ± 7.0	14.2 ± 8.3	4.4 ± 0.8	6.5 ± 0.4
13 year-old	12.8 ± 1.7	11.4 ± 1.0	14.5 ± 2.6	12.6 ± 2.6	6.1 ± 0.9	7.4 ± 0.7
20 year-old	18.3 ± 1.1	15.5 ± 0.9	16.5 ± 1.4	15.3 ± 0.6	11.2 ± 1.1	11.0 ± 0.7
40 year-old	13.4 ± 2.1	13.0 ± 1.0	14.8 ± 2.4	14.8 ± 1.9	8.4 ± 3.9	9.0 ± 1.6
80 year-old	16.5 ± 2.1	14.0 ± 2.3	13.5 ± 0.8	12.6 ± 1.0	5.3 ± 0.9	6.1 ± 0.6
Chronosequence II						
Forest	—**	—	10.6 ± 1.2	12.8 ± 0.6	8.7 ± 1.1	9.3 ± 0.7
Pasture Age						
3 year-old	—	—	—	—	12.0 ± 1.2	14.0 ± 2.6
5 year-old	—	—	14.5 ± 2.0	9.6 ± 2.8	5.9 ± 0.7	6.2 ± 0.4
20 year-old	—	—	14.6 ± 1.2	13.2 ± 1.7	4.9 ± 1.1	6.7 ± 0.7

* s.d. ($n = 5$)

** not measured

Table 2. Daytime mean CO₂ respiration rates (mg CO₂-C m⁻²h⁻¹) in chronosequence I and II.

Sites	June	July	August
	mg CO ₂ -C m ⁻² h ⁻¹		
Chronosequence I			
Forest	94.2 ± 6.3*	95.4 ± 18.5	78.0 ± 11.7
Pasture Age			
3 year-old	122.8 ± 12.5	105.0 ± 13.2	104.1 ± 24.6
5 year-old	143.1 ± 7.0	165.6 ± 1.0	112.7 ± 8.9
9 year-old	86.0 ± 2.8	151.9 ± 8.3	125.2 ± 12.1
13 year-old	114.3 ± 5.2	182.1 ± 6.2	90.9 ± 6.1
20 year-old	168.1 ± 13.6	176.2 ± 28.6	126.6 ± 19.3
40 year-old	106.1 ± 1.9	133.4 ± 5.6	94.5 ± 16.6
80 year-old	176.3 ± 8.6	173.3 ± 10.6	78.5 ± 4.8
Chronosequence II			
Forest	– **	126.0 ± 11.4	98.0 ± 14.0
Pasture Age			
3 year-old	–	–	93.8 ± 11.1
5 year-old	–	133.1 ± 2.1	66.2 ± 4.1
20 year-old	–	144.6 ± 7.4	57.3 ± 4.6

* standard error ($n = 3$ chambers)

** not measured

respiration rates during the july sampling except for the 3 and 80 year-old pastures. The lowest rates were measured in August when soil moistures were also at their minimum. Combining the data for soil moisture and CO₂ fluxes from all sampling times (Tables 1 and 2) for the pastures in chronosequence I, we found a significant correlation ($r = 0.72$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 26$) between daytime CO₂ fluxes and 0-5 cm soil moistures. However, no significant relationships were found within each month.

Mean dry season CO₂ emissions from chronosequence I pasture sites varied between 111 and 158 mg CO₂-C m⁻²h⁻¹ (Fig. 1). Pasture emissions increased with age in the youngest pastures but pastures greater than 9 years-old did not show this trend suggesting that during the dry season CO₂ emissions in the older pastures may be independent of pasture age. We did not calculate the seasonal means of the chronosequence II measurements, but report the daytime means for comparison with chronosequence I (Table 2).

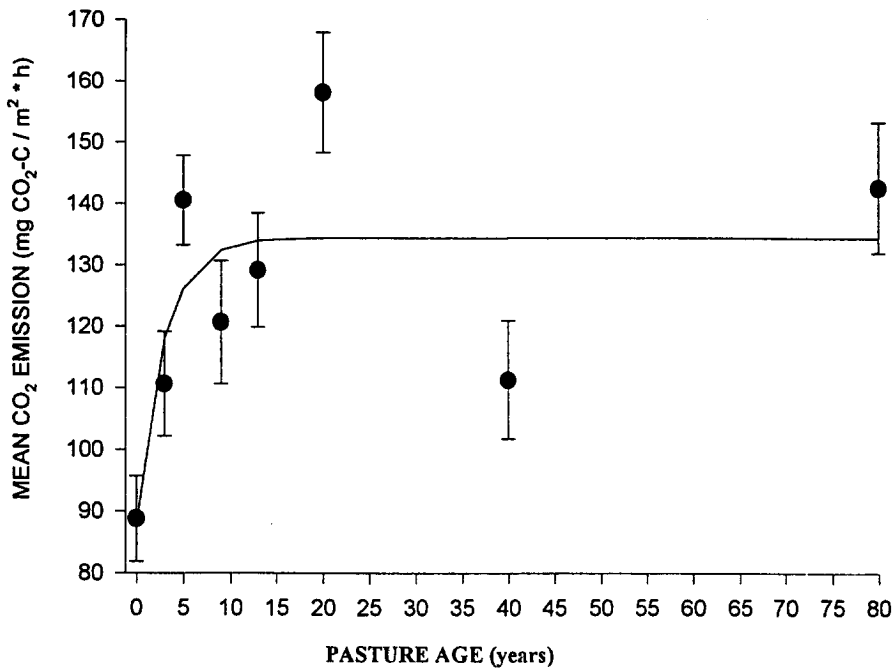


Fig. 1. Mean dry season soil CO₂ emissions and standard errors (S.E.) during the dry season from chronosequence I forest (0 age) and various aged pastures. Mean emissions were calculated by multiplying the mean daily rates by the number of hours in that month, summing over all months and dividing by the total number of hours.

Origin of the CO₂ evolved

A $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_{2e}$ value of -29.43‰ for the forest was determined from a survey of moist tropical forests in Rondônia during the dry season (Steudler et al. manuscript in preparation). Pasture $^{13}\text{CO}_{2e}$ δ values ranged from -17.91‰ in the 3-year-old pasture to -12.86‰ in the 80-year-old pasture reflecting the increasing C₄ carbon inputs with pasture age (Fig. 2).

Discussion

Forest CO₂ emissions

Our rates from the forest sites were higher than obtained by Medina et al. (1980) in a laterite forest, where the values ranged from $20.2\text{ mg CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ during the dry season to $42.0\text{ mg CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ during the wetter months, with no clear seasonal trend. The lack of a seasonal trend may be due to the continuously favorable temperature and humidity conditions in

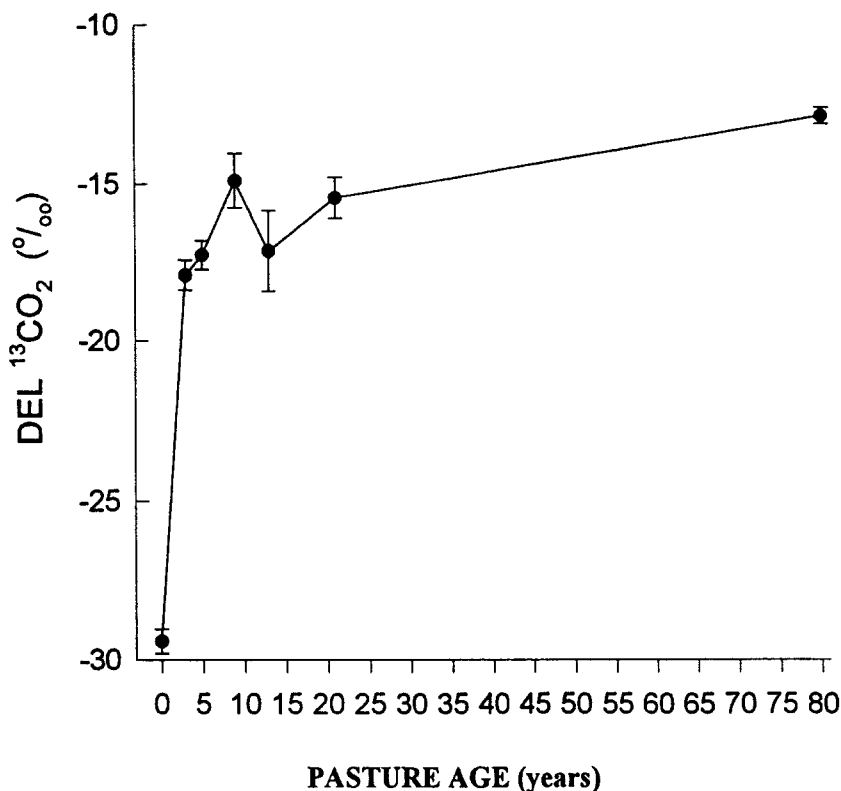


Fig. 2. Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and standard errors (S.E.) determined for soil CO_2 emitted from chronosequence I pastures. Measurements were made in July, 1992. The forest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value (0 age) was determined from a survey of Rondônia moist tropical forests during the dry season.

this forest. In a monsoonal tropical forest ecosystem in India, Rajvanshi & Gupta (1986) showed that the soil respiration rate was lower during the winter months, reflecting the effect of hot dry conditions during the months of March to May, when the rates ranged between 60 and 72 $\text{mg CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$. Kursar (1989) reported rates of 128 to 163 $\text{mg CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ during the early dry season for a Panamanian rain forest, comparable to 140 $\text{mg CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ obtained by Steudler et al. (1991) during the same period of the year in a tabonuco forest in Puerto Rico. These rates are higher than our observations, but the difference may be because these sites receive more than 100 mm of precipitation each month even during the dry season.

Pasture CO_2 emissions

Data for soil respiration rates from tropical pastures are sparse. Goreau and Mello (1985) reported mean fluxes from young pastures and a grassland were

about 165 mg CO₂-C m⁻²h⁻¹ from central Amazonian soils during the dry season. These sites received a mean of 50 mm precipitation/month during this time of the year. These rates are higher than the 55 mg CO₂-C m⁻²h⁻¹ measured by Gupta & Singh (1981) in a tropical grassland of India, where low soil moisture became a factor limiting microbial and root metabolism during the dry part of the monsoonal summer. Our rates are at the upper range of these measurements.

The relationship $Y = 88.19 + 46.22(1 - e^{-0.34x})$ gave the best fit ($r^2 = 0.53$) to the mean CO₂ forest and pasture data (Fig. 1). We found that after the nine year-old pasture there was little increase in the CO₂ fluxes from the older pastures. This may be because after grass cover is fully established and both root biomass and labile carbon inputs reach a steady state so that CO₂ releases are constant. We observed that grass stems only partly covered the soil area in the 3-year-old pasture of chronosequence I but maximum stem density was reached in the 9-year-old pasture. Bonde et al. (1991) also observed that about one third of the area in a 2-year-old pasture was covered by grass while in an 8-year-old pasture grasses covered practically the whole area. Luizão et al. (1992) found that annual fine root biomass increased from 5.1 t/ha in a tropical forest near Manaus to 8.9 t/ha an increase of 74% in a 2-year-old pasture. Kepler et al. (1990) at the same sites during the wet season measured a 127% increase in the pasture (at age 1.5 years old) CO₂ emissions compared to the forest. We measured a 33% increase in the youngest pasture CO₂ emission in August compared to the forest. The major sources of CO₂ emitted from the pasture soils are from mineralization of soil organic matter (SOM) and plant root respiration. These studies suggest that root respiration may be a major contributor to the CO₂ emitted from pastures.

Origin of the emitted CO₂

While there have been many studies that have used changes in the ¹³C content of forest (C₃) and pasture (C₄) soil organic matter to examine soil carbon turnover (Volkoff & Cerri 1987; Martin et al. 1990; Chone et al. 1991), there are only a few reported data from field studies of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the respired CO₂ from soils. Studies in temperate forest and uncultivated soils showed that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the soil-respired CO₂ ranged from -20.5 to -27.0 ‰ (Dorr & Munnich 1980; Schleser & Jayasekera 1985; Cerling et al. 1991). Quay et al. (1989) reported that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ results from two chamber measurements in a tropical forest soil were -24.8 and -27.4 ‰. Townsend et al. (1995) measured the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the CO₂ emitted from two high elevation tropical forests in Hawaii and found values of -26.16 and -25.99 ‰. These data for C₃ systems are somewhat heavier than the -29.43 ‰. mean value we found in our tropical forest sites.

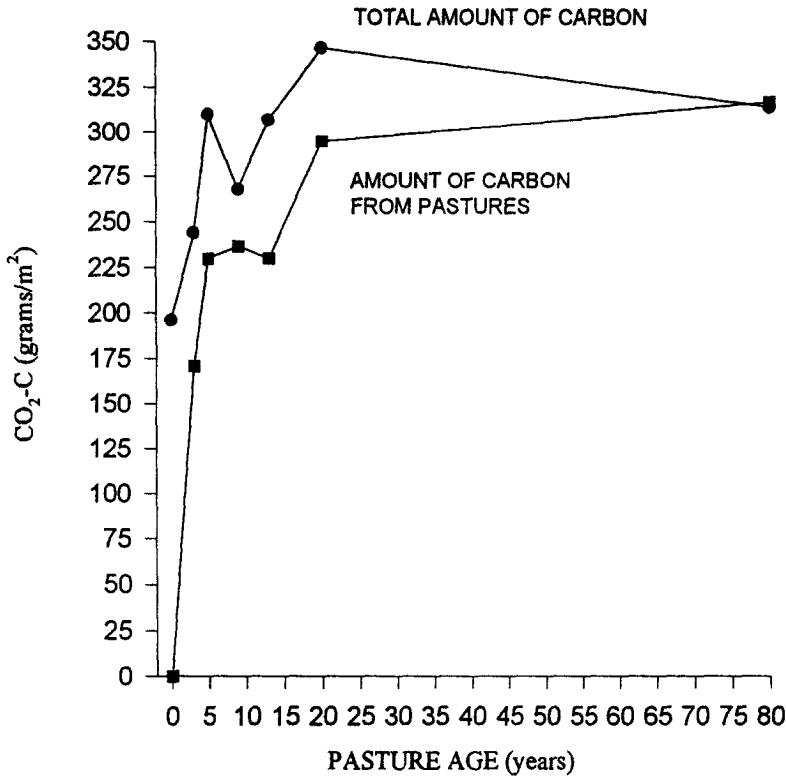


Fig. 3. Total amount of carbon emitted as CO₂ (●) during the dry season from the forest (0 age) and pastures in chronosequence I and the corresponding contribution of Cdp (■).

Our review of the literature revealed only one paper that reported the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the CO₂ respired from tropical pastures. Townsend et al. (1995) found relatively constant $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the respired CO₂ from pastures that were 10 to ~100 years-old. The ^{13}C values were -15.21‰ in the youngest pastures (10–27 years-old), -13.28‰ in the 40 to 50 year-old pastures and -14.65‰ in the oldest pasture (~100 years). We found a similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of -15.45‰ for our 20 year-old pasture but found a heavier value (-12.86‰) for the 80 year-old pasture compared to their oldest pasture (Fig. 2). We measured the greatest changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from -17.91 to -14.9‰ in the 3 to 9 year-old pastures, respectively.

We used the data in Fig. 1 to estimate the total amount of CO₂-C evolved during the dry season from chronosequence I. The amount of the CO₂-C evolved that originated from pasture derived carbon (Cdp) was calculated using the $^{13}\text{CO}_{2e}$ data in Fig. 2 and equation 2 (Fig. 3). The results showed that, in a short time, the newly introduced vegetation dominated soil CO₂ exchanges. Even in the youngest pasture (3 year-old), 70% of the CO₂ emitted

from the soil system originated from Cdp (Fig. 3), and 100% of the CO₂ emitted from the oldest pasture was from a Cdp source.

Conclusions

Our analysis showed that soil moisture was a significant predictor of pasture CO₂ emissions. We found that over the dry season pastures had up to 76% greater CO₂ emissions than the forest. An exponential relationship $Y = 88.19 + 46.22(1 - e^{-0.34x})$ best described the mean CO₂ forest and pasture emissions and that in pastures older than nine-years there was little increase in flux of CO₂. This may be because the grass cover is fully established and both root biomass and labile carbon inputs have reached a steady state. Our results showed that the newly introduced vegetation dominated soil CO₂ exchanges so that even in the 3 year-old pasture, 70% of the CO₂ emitted from the soil system originated from Cdp.

Acknowledgements

Funding for this research was provided by grants from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the Texaco Foundation, and the Conservation Food and Health Foundation Inc. to the Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, MA. Jerry Melillo and Chris Neill assisted in various phases of the research. The authors thank João Arantes for permission to work at Fazenda Nova Vida and for his generous logistical support. Gilmar Dri and Arildo Lopez assisted with the fieldwork and Sandra G. Nicoletti and Martial Bernoux with the laboratory analyses.

References

- Bastos T X & Diniz T D de A S (1982) Avaliação do clima do Estado de Rondônia para desenvolvimento agrícola. Boletim de Pesquisa no. 44, Belem, PA, Brazil. EMBRAPA-CPATU 28 pp
- Behera N, Joshi S K & Pati D P (1990) Root contribution to total soil metabolism in a tropical forest soil from Orissa, India. For. Ecol. Manage. 36: 125–134
- Bonde T A, Rosswall T & Victoria R L (1991) The dynamics of soil organic matter and soil microbial biomass following clearfelling and cropping of a tropical rainforest soil in central Amazon. In: Bonde T A Size and dynamics of active soil organic matter fraction as influenced by soil management. Linköping Studies in Arts and Science. No. 63 (Chapter VII pp 1–19). Linköping, Sweden
- Bowden R D, Nadelhoffer K J, Boone R D, Melillo J M & Garrison J B (1993) Contributions of aboveground litter, belowground litter, and root respiration to total soil respiration in a temperate mixed hardwood forest. Can. J. For. Res. 23: 1402–1407

- Bowden R D, Steudler P A & Melillo J M (1990) Annual nitrous oxide fluxes from temperate forest soils in the northeastern United States. *J. Geophys. Res.* 95: 13,997–14,005
- Bueno M A F & Helene M F M (1991) Global deforestation and CO₂ emissions: past and present. A comprehensive review. *Energy Environ.* 2: 235–282
- Cerling T E, Solomon D K, Quade J & Bowman J R (1991) On the isotopic composition of carbon in soil carbon dioxide. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 55: 3403–3405
- Cerri C C & Andreux F (1990) Changes in the organic content of oxisols cultivated with sugar cane and pasture, based on ¹³C natural abundance measurement. In: International society of soil science proceedings 14th Int. Congr. Soil Sci. Vol IV (pp 98–103). Kyoto, Japan
- Chonè T, Andreux F, Correa J C, Volkoff B & Cerri C C (1991) Changes in organic matter in an oxisol from the central Amazonian forest during eight years as pasture, determined by ¹³C composition. In: Berthelin J (Ed) *Diversity of Environmental Biogeochemistry* (pp 307–405). Elsevier, NY
- Dorr H & Munnich K O (1980) Carbon-14 and carbon-13 in soil CO₂. *Radiocarbon* 22(3): 909–918
- Fearnside P M (1993) Deforestation in Brazilian Amazonia: The effect of population and land tenure. *Ambio* 22: 537–545
- Goreau T J & Mello W Z (1985) Effects of deforestation on sources and sinks of atmospheric carbon dioxide, nitrous oxide and methane from central amazonian soils and biota during the dry season: A preliminary study. In: Athic D et al. (Eds) *Biogeochemistry of tropical rain forests: problems for research* (pp 51–66). CENA, Piracicaba, Brazil
- Gupta S R & Singh J S (1981) Soil respiration in a tropical grassland. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 13: 261–268
- Houghton R A (1990) The global effects of tropical deforestation. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 24(4): 414–422
- IBGE – Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. *Anuário Estatístico do Brasil* (1992) Rio de Janeiro, Brazil
- Kepler S, Volkoff B, Cerri C C, Chonè T, Luizão F & Eduardo B P (1990) Respiração do solo: Comparação entre áreas com mata natural, mata recém-queimada e pastagem, na Amazônia Central. *Geochim. Brasil* 4(2): 111–118
- Kursar T A (1989) Evaluation of soil respiration and soil CO₂ concentration in a lowland moist forest in Panama. *Plant and Soil* 113: 21–29
- Luizão F J, Luizão R & Chauvel A (1992) Premiers résultats sur la dynamique des biomasses racinaires et microbiennes dans un “latossol” d’Amazonie Central (Bresil) sous forêt et sous pâture. *Cah. Orstom Ser. Pédologie XXVII*(1): 69–79
- Martin A, Mariotti A, Balesdent J, Lavelle P & Vuattoux R (1990) Estimate of organic matter turnover rate in a savanna soil by ¹³C natural abundance measurements. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 22: 517–524
- Medina E, Klinge H, Jordan C & Herrera R (1980) Soil respiration in Amazonian rain forests in the Rio Negro Basin. *Flora* 170: 240–250
- Moraes, J F L (1994) Efeito do uso da terra na dinâmica do carbono e nitrogênio na região de Arigüemis – RO: use de um sistema de informações ecológicas. *Relatório Científico no 4. RAPESP. SP. Brasil*
- Moraes J F L, Cerri C C, Melillo J M, Kicklighter D, Neill C, Skole D, Steudler P (1995) Soil carbon stocks of the Brazilian Amazon basin. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 59: 244–247.
- Projeto Radambrasil 1978 Folha SC-20, Porto Velho. Departamento Nacional de Produção Mineral (DNPM), Levantamento de Recursos Naturais, Rio de Janeiro
- Quay P, King S, Wilbur D, Wofsy S & Richey J (1989) ¹³C/¹²C of atmospheric CO₂ in the Amazon Basin: forest and river sources. *J. Geophys. Res.* 94(D15): 327–336
- Raich J W (1983) Effects of forest conversion on the carbon budget of a tropical soil. *Biotropica* 15(3): 177–184
- Raich J W & Nadelhoffer K J (1989) Belowground carbon allocation in forest ecosystems: global trends. *Ecology* 70: 1346–1354

- Raich J W & Schlesinger W S (1992) The global carbon dioxide flux in soil respiration and its relationship to vegetation and climate. *Tellus* 44B: 81–99
- Rajvanshi R & Gupta S R (1986) Soil respiration and carbon balance in a tropical *Dalbergia sissoo* forest ecosystem. *Flora* 178: 251–260
- Schönwitz R, Stichler W & Ziegler H (1986) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of CO_2 from soil respiration on sites with crops of C_3 and C_4 type of photosynthesis. *Oecologia* 69: 305–308
- Schleser G H & Jayasekera R (1985) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -variations of leaves in forest as an indication of reassimilated CO_2 from the soil. *Oecologia* 65: 536–542
- Skole D L, Chomentowski W H, Salas W A & Nobre A D (1994) Physical and human dimensions of deforestation in Amazonia. *BioScience* 44(5): 314–322
- Steudler P A, Melillo J M, Bowden R D, Castro M S & Lugo A E (1991) The effects of natural and human disturbances on soil nitrogen dynamics and trace gas fluxes in a Puerto Rican wet forest. *Biotropica* 23(4a): 356–363
- Townsend A R, Vitousek P M & Trumbore S E (1995) Soil organic matter dynamics along gradients in temperature and land use on the island of Hawaii. *Ecology* 76(3): 721–733
- Volkoff B & Cerri C C (1987) Carbon isotopic fractionation in subtropical Brazilian grassland soils. Comparison with tropical forest soils. *Plant and Soil* 102:27–31