

Humus components and biogenic structures under tropical slash-and-burn agriculture

Stéphanie Topoliantz, Jean-François Ponge, Patrick Lavelle

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| 1 | Humus components and biogenic structures under tropical slash-and- |
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| 2 | burn agriculture |
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| 4 | S. TOPOLIANTZ ^a , JF. PONGE ^a & P. LAVELLE ^b |
| 5 | |
| 6 | ^a Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, CNRS UMR 5176, 4 avenue du Petit- |
| 7 | Château, 91800 Brunoy, and ^b Institut pour la Recherche et le Développement, |
| 8 | UMR 137 BioSol, 32 avenue Henri-Varagnat, 93143 Bondy Cedex, France |
| 9 | |
| 10 | Short running title: Humus under slash-and-burn cultivation |
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| 12 | Correspondence: JF. Ponge. E-mail: jean-francois.ponge@wanadoo.fr |
| 13 | |
| 14 | Received 15 June 2004; revised version accepted |
| 15 | |
| 16 | Summary |
| 17 | |
| 18 | Slash-and-burn cultivation in the humid tropics can cause changes in the |
| 19 | composition of topsoil, depending on the duration of the fallow. We studied |
| 20 | differences between practices, using the small-volume micromorphological |
| 21 | method, to quantify the distribution of solid components in the topsoil, |
| 22 | concentrating on plant organs and biogenic structures created by soil animals. |
| 23 | We compared samples of topsoil from five plots, two at Maripasoula, an Aluku |
| 24 | village along the river Maroni (French Guiana), with short fallow (≤8 years), and |

the other three at Elahe, a Wayana village along the same river, with long fallow

26 (≥ 25 years). At both sites structures created by arthropods other than ants 27 gave way to ones formed by ants and annelids under the influence of fire and 28 cultivation. This change was more abrupt under long fallow, because of the time 29 needed to restore the arthropod community. Charcoal and charred plant 30 material were incorporated by earthworms into the mineral soil, forming dark 31 grey to black aggregates. Charcoal became mixed with the mineral soil faster at 32 Elahe than at Maripasoula, where it accumulated in the topsoil. The reason 33 seems to be an imbalance between charcoal inputs (from repeated fires) and 34 the capacity of burrowing animals (earthworms, ants) to mix it with the mineral 35 soil.

36

37 Introduction

38

39 Traditional shifting agriculture in the tropics balanced food production and 40 nature conservation. In French Guiana, this long-lasting equilibrium is 41 threatened by increasing demographic pressure and settling of cultivators for 42 social welfare, schools, medical care and administration. In Maripasoula 43 (population 1200), a settlement along the Maroni river (bordering French 44 Guiana and Suriname) of mostly Aluku people (of African lineage), the duration 45 of fallow in the slash-and-burn system has decreased from 15 to 7-8 years in 46 the last thirty years. It is much shorter than the 15 to more than 100 years in the 47 traditional shifting cultivation still practised by Wayana Amerindians as in the 48 village of Elahe (Fleury, 1998).

49

50 Under traditional shifting cultivation (alternating short periods of cropping 51 with long fallows), burning of woody vegetation before cultivation fertilizes the 52 soil with ashes. During the fallow, the nutrient status of the soil, impoverished by 53 crops, regenerates after several years from the organic matter added by the 54 regrowth of vegetation, and we know from many accounts how important soil organic matter is for the maintenance of soil fertility in the tropics. The 55 56 stabilization of soil organic matter within biogenic structures such as earthworm 57 faeces help to preserve a reservoir of water, nutrients and space in which plant roots, animals and microbes can grow. Among other approaches, the fate of 58 59 charcoal, from incomplete combustion of wood, has been considered of potential use for alternative systems of tropical agriculture (Glaser et al., 2002; 60 61 Lehmann et al., 2003; Glaser & Woods, 2004). Glaser et al. (2001) found that 62 charcoal is a source of stable and fertile humus in Amazonian Terra Preta. Our 63 own experiments showed that the combined use of charcoal and manioc peel 64 could sustain legume production on rather infertile tropical soils (Topoliantz et 65 al., 2005).

66

67 The present study was done in southern French Guiana. Its aim was to 68 compare the impact of slash-and-burn cultivation on humus components and 69 biogenic structures in the soil of two agricultural systems, differing in the 70 duration of the fallow (8 years in Maripasoula and >100 years in Elahe) and that 71 of continuous cultivation (1 year in Maripasoula, 3 years in Elahe). Manioc 72 (Manihot esculenta Cranz) was the major crop in both villages. These sites 73 were chosen as typical examples of (i) traditional shifting agriculture, and (ii) 74 change to permanent agriculture, on the basis of preliminary investigations on

the impact of agricultural practices on soil fertility along the Maroni river
(Grandisson, 1997). The crop (manioc) was the same and the soils (Oxisols)
are similar. The two sites differ only in the way they are managed.

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79 Materials and methods

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81 Study sites

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83 The first site, typical of traditional slash-and-burn shifting agriculture, is 84 upstream of the Amerindian Wayana village of Elahe, on the Tampock river, a 85 subsidiary of Maroni (N 3°26'; W 53°59'). Three years ago a family had cut and 86 burned contiguous fields (abattis) within a secondary forest. This forest seemed, 87 from a census of woody species typical of mature forests such as Astrocaryum 88 sciophilum (Miguel) Pulle and Dicorynia guianensis Amsh. (Poncy et al., 2001), 89 to have been let untouched for at least 100 years. We sampled an abattis which 90 had been under cultivation for 3 years (EA), and the nearby untouched old 91 secondary forest (EF) in July 1999, approximately 100 m from EA. The plot in 92 the secondary forest was resampled in May 2000 after it was burnt in December 93 1999 for cultivation (EFB).

94

The second site is by the Maroni river (N 3°39'; W 54°2') near Maripasoula, 25 km downstream of the first site. It is in a large village inhabited mostly by Aluku people (black people of African lineage, descended from slaves who escaped at the end of the 18th century). During the last thirty years the increase of the population decreased the surface of cultivable land per family

100 and the duration of the fallow (Fleury, 1998). We sampled a one-year-old abattis 101 at the end of the crop period, opened by an Aluku family by burning an 8-year-102 old woody fallow (MA), and the nearby unburnt fallow (MF), approximately 100 103 m from MA. The latter plot was characterized by typical pioneer woody species 104 such as Cecropia latiloba Miq. and Inga capitata Desv. Unlike the inhabitants of 105 Elahe village, who can exploit the same abattis for two or three years because 106 cultivation occurs after long fallow, cultivators living in Maripasoula do not crop 107 the same field for more than one season, due to a rapid decrease of yield and 108 the invasion of their fields by weeds and crop parasites (Fleury, 1998). As 109 above we sampled both plots in July 1999. We intended to resample in 2000 110 the woody fallow plot (MF), which should have been burnt in December 1999 by 111 the Aluku family, but as it was not burnt and so we could not resample it as for 112 EFB.

113

114 The mean size of abattis is 2 ha at Maripasoula and 1 ha at Elahe. At 115 both sites, manioc is the basic food crop, and is supplemented by fishing and 116 hunting. Abattis are roughly circular, originating from cutting and burning the 117 forest in places accessible by foot or by canoe. The people of both communities 118 prefer soils that are sandy. The Wayanas also prefer dark soils. Both people 119 avoid valleys. In each abattis all tree trunks and saplings are cut, except those 120 kept as holy trees. The felled trees are allowed to dry. Some wood is taken for 121 timber and cooking, and the rest is burned and its residues left on the field. 122 Manioc cuttings, from previous crop, are planted after resprouting. The soil is 123 not cultivated, but excavated locally to plant the cuttings and then refilled with a 124 hoe. The aspect of the site is used to select places proper for burying manioc

125 cuttings. Hollows in the undulating terrain are often used for bananas or rice. 126 The main differences between Aluku and Wayana practices lie in the duration of 127 the crop. Each year Alukus cut and burn new abattis around the village, 128 whereas the Wayanas use the same abattis for two or three years, the precise 129 duration depending on the soil's fertility and the spontaneous establishment and 130 resprouting of vegetation, then shift to another place. They weed only by hand 131 during the first four months following manioc planting, and they do not use 132 herbicides, pesticides or fertilizers.

133

134 The climate is warm (mean annual temperature 26°C) and rainy (2000 135 mm per year), with a main dry season from September to December and a 136 shorter one from March to April. Table 1 lists the main physico-chemical 137 properties of the topsoil (Oxisol) which was sampled in the study plots. At both 138 sites the soil was sandy and acidic, although slightly less acidic in Maripasoula (pH~5.0) than at Elahe (pH~4.7). The soil was air-dried before transport to the 139 140 laboratory for chemical analyses. Soil pH was measured electrometrically on a 141 1:2.5 soil:water mixture. Total C and N were measured by the dry combustion 142 method after hydrochloric dissolution of carbonates according to ISO 10694 and 143 ISO 13878, respectively (Anonymous, 1999).

144

145 Soil micromorphology: the small-volume method

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147 We studied the distribution of humus components and biogenic structures in 148 topsoil by small-volume micromorphology *sensu* Bernier & Ponge (1994), 149 further refined for biogenic structures by Peltier *et al.* (2001) and adapted by us

to agricultural soils (Topoliantz *et al.*, 2000). This optical method allows one to
identify and estimate the proportion of solid components in successive layers of
a given soil profile. Combined with multivariate methods, it can be used to
compare soil profiles along gradients (Peltier *et al.*, 2001; Frak & Ponge, 2002;
Sadaka & Ponge, 2003) and in vegetation patchworks (Patzel & Ponge, 2001).

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Five samples for micromorphological analyses and five samples for physico-chemical analyses were taken in each of the five study plots. They were regularly spaced along a 30-m transect crossing the centre of each plot. This allowed us to embrace within-plot variation while avoiding edge effects.

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161 For micromorphological investigations we took soil blocks 7 cm x 7 cm x 162 6 cm (length x width x height) which we shaped with a sharp knife without 163 disturbing litter nor soil structure. Then we separated the top 5 cm by hand in 164 successive layers 0.5 to 3 cm thick according to their appearance, which we 165 considered homogeneous. Each layer was immediately fixed in 95% ethyl 166 alcohol then transported to the laboratory for further analysis. In the immediate 167 vicinity of each sampling plot another sample (10 cm deep) was taken, air-dried 168 as soon as possible before transport to the laboratory for physico-chemical 169 analyses. A total of 251 layers (for micromorphological analyses) and 25 topsoil 170 profiles (for physico-chemical analyses) were sampled.

171

The material from each layer was gently spread in a Petri dish (150 mm diameter), with as little disturbance of the aggregates as possible, and then covered with alcohol. Ethyl alcohol precipitates colloids, thereby helping to

175 preserve aggregates, provided they are not crushed by forcing them with an 176 instrument. We observed each layer under a dissecting microscope after 177 covering the layer of solid matter with a transparent 600-pt grid, which we had 178 previously prepared by piercing a transparency film at nodes of a 5-mm grid. 179 Following dot lines under the dissecting microscope and changing the focusing 180 plane every time a dot was encountered, each element which was located just 181 below a node of the grid was identified then counted. This method allowed us to 182 estimate the relative volume of components of the soil matrix, including plant 183 organs at varying stages of development (for subterranean organs) or 184 decomposition, mineral particles of varying size and nature, aggregates of 185 varying colour, size and shape. The Munsell® code for soil colours was used to 186 classify colours of aggregates into five broad classes (light, light brown, brown, 187 light grey, grey, black).

188

189 Data analysis

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Micromorphological data were analysed by correspondence analysis, CA (Greenacre, 1984). The matrix analysed crossed 81 layers (as columns) and 82 classes (as rows). Additional (passive) variables were added as rows, in order (i) to facilitate the interpretation of the factor axes, and (ii) to discern mean trends in the vertical distribution of humus components in the five plots studied. They comprised the five plots (MA, MF, EA, EF, EFB) and, for each plot, five depth levels (0-1 cm, 1-2 cm, 2-3 cm, 3-4 cm, 4-5 cm).

198

199 Results

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201 Table 2 lists the 82 classes that were identified under the dissecting 202 microscope. The projection of classes (topsoil components) in the plane of the 203 first two factor axes of the CA (11% and 8% of total variance, respectively) 204 displayed three branches (Figure 1). The percentages of variance extracted by 205 axes 1 and 2 (19%) far exceeded the confidence interval given by random 206 permutation of rows and columns (Lebart et al., 1979), thus giving us 207 confidence in the significance of these two axes. Axis 1 separated classes 208 typical of woody sites (EF and MF, with positive values) from those typical of 209 clearings (EA, EFB and MA, with negative values). Axis 2 separated EA (with 210 positive values) from MA (with negative values), EFB being intermediate. The 211 woody sites (EF and MF) were characterized by moss, leaf and wood litter at 212 varying stages of decomposition, as well as a variety of holorganic (purely 213 organic) faeces of arthropod origin (caterpillars, millipedes, springtails, mites, 214 miscellaneous). Abattis (EA, EFB, MA) were characterized by annelid 215 (earthworm, enchytraeid) faeces and ant pellets with varying carbon contents, 216 charcoal (free or incorporated to faeces), roots and mineral particles. Within this 217 group, the Elahe abattis (EA) was distinguished by the part played by dark 218 (black, dark brown, dark grey) hemorganic material, and charred roots.

219

220 Changes in the vertical distribution of topsoil components were shown by 221 the projection of depth indicators in the plane of Axes 1 and 2 of CA (Figure 2). 222 At some depth (varying from 2 cm in MA to 3 or 4 cm in other plots) all sampled 223 layers exhibited similar features, factor coordinates being negative both for axes

224 1 and 2. Prominent differences between plots were exhibited mostly in the top 1 225 cm of the soil. The composition of the top centimetre in MA did not differ to a 226 great extent from that of forest soils (MF and EF), both showing positive values 227 along axis 1, although differences between surface and deeper soil were much 228 less pronounced in MA, because there was less litter (Figure 2). In contrast, at 229 Elahe the top 2 cm of the soil was strongly affected by the shift to agriculture 230 (EA, EFB to a lesser extent), exhibiting positive and slightly negative values 231 along axis 2, respectively.

232

233 Mean values for the top 5 cm of the soil can be calculated for each class 234 and each profile and averaged over the five profiles taken at each plot, giving 235 mean values for the five plots (Table 2). The correspondence analysis displayed 236 some trends common to gross classes (leaf material, charred material, 237 charcoal, black and dark humus). These were compared between the five plots 238 (Table 3). It appears that leaf material was at least 4 times more abundant in 239 woody sites (MF and EF) than in abattis (MA, EA, EFB), each of these groups 240 being fairly homogeneous. In particular, the topsoil of older abattis (EA, MA) 241 had the same leaf litter content than the recently burnt forest (EFB).

242

Slash-and-burn agriculture increased the content of the topsoil in black and dark hemorganic humus by a factor of 8 at Maripasoula. This class was 11 times more abundant at Elahe (EF) than at Maripasoula (MF) woody sites and remained 6 times more abundant at Elahe (EA) than in the abattis at Maripasoula (MA). Differences in the charcoal content of the topsoil were not so pronounced. Charcoal was less abundant in EF than in all other plots, the

highest value being observed in MA (almost 2 times the value observed in EA).
Charred material was most abundant in the recently burnt forest (EFB), where it
was 2.6 times more abundant than in the nearby untouched forest (EF). The
least amount of charred material was in the Maripasoula woody fallow (MF).

253

254 The mean vertical distribution of these bulk classes is apparent in Figure 255 3. The leaf material, which was more abundant in woody sites (EF and MF) than 256 in abattis, disappeared rapidly in the top 2 cm of the soil in all plots. The charred 257 material, which was abundant at the soil surface in the two abattis at Elahe (EA, 258 EFB), decreased with depth in these two plots. However, it disappeared much 259 less rapidly than did the leaf material. In the other three plots, it increased 260 progressively down to 1.5 to 2 cm, then decreased progressively. The vertical 261 distribution of charcoal was similar to that of charred material in the recently 262 burnt forest and in the cultivated abattis at Elahe, decreasing abruptly from 1.5 263 to 2.5 cm, then more progressively below this depth. In the Elahe forest (EF), 264 there was a progressive increase in charcoal content from the surface to 2-3 265 cm, but the content remained very small. At Maripasoula (MA and MF), more 266 charcoal had accumulated below 2.5 cm. In the abattis (MA), it reached on 267 average 10% of the total solid matter at 2.5 cm, then decreased progressively. 268 In the Maripasoula forest (MF) the charcoal content increased progressively, 269 from 0 at the surface to a maximum of 6% from 3 to 5 cm. Over this depth 270 range, there was no difference in charcoal content between the 8-year-old 271 woody fallow and the abattis. Black and dark humus was much more abundant 272 in Elahe abattis (EA, EFB) than in all other plots. It was already present as a 273 large proportion of total soil volume near the soil surface, reaching 9% and 6%

274 of the total solid matter in EA and EFB, respectively. The proportion remained 275 constant to 2 cm, then decreased progressively with increasing depth.

276

277 Discussion

278

279 Pronounced differences according to agricultural use of the rain forest were 280 revealed by the biological material (leaf litter, charcoal and charred material, 281 dark humus) which had accumulated in the topsoil. Biological activity in the soil 282 was strongly affected by clearing of the forest. We registered a change from the 283 activity of arthropods other than ants, as exemplified by the content in the 284 topsoil of the faeces of caterpillars, millipedes, springtails and mites, to a 285 community dominated by annelids and ants. The latter is characterized by (i) 286 the incorporation of organic matter to mineral matter within earthworm and 287 enchytraeid faeces and ant pellets, (ii) the building of an hemorganic humus 288 profile (Figure 1). This pattern accords with the more even distribution of carbon 289 in the topsoil after deforestation and cultivation observed in Amazonian soils by 290 Nascimento et al. (1993). Our results point on the role of burrowing animals, 291 namely earthworms, enchytraeids and ants, in this process. We did not record 292 any faecal deposition by termites, although many termites are present in the 293 soil. The incorporation of organic matter in mineral matter by tropical 294 earthworms helps to stabilize organic matter, and associated water and 295 nutrients (Lavelle et al., 1998). Mutualistic interactions between earthworms and 296 soil microbes (in particular the priming effect by intestinal mucus) were reasons 297 to classify these animals as ecosystem engineers (Lavelle et al., 1997). 298 Earthworms, in association with additions of organic matter, have been used for

the bioremediation of tropical agricultural soils, increasing plant productivity and creating a stable soil structure (Pashanasi *et al.*, 1996; Brown *et al.*, 1999; Hallaire *et al.*, 2000). Ants, and moreover enchytraeids, are not widely recognized as promoting greater soil aggregation and stability, at least in the tropical world (Delabie & Fowler, 1995; Römbke & Meller, 1999). However, we found that earthworm faeces tunnelled by enchytraeids contributed noticeably to the total solid matter in the first 5 cm of the topsoil (Table 2).

306

307 Charcoal and charred material contributed substantially to the soil (Figure 308 3). This material accumulates in the topsoil, unlike leaf material (Figure 3). It is 309 also incorporated into a variety of black and dark hemorganic faeces of 310 earthworms, and into ant pellets (Table 2). In a previous paper (Topoliantz & 311 Ponge, 2003), we showed experimentally that the peregrine earthworm 312 Pontoscolex corethrurus could ingest small particles of charcoal and mix them 313 with the mineral soil, then deposit dark excrement at varying depths. This 314 activity is at the origin of a variety of dark colours of soil aggregates, which 315 contain charcoal powdered by the earthworm gizzard then mixed in a liquid manner in the intestine (Barois et al., 1993). We also observed that ants 316 317 produced dark, even black, material (Table 2), but this material could come from 318 ingested earthworm faeces of the same colour.

319

There was more black and dark humus and charred material and less charcoal in the 3-year-old abattis at Elahe than in the 1-year-old abattis at Maripasoula. These differences can be due (i) to a larger production of charcoal at Maripasoula where repeated burning (short fallow) leads to an accumulation

324 of charcoal in the course of the time (Van der Wal, 1999), and (ii) to a better 325 incorporation of charcoal and charred material in the mineral soil at Elahe, as 326 shown by our micromorphological data. Indeed, charred material and charcoal 327 decreased from EFB (fire 6 months before) to EA (fire 3 years before) while 328 black and dark humus increased during the same period. This suggests that 329 both charcoal and charred material are sources of black and dark humus 330 (Figure 3). At Maripasoula, the content of the black and dark humus in the 331 topsoil was always small and charcoal accumulated, revealing the slow turnover 332 of this type of carbon.

333

The origin of the fertile Terra Preta, or Amazonian Dark Earths, has been 334 335 attributed to the incorporation of charcoal to the mineral soil, as a source of 336 stable humus, once charcoal carbon becomes oxidized and chemically 337 reorganized (Glaser et al., 1998). Past bioturbation, in vanished civilizations of 338 the Amazon Basin, has been postulated to explain the present-day enrichment 339 of the soil in black carbon of charcoal origin at 30-40 cm depth (Glaser et al., 340 2000; Glaser & Woods, 2004). We can now explain this phenomenon by the 341 charcoal-feeding activity of earthworms such as P. corethrurus, which are 342 abundant in Amazonian pastures and forest clearings (Römbke & Verhaag, 343 1992). The fact that black and dark hemorganic material was almost absent 344 from the soil in the old forest, then increased in the recently burnt forest, then 345 still further increased after 3 years of cultivation at Elahe (Figure 3), probably 346 indicates that the process of incorporation is rapid, provided earthworms are 347 sufficiently active, as observed in Elahe. In previous experiments we also 348 showed that dark hemorganic humus (artificially made by mixing charcoal with

the mineral soil) was even ingested to a greater extent that pure charcoal,
pointing on a positive feed-back (self-reinforcing) effect (Topoliantz & Ponge,
2005).

352

353 Our study shows that traditional shifting cultivation, as currently practised 354 by Wayana Amerindians, causes charcoal and charred material to become well 355 incorporated into the soil and to change gradually into stable humus. This 356 probably occurred in the past to a much larger extent in the Amazonian basin 357 (Glaser & Woods, 2004). Prior to burning the forest, Wayana cultivators select 358 darker soils (personal communication with local agriculturists). The dark colour 359 of the topsoil is probably caused by past fires that enriched the soil with stable 360 carbon, through earthworm activity. This preference for soils containing 361 incorporated charcoal reinforces the positive feed-back loop already mentioned. 362 At Maripasoula, the accumulation of charcoal in depth and the guasi absence of 363 black and dark humus in the 8-years-old forest (MF) suggest that more than 8 364 years are probably needed for complete incorporation of charcoal in dark 365 humus. Frequent fires and short cultivation periods must not allow for a 366 complete incorporation of charcoal by soil fauna, limiting to the short-term the 367 fertilizing effect of burning the forest.

368

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370

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- 512 Figure headings
- 513

Figure 1. Correspondence analysis (CA). Projection of active variables (humus classes, see Table 2) and passive variables (plot indicators) in the plane of the first two factorial axes. MA = Maripasoula Abattis, MF = Maripasoula Fallow, EA = Elahe Abattis, EF = Elahe Forest, EFB = Elahe 518 Forest Burnt

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Figure 2. Correspondence analysis (CA). Projection of depth indicators (for
each plot and each depth) in the plane of the first two factorial axes.
Successive sampling depths are shown at cm intervals. The top cm has
been labelled, the lower samples follow the lines. Abbreviations as for
Figure 1

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Figure 3. Mean vertical distribution of gross categories of humus components in
the five studied plots. Each point is the mean of five values from five
topsoil profiles. Abbreviations as for Figure 1

| | Maripasoula Abattis | Maripasoula Fallow | Elahe Abattis | Elahe Forest | Elahe Forest Burnt |
|----------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| | MA | MF | EA | EF | EFB |
| Clay/% | 22.4 (20.4-25.3) | 16.9 (13.7-20) | 20 (6.6-31.3) | 17.5 (15.5-19.1) | 16.8 (14.9-18.3) |
| Silt/% | 12.4 (9.5-17.4) | 7.9 (7-9.2) | 20.9 (13.2-32.8) | 8.7 (7.1-9.6) | 9.2 (7.6-10.3) |
| Sand/% | 65.1 (58.8-69.7) | 75.2 (72.3-78.7) | 59.1 (35.9-80.2) | 73.8 (71.4-76.7) | 74 (72.1-76.4) |
| рН | 5.13 (5.02-5.37) | 5.01 (4.6-5.66) | 4.74 (4.37-4.91) | 4.83 (4.58-5) | 4.30 (3.79-5.59) |
| Total C/g.kg ⁻¹ | 24.6 (16.9-39.8) | 22.5 (18.6-28.4) | 25.8 (16.3-36.3) | 19.1 (14.7-25.3) | 18.6 (17.9-19.7) |
| Total N/g.kg ⁻¹ | 1.65 (1.21-2.49) | 1.48 (1.28-1.88) | 1.78 (1.29-2.4) | 1.39 (1.12-1.7) | 1.35 (1.33-1.38) |
| C/N | 14.7 (13.2-16) | 15.2 (14.5-15.7) | 14.6 (12.6-16.1) | 13.7 (12.8-14.9) | 13.7 (13.3-14.3) |
| | | | | | |

 Table 1. Main physico-chemical features of the five study sites. Data are means of five topsoils followed by

 minimum and maximum values. Charcoal carbon was included in total C

| Table 2. List of classes identified under the dissecting microscope with code number and mean percent volume of the topsoil (0-5 cm) |) |
|--|----|
| matrix in the five studied sites (5 profiles each). MA = Maripasoula Abattis, MF = Maripasoula Fallow, EA = Elahe Abattis, EF = Ela | he |
| Forest, EFB = Elahe Forest Burnt | |

| Code | Short description | MA | MF | EA | EF | EFB | Axis 1 of CA | Axis 2 of CA |
|----------|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1 | Entire brown leaves | 0.79 | 1.06 | 0.17 | 1.19 | 0.21 | 0.037 | -0.002 |
| 2 | Entire brown-orange leaves | 0.59 | 5.03 | 0.05 | 3.58 | 0.18 | 0.037 | -0.002 |
| 3 4 | Entire bleached leaves | 0.10 | 3.77 | 0.39 | 2 70 | 0.04 | 0.032 | -0.003 |
| 5 | Entire blackened leaves | 0.12 | 2 09 | 0.24 | 0.34 | 0.12 | 0.000 | -0.002 |
| 6 | Brown leaves nibbled by macrofauna | 0.93 | 1.27 | 1.00 | 1.86 | 0.81 | 0.031 | 0.009 |
| 7 | Brown-orange leaves nibbled by macrofauna | 0.63 | 3.37 | 1.25 | 3.24 | 0.25 | 0.036 | 0.002 |
| 8 | Red leaves nibbled by macrofauna | 0.66 | 0.55 | 0.91 | 0.69 | 0.21 | 0.026 | -0.004 |
| 9 | Bleached leaves nibbled by macrofauna | 0.11 | 1.62 | 0.08 | 1.36 | 0.37 | 0.033 | -0.003 |
| 10 | Blackened leaves nibbled by macrofauna | 0.36 | 0.20 | 0.43 | 1.06 | 0.28 | 0.017 | 0.003 |
| 11 | Skeletonized leaves | 0.01 | 0.27 | 0.02 | 2.00 | 0.03 | 0.030 | -0.003 |
| 12 | Fungi | 2.20 | 2.08 | 2.29 | 1.52 | 2.12 | -0.017 | -0.006 |
| 13 | MOSS Decaving stem/bark | 2.53 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.09 | 0.02 | 0.021 | -0.003 |
| 14 | Miscellaneous plant material | 2.55 | 0.94 | 1.10 | 1.05 | 0.90 | 0.010 | 0.000 |
| 16 | Miscellaneous charred material | 1.46 | 0.51 | 1.73 | 2.54 | 6.14 | -0.001 | 0.012 |
| 17 | Free charcoal | 4.94 | 2.35 | 1.88 | 1.05 | 3.90 | -0.007 | 0.005 |
| 18 | Living fine roots (< 2 mm) | 10.06 | 17.84 | 13.15 | 13.14 | 13.62 | -0.019 | 0.000 |
| 19 | Living medium roots (2-4 mm) | 1.44 | 2.36 | 1.01 | 2.69 | 2.06 | -0.016 | -0.010 |
| 20 | Living large roots (> 4 mm) | 1.74 | 1.70 | 0.63 | 1.92 | 1.36 | -0.001 | -0.011 |
| 21 | Dead fine roots (< 2 mm) | 2.05 | 0.81 | 2.93 | 2.46 | 2.54 | -0.022 | 0.016 |
| 22 | Dead medium roots (2-4 mm) | 0.62 | 0.08 | 0.66 | 0.48 | 0.80 | -0.017 | 0.005 |
| 23 | Dead large roots (> 4 mm) Charred fine roots (> 2 mm) | 0.14 | 0.04 | 0.40 | 0.28 | 0.44 | -0.007 | -0.009 |
| 24 | Charled fine foots (< 2 filli) Charled medium roots (2.4 mm) | 0.44 | 0.04 | 2.52 | 0.72 | 2.10 | -0.009 | 0.015 |
| 25 | Charred large roots (> 4 mm) | 0.06 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 0.29 | 0.00 | -0.008 | 0.011 |
| 20 | Type I bolorganic macrofauna faeces | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.27 | -0.007 | -0.007 |
| 28 | Holorganic caterpillar faeces | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.009 | -0.002 |
| 29 | Holorganic millipede faeces | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.06 | 0.010 | -0.001 |
| 30 | Holorganic earthworm faeces | 0.13 | 0.00 | 1.04 | 0.24 | 0.52 | -0.001 | 0.018 |
| 31 | Holorganic enchytraeid faeces | 0.05 | 0.06 | 2.48 | 0.47 | 0.08 | 0.004 | 0.012 |
| 32 | Holorganic springtail faeces | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.02 | 0.019 | 0.007 |
| 33 | Holorganic mite faeces | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.14 | 0.01 | 0.016 | -0.005 |
| 34 | Enchytraeid-crumbled holorganic earthworm faeces | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.39 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.002 | 0.003 |
| 35 | Miscellaneous holorganic faecal material | 0.20 | 0.24 | 0.46 | 0.89 | 0.36 | 0.034 | 0.003 |
| 36 | Light recent hemorganic earthworm faeces | 7.89 | 2.52 | 7.86 | 0.22 | 1.35 | -0.009 | -0.015 |
| 37 | Brown recent nemorganic earthworm faeces | 6.71 | 1.11 | 10.19 | 0.75 | 2.51 | -0.011 | -0.009 |
| 30 | Light-gray recent hemorganic earthworm faeces | 0.05 | 6.98 | 0.73 | 0.06 | 0.42 | -0.009 | -0.020 |
| 40 | Dark-gray recent hemorganic earthworm faeces | 0.08 | 0.30 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.11 | -0.012 | 0.030 |
| 41 | Light old hemorganic earthworm faeces | 5.93 | 1.34 | 4.29 | 5.03 | 6.02 | -0.016 | -0.019 |
| 42 | Brown old hemorganic earthworm faeces | 7.65 | 4.69 | 4.00 | 6.84 | 9.26 | -0.019 | -0.019 |
| 43 | Dark-brown old hemorganic earthworm faeces | 0.21 | 0.00 | 0.18 | 0.34 | 0.32 | -0.004 | -0.007 |
| 44 | Light-gray old hemorganic earthworm faeces | 1.73 | 3.33 | 0.31 | 0.30 | 0.32 | -0.004 | -0.015 |
| 45 | Dark-gray old hemorganic earthworm faeces | 0.25 | 0.06 | 0.03 | 0.22 | 0.56 | -0.007 | -0.010 |
| 46 | Black hemorganic earthworm faeces | 0.22 | 0.01 | 1.47 | 0.19 | 1.58 | -0.004 | 0.028 |
| 47 | Light enchytraeid-crumbled hemorganic earthworm faeces | 2.88 | 0.52 | 2.58 | 5.09 | 2.77 | -0.018 | -0.020 |
| 48 | Light-gray enchytraeid-crumbled hemorganic earthworm faces | 0.12 | 0.91 | 0.04 | 0.14 | 0.03 | 0.000 | -0.014 |
| 49 50 | Drown enchytraeid-crumbled hemorganic earthworm faeces | 2.00 | 3.07 | 4.59 | 0.08 | 4.05 | -0.020 | -0.012 |
| 51 | Dark-gray enchytraeid-crumbled hemorganic earthworm faeces | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.02 | 0.08 | 0.03 | -0.001 | 0.007 |
| 52 | Black enchytraeid-crumbled hemorganic earthworm faeces | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.62 | 0.02 | 0.04 | -0.004 | 0.013 |
| 53 | Light hemorganic ant pellets | 0.14 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.06 | 0.09 | -0.009 | -0.012 |
| 54 | Brown hemorganic ant pellets | 0.08 | 0.00 | 0.18 | 0.23 | 0.19 | -0.012 | 0.001 |
| 55 | Dark-brown hemorganic ant pellets | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.005 | -0.005 |
| 56 | Light-gray hemorganic ant pellets | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | -0.001 | -0.003 |
| 57 | Dark-gray hemorganic ant pellets | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.001 | -0.002 |
| 58 | Black hemorganic ant pellets | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.17 | 0.02 | 0.02 | -0.008 | 0.032 |
| 59 | Hemorganic springtail faeces | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.06 | 0.01 | 0.009 | -0.002 |
| 60 | Light friable hemorganic material | 1.13 | 0.56 | 2.16 | 2.46 | 1.04 | -0.008 | -0.019 |
| 61 | Brown friable hemorganic material | 0.87 | 1.98 | 2.53 | 0.87 | 0.89 | -0.008 | -0.019 |
| 62 62 | Light grow friable hemorganic material | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.08 | 0.00 | 0.02 | -0.011 | 0.029 |
| 64 | Light-gray mable hemorganic material | 0.05 | 0.72 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.010 | -0.013 |
| 65 | Plack friable homorganic material | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.17 | 0.03 | 0.00 | -0.005 | 0.000 |
| 66 | Light compacted bemorganic material | 3.00 | 0.00 | 0.15 | 0.01 | 0.40 | -0.005 | -0.018 |
| 67 | Brown compacted hemorganic material | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.003 | 0.007 |
| 68 | Dark-brown compacted hemorganic material | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.007 | 0.032 |
| 69 | Light-gray compacted hemorganic material | 0.18 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.003 | -0.007 |
| 70 | Dark-gray compacted hemorganic material | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.11 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.009 | 0.029 |
| 71 | Black compacted hemorganic material | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.008 | 0.032 |
| 72 | Charcoal embedded in faeces | 2.46 | 1.28 | 1.20 | 0.38 | 0.93 | -0.013 | -0.002 |
| 73 | Humified plant material embedded in faeces | 0.52 | 0.47 | 0.70 | 0.38 | 0.35 | -0.011 | -0.021 |
| 74 | Fine sand (0.02-0.2 mm) | 3.60 | 3.45 | 3.83 | 4.64 | 5.59 | -0.022 | 0.001 |
| 75 | Coarse sand ((0.2-2 mm) | 11.03 | 8.37 | 4.63 | 14.29 | 16.60 | -0.028 | -0.016 |
| 76 | Gravel (2-20 mm) | 1.08 | 1.29 | 0.41 | 0.50 | 1.15 | -0.017 | -0.015 |
| 77 | Boulder (> 20 mm) | 0.41 | 0.42 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.004 | -0.010 |
| 78 | Iron nodules | 1.71 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | -0.004 | -0.010 |
| 79 | Mianganese nodules | 0.20 | 0.00 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.03 | -0.006 | -0.013 |
| 8U 01 | Miscellaneous minerals | 0.28 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.03 | -0.005 | -0.013 |
| 01 82 | Living and dead faulta | 0.24 | 0.08 | 0.14 | 0.17 | 0.01 | 0.001 | -0.018 |
| 44 | | | | | | | 31 311/ | |

Table 3. Mean percent by volume of some main components of the topsoil (0-5 cm) matrix. Data are means of fiveprofiles followed by minimum and maximum values. MA = Maripasoula Abattis, MF = Maripasoula Fallow, EA = ElaheAbattis, EF = Elahe Forest, EFB = Elahe Forest Burnt

| | MA | MF | EA | EF | EFB |
|----------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Leaf material | 4.66 (1.48-9.94) | 19.30 (10.7-27) | 4.63 (0.8-11) | 19.50 (16.3-22.8) | 2.59 (0.17-6.58) |
| Charred material | 1.96 (0.27-3.78) | 0.55 (0.14-1.24) | 7.39 (2.33-19.41) | 3.60 (1.75-6.12) | 9.39 (6.17-14.84) |
| Charcoal | 7.40 (2.73-14.52) | 3.63 (1.38-5.5) | 3.08 (1.56-4.45) | 1.43 (0.47-2.58) | 4.83 (1.71-9.43) |
| Black and dark humus | 0.89 (0.39-1.82) | 0.11 (0-0.27) | 5.71 (1.11-10.76) | 1.19 (0.12-2.2) | 3.65 (1.09-8.43) |
| | | | | | |







