$See \ discussions, stats, and author \ profiles \ for \ this \ publication \ at: \ https://www.researchgate.net/publication/237242633$

Organic Matter Dynamics and Carbon Sequestration Rates for a Tillage Chronosequence in a Brazilian Oxisol

Article in Soil Science Society of America Journal · January 2001

DOI: 10.2136/sssaj2001.6551486x

CITATIONS	5	READS	
288		944	
7 autho	rs, including:		
	João Carlos De Moraes Sá		Warren A Dick
	State University of Ponta Grossa	No.	The Ohio State University
	84 PUBLICATIONS 2,371 CITATIONS		271 PUBLICATIONS 8,073 CITATIONS
	SEE PROFILE		SEE PROFILE
	Rattan Lal		Solismar de Paiva Venzke Filho
E.	Dhio State University		Rotar - Crop Production System
	1,191 PUBLICATIONS 57,792 CITATIONS		10 PUBLICATIONS 380 CITATIONS
	SEE PROFILE		SEE PROFILE

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



Professional Activities View project

Project Gypsum View project

Water Erosion Prediction Project: Hillslope profile and watershed model documentation. USDA-ARS-MWA-SWCS, West Lafa-yette, IN.

Owens, L.B., and J.P. Watson. 1979. Rates of weathering and soil formation on granite in Rhodesia. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 43:160–166.

Salviano, A.A.C., S.R. Vieira, and G. Sparovek. 1998. Erosion intensity and *Crotalaria juncea* yield on a Southeast Brazilian ultisol. Adv. GeoEcol. 31:369–374.

Skidmore, E.L. 1982. Soil loss tolerance. p. 87–93. In Determinants of soil loss tolerance. ASA Spec. Publ. 45. ASA, Madison, WI.

Soil Survey Staff. 1990. Keys to soil taxonomy. 4th ed. SMSS Tech. Mono. No. 19. Virginia Polytechnic Inst. and State Univ., Blacksburg, VA.

Sparovek, G. 1998. Influence of organic matter and soil fauna on

crop productivity and soil restoration after simulated erosion. Adv. GeoEcol. 31:431–434.

- Sparovek, G., and Q. de Jong van Lier. 1997. Definition of tolerable soil erosion values. Rev. bras. Cienc. Solo 21:467–471.
- Sparovek, G., M.M. Weill, S.B.L. Ranieri, E. Schnug, and E.F. Silva. 1997. The life-time concept as a tool for erosion tolerance definition. Sci. Agric. 54:130–135.
- Sparovek, G., M.R. Lambais, A.P. Silva, and C.A. Tormena. 1999. Earthworm (*Pontoscolex corethrurus*) and organic matter effects on the reclamation of an eroded oxisol. Pedobiologia 43:698–704. Stamey, W.L., and R.M. Smith. 1964. A conservation definition of
- erosion tolerance. Soil Sci. 97:183–186.
- Wakastsuki, T., and A. Rasyidin.1992. Rates of weathering and soil formation. Geoderma 52:251–263.

Organic Matter Dynamics and Carbon Sequestration Rates for a Tillage Chronosequence in a Brazilian Oxisol

João Carlos de M. Sá, Carlos C. Cerri, Warren A. Dick,* Rattan Lal, Solismar P. Venske Filho, Marisa C. Piccolo, and Brigitte E. Feigl

ABSTRACT

Amounts and rates of C sequestration under no-tillage are not known for a major ecological region of south Brazil. These were assessed in a Brazilian Oxisol under a plow and no-tillage chronosequence located in Paraná State. The chronosequence consisted of six treatments: (i) native field (NF); (ii) 1-yr plow conversion of native field to cropland (PNF-1); (iii) no-tillage for 10 yr (NT-10); (iv) no-tillage for 20 yr (NT-20); (v) no-tillage for 22 yr (NT-22); and (vi) conventional tillage for 22 yr (CT-22). Soil samples were collected from five depths. No-tillage, compared with the NF treatment, caused a significant increase in soil organic C (SOC) storage. More than 60% of this increase occurred in the 0- to 10-cm soil layer. There was a decrease in the amount of SOC in the CT-22 compared with the NF soil treatment and 97% of this loss also occurred in the 0- to 10-cm layer. There was a close relationship between the SOC content and the amount of crop residues input ($R^2 = 0.74$, $P \le 0.05$). There were increased SOC concentrations in the finer particle-size fractions (<20 $\mu m)$ of no-tillage surface soil compared with the NF or CT-22 soils. However, the percentage of SOC derived from crop residues in notillage treatments, as assessed by 13C natural abundance (δ), was generally greater in the coarse (>20 μ m) than in the finer (<20 μ m) particle-size fractions. The C sequestration rate for no-tillage was 80.6 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 0- to 20-cm depth and 99.4 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 0- to 40-cm depth. The no-tillage C sequestration potential for South Brazil was estimated as 9.37 Tg C yr⁻¹.

THE SOC POOL in the top 1-m depth of world soils ranges between 1462 and 1576 Pg. It is nearly three times that in the aboveground biomass and approximately double that in the atmosphere; 32% of this is

Published in Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 65:1486-1499 (2001).

contributed by soils in the tropics (Eswaran et al., 1993; Lal et al., 1995; Batjes, 1996).

Agricultural practices can render a soil either a sink or a source of the atmospheric CO_2 , with direct influence on the greenhouse effect (Lugo and Brown, 1993; Lal et al., 1995). The CO_2 contribution to radiative forcing is about 50%, and 22.9% of total CO_2 emissions to the atmosphere is attributed to agriculture, deforestation, and land use (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 1996).

In temperate zones, grassland soils tend to lose 30 to 50% of their original SOC content in the first 40 to 50 yr of cultivation (Campbell and Souster, 1982; Mann, 1985). In contrast, the SOC loss in tropical regions may be several times higher (Lal and Logan, 1995). In Northeast Brazil, Resck (1998) reported a SOC loss of 69% within 5 yr of cultivation by a heavy disk harrow in quartz sand (<15% clay content) and 49% in a Typic Hapludox—Dark Red Latosol (>30% clay content). Plowing decreases aggregate stability, disrupts macroaggregates and exposes SOC to microbial processes (Tisdall and Oades, 1982). As a consequence, the mineralization rates increase due to high aeration, resulting in high CO₂ flux to the atmosphere (Elliot, 1986; Reicosky et al., 1995).

Several reports have shown that crop residue mulch associated with no-tillage management improves soil aggregation and increases SOC content (Havlin et al., 1990; Carter, 1992; Cambardella and Elliot, 1992, 1993). However, this increase is generally restricted to the surface soil. Kern and Johnson (1993) reviewed data from 17 field studies comparing no-tillage with conventionaltillage plots in the USA, and observed that SOC gains

J.C.M. Sá, Universidade Estadual de Ponta Grossa, Cx. Postal 992/ 3, 84010-330, Ponta Grossa-PR, Brasil; C.C. Cerri, S.P. Venske Filho, M.C. Piccolo, and E. Feigl, Universidade de São Paulo-Centro de Energia Nuclear na Agricultura, Av. Centenário 303, 13416-970, Piracicaba-SP, Brasil; W.A. Dick, The Ohio State University, School of Natural Resources, 1680 Madison Avenue, Wooster, OH 44691; and R. Lal, The Ohio State University, School of Natural Resources, 2021 Coffey Rd., Columbus, OH 43210. Date Received 30 June 2000. *Corresponding author (dick.5@osu.edu).

Abbreviations: CT-22, conventional tillage for 22 yr; NF, native field; NT-10, no-tillage for 10 yr; NT-20, no-tillage for 20 yr; NT-22, no-tillage for 22 yr; PNF-1, 1-yr conversion of native field to cropland by plow tillage; SOC, Soil organic C; TN, total nitrogen; δ , natural abundance; *,**,***, Significant at the 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 probability levels, respectively.

were 27% for the 0- to 8-cm layer, 16% for the 8- to 15-cm layer, and no gains for depths >15 cm. In tropical zones, a significant impact on SOC concentrations has been observed for the 0- to 10-cm layer (Lal, 1976; Sá, 1993, p. 96; Resck, 1998; Bayer et al., 2000b).

The combination of determining size distribution of water stable aggregates, particle-size fractionation, and δ^{13} C techniques is a useful tool to investigate the relationship between crop-residue management and no-tillage on SOC dynamics (Balesdent et al., 2000; Havlin et al., 1990; Carter, 1992; Christensen, 1992; Cambardella and Elliot, 1994; Beare et al., 1994a; Jastrow et al., 1996; Rasmussen et al., 1998; Bayer et al., 2000a). In soils of the tropics, particle-size fractionation techniques have been used to characterize relationships between SOC and aggregation at the macro and microaggregate scale (Feller et al., 1996). The concept is that soil organic fractions associated with different sized particles differ in structure and function, and therefore play different roles in SOC turnover (Christensen, 1992). Developing such relationships is crucial to understanding the SOC dynamics, the effect of crop residues on the SOC pool and composition, and C-turnover time in soil. Bayer et al. (2000a, 2000b), using a particle-size fractionation technique combined with electron spin resonance and ¹³C nuclear magnetic resonance showed that, in southern Brazil, crop residues input from no-tillage and cropping systems resulted in a SOC sequestration rate of 1.33 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. They also reported that SOC associated with sand and silt fractions was less humified than that associated with the finer-size fractions. Nevertheless, there are also studies (Balesdent et al., 1987; Anderson and Paul, 1984; Oades et al., 1987; Six et al., 2000) reporting that the most humified or oldest faction is associated with silt particles.

There are few comparison between plow and no-tillage systems for SOC dynamics in oxisols that consider soil under natural vegetation as a base line representing the steady-state level. Obtaining data on base-line SOC pool is essential for understanding the magnitude of the SOC gain or losses because of the confounding effects of microbial respiration and soil erosion on SOC pool and fluxes. Information about SOC sequestration potential in a no-tillage chronosequence is rarely available, yet it is important for developing strategies for sustainable management of soils. In this study, a chronosequence is understood to mean a series of similar soils that differ from each other in certain properties primarily as a result of time.

This study evaluated the effects of a long-term notillage chronosequence in a Brazilian Oxisol on (i) SOC and total N (TN) contents in whole soil and in particlesize fractions, (ii) the amount of soil C derived from crop residues using the δ^{13} C technique, and (iii) SOC sequestration rates.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Site Descriptions

Field experiments were conducted at two research sites located near the towns of Tibagi (Santa Branca Farm) and Ponta Grossa (Frankanna Farm), in the South Center quadrant of Paraná State, Brazil (Table 1). The natural vegetation is a subtropical prairie dominated by C₄ species, i.e., some fire-resistant grasses such as Andropogon sp., Aristida sp., Paspalum sp., Panicum sp., and by subtropical gallery forests generally located in natural drainage channels (Maack, 1981). The landscape has long gentle slopes ranging from 2 to 7%. The parent material is comprised of clastic sediments of the Devonian period characterized by a mixture of Ponta Grossa shale and Furnas formation sandstone. These soils, classified as oxisols (Typic Hapludox), have a deep and very well structured profile, high porosity (with equal proportion of macro and microporosity) and very good internal drainage. The choice of these sites was based on the existence of a welldefined tillage chronosequence including the original undisturbed conditions (natural vegetation and soil properties). This chronosequence provided an opportunity to assess the impact of plowing and no-tillage on SOC dynamics. The sites were developed on the same parent material, soil type, landscape position (Table 1); have similar soil characteristics (Table 2); and have been managed with similar rotation and cultural practices.

Conversion of Natural Vegetation to Agricultural System and Treatments Description

A summary of when the Tibagi and Ponta Grossa sites were converted to cropland and the subsequent cropping history at each site is provided in Fig. 1.

The native grassland field at the Tibagi site, comprising of natural climax vegetation of the region, represents the NF treatment. In 1969, some of the NF area was converted to cropland by plowing to a 20-cm depth, and then tilling twice with a disk to break the clods. The acidity was corrected with application of 3.5 Mg ha⁻¹ of dolomite limestone (85% equivalent to pure CaCO₃) and P deficiency was corrected by addition of 117 kg ha⁻¹ of P₂O₅ (52 kg P). For 3 yr, this

Table 1. Location, climate, and soil of the two tillage chronosequence study sites.

		Sites					
Description	Parameters Latitude Longitude Altitude	Tibagi	Ponta Grossa				
Location		24°36′S 50°23′W 880 m	25°20′S 50°20′W 910 m				
Climate	Туре МАТ† МАР‡	mesothermic, wet subtropical, type cfb 20.7°C 1532 mm	mesothermic, wet subtropical, type cfb 18.7°C 1545 mm				
Soil	Type Texture Parent Material	Dark Red Latosol, Typic Hapludox Clayey Shale + Sandstone (Reworked material)	Dark Red Latosol, Typic Hapludox Clayey Shale + Sandstone (Reworked material)				

† MAT, Mean Annual Temperature.

‡ MAP, Mean Annual Precipitation.

		Depth	Treatments†					
Property			NF	PNF-1	NT-10	NT-20	NT-22	CT-22
		cm						
Chemical								
pH, 1:2.5 soil/water		0-20	4.9	5.6	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.0
1 /		20-40	5.0	4.7	5.7	5.3	5.2	4.9
Potential acidity, mmol. kg ⁻¹		0-20	97	132	42	62	51	5.3
		20-40	80	127	47	71	58	80
Exchangeable Al, mmol. kg ⁻¹		0-20	13	22	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.5
		20-40	9.7	37	2.0	4.0	3.0	5.0
Exchangeable Ca. mmol. kg ⁻¹		0-20	5.4	34	48	53	47	45
· · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		20-40	1.6	3.6	14	12	9.0	11
Exchangeable Mg, mmol. kg ⁻¹		0-20	1.7	22	19	22	21	22
Elicitarigenore hig, innote ng		20-40	1.0	2.0	7.0	5.0	6.0	6.0
Exchangeable K, mmol_kg ⁻¹		0-20	1.2	3.4	2.2	3.7	4.6	4.1
Exchangeable it, innoie kg		20-40	0.3	12	0.7	11	21	2.2
Effective cation-exchange canacity mmol kg^{-1}		0_20	105	179	109	137	123	124
Enecuve cation-exchange capacity, minor, kg		20-40	83	134	69	89	75	99
Available P ma ka^{-1}		0_20	63	15	24	35	73	27
Available 1, ing kg		20_40	3.0	50	40	4.0	40	3.0
Mineralogical		20 40	5.0	2.0		4.0	4.0	5.0
Clay fraction types y-rev ⁺		Ro1	Kaas	Kao	Kao	Kao		
Clay fraction types, x-ray+		DUI	Cib	Cib	Cib	Cib	Cib	
			Hom	Hom	Hom	Hom	Hom	-
			Coo	Соо	Cee	Cee	Соо	-
			Goe	Goe	Goe	Goe	Goe	-
TDA, %¶	Kao	Ар	17.6	16.8	16.0	11.5	14.1	-
	Gib	•	39.7	17.6	45.2	46.7	44.3	-
	Kao	Bo1	16.3	15.5	11.8	10.2	10.9	-
	Gib		39.4	20.8	38.4	46.4	37.4	-

Table 2. Chemical and mineralogical properties of the Brazilian oxisol (Dark Red Latosol) soil in the tillage chronosequence.

† NF, native field; PNF-1, 1 yr of conventional tillage of native field; NT-10, 10 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-20, 20 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-22, 22 yr of continuous no-tillage application; and CT-22, 22 yr of continuous application of conventional tillage. * x-ray analyses were applied to samples from the Bo1 horizon only.

§ Kao = Kaolinite, Gib = Gibbsite, Hem = Hematite, Goe = Goethite.

[] TDA = Thermal Differential Analyses results are given in percentages and are reported for the Ap and Bo1 horizons.

Table 3.	Fotal fertilizer inputs for each crop, total biomass, and
percent	tage of total biomass from various crops compared with
the tota	al dry biomass production for the no-tillage treatments
in a Br	azilian oxisol.

		Tot	al Fertili	Dry Mass		
Treatments	Crops	N	P_2O_5	K ₂ O	Total	Relative
			— kg	ha ⁻¹ —		%
NT-10‡	Soybean	_	285	326	21 900	23.9
	Oat§	_	_	_	25 500	27.8
	Corn	269	216	228	31 700	34.7
	Wheat	138	184	160	12 400	13.6
	Lupine§	-	-	-	_	_
	Lolium¶	-	-	-	_	_
	B. Bean	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	407	685	714	91 500#	100
	Annual input	40.7	68.5	71.4	9 150	-
NT-20††	Soybean	38	611	625	48 400	27.3
	Oat§	-	-	-	48 100	27.1
	Corn	383	350	363	55 700	31.5
	Wheat	222	511	333	20 200	11.4
	Lupine§	-	-	-	4 780	2.7
	Lolium¶	-	-	-	-	-
	B. Bean	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	643	1 470	1 320	177 000#	100
	Annual input	32.2	73.6	66.1	8 860	-
NT-22‡‡	Soybean	100	730	730	51 200	30.6
	Oat§	-	-	-	14 300	8.5
	Corn	541	531	513	55 900	33.4
	Wheat	190	735	735	32 200	19.2
	Lupine§	-	-	-	4 380	2.6
	Lolium¶	225	450	450	7 180	4.3
	B. Bean	55	75	75	2 380	1.4
	Total	1 110	2 521	2 503	167 000#	100
	Annual input	50.5	115	114	7 610	_

† Total fertilizer used for each crop.

§ Cultivated only for cover crop.

¶ Cultivated for silage.

Sum of aboveground biomass plus roots of each crop.

* NT-10, 10 yr of continuous no-tillage application.
 * NT-20, 20 yr of continuous no-tillage application.

‡‡ NT-22, 22 yr of continuous no-tillage application.

area was planted to rice (Oryza sativa L.) with plow tillage. Following for the next 7 yr, a rotation of soybean [Glycine max (L.) Merr.] in summer and wheat [Triticum aestivum L.] in winter was followed. During this total 10-yr period, lime was incorporated in the 0- to 20-cm soil layer three times at the rate of 2 Mg ha⁻¹. In 1979, 20 to 30% of the total area was converted to no-tillage and part of this area represents the NT-20 treatment. From 1979 to 1998, cropping during the summer season involved 15 crops of soybean and five of corn (Zea mays L.). During the winter season, wheat was cultivated six times, black oat (Avena sativa L.) 11 times and lupine (Lupinus angustifollios L.) twice. Both black oat and lupine were grown as cover crops.

In 1989 a border area, which had been converted to cropland at the same time as the NT-20 treatment, but after 2 yr was reverted back to fallow, was converted to no-tillage. This area represents the NT-10 treatment with prior history being 2 yr of cultivation and 8 yr of fallow prior to adoption of no-tillage. The fallow period represented a time when nothing was done to the soil. For the NT-22 treatment, lime was broadcast four times (two times for the NT-10 treatment) on the soil surface at a rate of 1.5 Mg ha⁻¹. Cropping during the summer season in this area consisted of seven crops of soybean and three of corn. Cropping during the winter season comprised of four crops of wheat and six of black oat.

Ånother site was converted to cropland in June 1996 and represents the plow tillage conversion of the native field (PNF-1). The conversion involved application of lime (3.5 Mg ha^{-1}) and triple superphosphate (140 or 72 kg ha^{-1} of P) incorporated to 20-cm depth by three separate disking operations. The conversion began 18 mo prior to sampling. The crops sown were soybean (October 1996), black oat (May 1997), and corn (September 1997).

The previous land use at the Ponta Grossa site (Frankanna Farm) was also natural vegetation and the conversion to agriculture was initiated in 1961 (Fig. 1). Soil management practices used during 1961 to 1976 were similar to those of the



Fig. 1. Schematic summarizing the various treatments applied to the soil at the Tibagi and Ponta Grossa sites, Brazil. Conventional tillage, CT and no-tillage, NT.

Tibagi site with the exception of two more years of rice crop before changing to a soybean–wheat rotation. In 1976, a tillage variable was imposed thus permitting comparison of NT-22 with CT-22. The latter involved plow tillage after summer harvest and again after winter harvest followed by two diskings to break the clods. Cropping during the summer season between 1976 until 1998 comprised of 15 crops of soybean, six of corn, and two of black bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). Black bean was not considered part of the regular rotation. Cropping during the winter season was comprised of 10 crops of wheat, four of black oat and one of lupine. Winter ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum* Lam.) was sown during the last four seasons and removed as forage. Also, this area received liquid cattle manure at the rate of 15 to 20 m³ ha⁻¹ in 1996 and 1997.

At both sites, the 3-yr crop rotation generally was as follows: wheat-soybean—Year 1; black oat-soybean—Year 2; and black oat-corn—Year 3. Two crops per each year corresponded to winter and summer seasons, respectively. Specific details of no-tillage treatments, fertilizers used, total dry biomass (aboveground + root dry biomass) production, and the percentage of dry biomass contributed by each crop in the crop rotation are summarized in Table 3. The aboveground dry biomass was estimated from an index based on the grain yield/shoot ratio. The index was 0.9 for soybean, 1.0 for corn, and 1.0 for wheat. The aboveground biomass for each crop was estimated by multiplying the grain yield by the respective index. The same technique was used to estimate the root dry biomass. The index to obtain root dry biomass for each crop was 0.2 for soybean, 0.25 for corn, 0.2 for wheat, and 0.3 for oat. The data obtained from the grain yield was multiplied by the root index to estimate total root biomass. Total biomass was calculated as the sum of shoot and root biomass.

Experimental Design and Sampling

The experimental design consisted of six treatments in a no-tillage chronosequence. Duration of plow tillage and notillage were assigned as whole plots and the sampling depth as subplots as per a split-plot. The chronosequence treatments were: (i) NF, (ii) PNF-1, (iii) NT-10, (iv) NT-20, (v) NT-22, and (vi) CT-22. The dimension of each chronosequence area was 200 by 50 m. Five subareas, each 40 by 50 m, were marked for subsequent sampling. Soil samples were collected from four sites (NF, PNF-1, NT-10, and NT-20) in May 1998 and from two sites (CT-22 and NT-22) in November 1998. Soil samples for each subarea were obtained by digging nine profiles of 20 by 50 (surface area) by 50 cm deep. Samples were collected from five depths (0–2.5, 2.5–5, 5–10, 10–20, and 20–40 cm) and a composite sample from all subareas was obtained for each depth.

Soil Chemical and Mineralogical Analyses for Characterization of Soil Profiles

Soil pH was measured using a 1:2.5 ratio of soil/0.01 M CaCl₂ solution (EMBRAPA, 1979). The potential acidity was determined using a 0.01 M calcium acetate solution buffered at pH 7.0 (EMBRAPA, 1979). The exchangeable Al³⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, and available P were extracted using a cation- and anion-exchange resin (Raij and Quaggio, 1983, p. 31). The cation-exchange capacity (CEC) was obtained by summing the value of potential acidity and the exchangeable cations. The Bo1 horizon was sampled for each site to identify the clay material by x-ray diffraction (Jackson, 1966, p. 849). Relative quantities of kaolinite and gibbsite were determined using the thermal differential analysis (Jackson, 1966, p. 849) in Ap and Bo1 horizons. The soil texture of all horizons was measured by the pipette method (Gee and Bauder, 1986).

Carbon and Nitrogen Analyses in a Whole Soil Layer

Soil samples from each depth were air dried and ground to pass through a 2-mm sieve. A portion of each sample was ground to pass through 150- μ m sieve to determine the SOC and TN contents. The latter was determined by micro Kjeldahl, and SOC by the loss-on-ignition method (Nelson and Sommers, 1982) using a C analyzer. Soil bulk density for each layer was measured by the core method (Blake and Hartge, 1986) using cores of 5.0-cm diam. and 5.0 cm deep for the 5-to 10-, 10- to 20-, and 20- to 40-cm depths. Cores of 5.0-cm diam. by 2.5-cm deep were used for the 0- to 2.5-, and 2.5- to 5-cm depths. The core was taken in the middle of the layer for the 10- to 20- and 20- to 40-cm depths. The SOC and TN pools, expressed as megagrams per hectare for a specific depth, were computed by multiplying the SOC and TN content (g kg⁻¹) with bulk density (g cm⁻³) and depth (cm).

Particle-Size Fractionation

The particle-size fractionation was done according to Feller (1994). A 40-g oven dry subsample sieved through a 2-mm screen, from each treatment and each depth, was prewetted overnight at 4°C in 200 mL of deionized H₂O. Aggregate disruption was accomplished by rotary shaking at a frequency of 50 rpm with three agate balls (10-mm diam.) for 2 h. The amount of soil that did not pass through a 200-mm sieve was used to estimated the 200- to 2000-µm fraction. The soil that passed through the 200-µm sieve was ultrasonicated using a probe-type ultrasonic unit at 240 W for 10 min. This energy level was determined to be the minimum required for the breakdown of macroaggregates into sand- and silt-sized microaggregates, associated organic matter, and primary particles. A suspension sample was taken after each sonication to check the degree of disruption under a microscope. The disrupted soil suspension was passed through two sieves (53and 20-µm) to obtain the 53- to 200-µm and 20- to 53-µm size fractions. The material remaining on the each sieve was washed and added to the corresponding suspension. The silt $(2-20 \ \mu m)$ and clay (<2 μm) fractions were obtained by six to seven centrifugations of the soil suspension that passed through 20-mm sieve. The centrifuge was calibrated to $90 \times g$ (700 rpm) and each centrifugation duration was 3 min. The supernatant liquid from each centrifugation was siphoned and stored in a 1-L glass cylinder and 10 mL of deionized H₂O was added in each tube. The procedure was repeated until the supernatant in the tube was clear. The soil pellet in each tube was recovered, and it represented the 2- to 20- μ m size fraction. The clay suspension in the 1-L glass cylinder was flocculated with 0.77 g CaCl₂, and it represented the <2- μ m size fraction.

The Natural Abundance of ¹³C, Carbon, and Nitrogen Analyses in the Particle-Size Fractions

Natural abundance stable isotope ratios were measured in different particle-size fractions for each depth, based on the method of Cerri et al. (1985), Balesdent et al. (1987), and Angers and Giroux (1996). The ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratio and SOC and TN contents were determined by a Mass Spectrometer (Delta Plus, Finnigan Mat; Finnigan Corp., Cincinati, OH) equipped with a gas chromatograph model EA 1110 CHN. The $\delta^{13}C$ value was calculated from the measured C isotope ratio (*R*) of the sample and standard gas was calibrated versus the Pee Dee Beleminite (PDB) standard (Eq. [1]) available from the National Bureau of Standards.

$$\delta^{13}C(\%) = \left[(R_{\text{sample}} - R_{\text{standard}}) / R_{\text{standard}} \right] \times 10^3 \quad [1]$$

The proportion of C derived from crop residues (X) was calculated according to the method of Angers and Giroux (1996) (Eq. [2]):

$$X = (\delta_{\rm cs} - \delta_{\rm nf})/(\delta_{\rm cr} - \delta_{\rm nf})$$
[2]

where δ_{cs} equals the ¹³C value of sample fraction of cropped soil (measured in each particle-size fraction for each depth in PNF-1, NT-10, NT-20, NT-22, and CT 22 treatments); δ_{nf} equals the ¹³C value of the NF treatment for each particlesize fraction and for each depth (which represented the natural vegetation dominated by C₄ species); and δ_{cr} equals the measured δ^{13} C value of the crop residues. The δ^{13} C value of crop residues (-23.8 ± 0.26‰) was based on the average of 10 subsamples of all the aboveground biomass collected before the harvest of corn in the NT-20 treatment. These residues represented a mixture from all of the previous crops grown in rotation although it was dominated by black oat, the most recent rotational crop.

Statistical Analyses

The data were statistically analyzed for ANOVA, and means were compared using the Tukey test (LSD_{0.05}). The regression equations were developed by the stepwise procedures (SAS Institute, 1990). Pearson correlation coefficients were used to assess the degree of relationships among variables. Regression equations were used to assess the temporal changes in SOC and TN pools for each soil depth considering the native field as the baseline or the reference point. The rates of SOC sequestration were calculated by determining the slope of the regression line (dy/dx) for each depth for the NT-10, NT-20, and NT-22 treatments. Statistical significance were computed at $P \le 0.05$ and $P \le 0.01$, and $P \le 0.001$ represented by *, **, and ***, respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Soil Organic Carbon, Total Nitrogen, and Carbon/Nitrogen Ratio in the Whole Soil

Tillage treatments had significant effects on SOC and TN contents and pools. The average SOC and TN con-

tents were significantly higher ($P \le 0.05$) in soils under long-term no-tillage than those for the NF and CT-22 treatments in the top 0- to 5-cm layer (Table 4). In contrast, depletion of SOC and TN contents in the longterm conventional tillage soil (i.e., the CT-22 treatment) as compared with the NF treatment occurred in the top 0- to 5-cm depth. These data are similar to those reported by Bayer et al. (2000b) for a soil in southern Brazil and by Kern and Johnson (1993) and Dick et al. (1998) in different ecoregions in the USA.

The C/N ratios (Table 4) were significantly lower ($P \le 0.05$) for the surface layers of the no-tillage soils compared with the NF soil and the ratios increased with depth for all treatments except for the PNF-1 treatment. This suggests that the availability of N in the surface soil layers was greater and that the N supply is a key component to reduce C losses and increase the SOC content (Ismail et al., 1994).

The significant increase of SOC and TN contents upon initial conversion to cropland (i.e., comparing the PNF-1 and NF treatments) for all depths may be because of rapid mineralization of the biomass in natural vegetation stimulated by soil chemical amelioration by liming and P application (Fox, 1980). In addition, the inputs of C and N in crop residue from soybean, black oat, and corn cultivated prior to soil sampling may have also enhanced SOC and TN contents.

The decrease in SOC and TN contents in the NT-10 treatment is thought to be because of the following factors: (i) 2 yr of cultivation and 8 yr of fallow prior to adopting no-tillage may have enhanced microbial activity and released C by respiration; (ii) the residence time of C in the soil profile may have also changed during the fallow period impacting its availability for microbial breakdown (Cihacek and Ulmer, 1997); and (iii) the rate of residue inputs during this period under no-tillage did not compensate high losses due to mineralization.

In comparison with NF treatment, changes in the SOC pools for the 0- to 40-cm soil layer were $+21.9 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$ for PNF-1, -4.83 Mg C ha⁻¹ for NT-10, +17.4 Mg C ha^{-1} for NT-20, +18.9 Mg C ha^{-1} for NT-22, and -0.13 Mg C ha⁻¹ for CT-22 (Fig. 2). The gains and losses of the SOC and TN pools for the different treatments varied with depth of soil layer (Fig. 3), and were determined taking into account bulk density differences which were higher in the no-tillage treatments than in the NF and CT-22 treatment. Most of the increased SOC found in the no-tillage profiles, as compared with that in the NF treatment, was found in the 0- to 5-cm layer for the NT-10 treatment (59%), in the 0- to 10cm soil layer for the NT-20 treatment (57.9%), and in the 0- to 10-cm soil layer for the NT-22 treatment (81.8%). In contrast, the same comparison of SOC increase for the PNF-1 treatment in the 0- to 10-cm soil layer was only 31%.

Regression analyses between SOC and the amount (Mg ha⁻¹) of crop-residue (CR) input for the 0- to 10-cm soil layer showed a significant relationship ($P \le 0.05$) among these parameters:

SOC (Mg ha⁻¹) =
$$26.6 + 0.265$$
CR ($R^2 = 0.74$) [3]

Table 4. Changes in soil organic carbon (SOC) concentrations, total nitrogen (TN) concentrations, and C/N ratios for a tillage chronosequence in a Brazilian oxisol.

		Treatments†							
Variable	Depth	NF	PNF-1	NT-10	NT-20	NT-22	CT-22		
	cm								
SOC, g kg ⁻¹	0-2.5	34.5Ac‡	38.4Ab	36.3Ab	45.9Aa	52.8Aa	30.1Ad		
100	2.5 - 5.0	29.5Bb	37.2Aa	25.7Bb	34.6Ba	35.1Ba	28.0Ab		
	5.0-10.0	25.3Bb	35.5Aa	18.9Cc	24.7Cb	25.1Cb	25.9Ab		
	10.0-20.0	21.6Cb	31.2Ba	14.6Dc	21.6Cb	20.7Db	23.5Bb		
	20.0-40.0	16.9Db	22.0Ca	12.7Dc	17.9Db	16.9Db	19.3Ca		
TN, g kg ⁻¹	0-2.5	2.3Ac	2.6Ab	3.0Ab	3.7Aa	4.0Aa	2.1Ad		
	2.5-5.0	1.9Bb	2.5Aa	2.1Bb	2.7Ba	2.6Ba	1.8Ab		
	5.0-10.0	1.6Bb	2.3Aa	1.4Cc	1.8Cb	1.7Cb	1.6Ab		
	10.0-20.0	1.4Bb	2.1Aa	0.9Dc	1.4Db	1.2Db	1.3Bb		
	20.0-40.0	1.0Cb	1.5Ba	0.8Dc	1.1Db	1.0Db	1.0Bb		
C/N Ratio	0-2.5	15.2Aa	14.6Aa	12.1Ab	12.3Ab	13.2Ab	14.6Aa		
	2.5 - 5.0	15.3Aa	14.9Aa	12.2Ab	12.6Ab	13.4Ab	15.5Aa		
	5.0-10.0	15.9Aa	15.5Aa	13.1Ab	13.8Ab	14.8Aa	16.3Aa		
	10.0-20.0	16.0Ab	15.0Ab	15.4Bb	15.8Bb	17.2Ba	18.0Ba		
	20.0-40.0	16.6Bb	14.4Ac	16.3Bb	16.6Bb	17.3Bb	18.9Ba		

[†] Treatments are defined as follows: NF, native field; PNF-1, 1 yr of conventional tillage of native field; NT-10, 10 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-20, 20 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-22, 22 yr of continuous no-tillage application; CT-22, 22 yr of continuous application of conventional tillage.

‡ Means followed by the same letters in a column (uppercase) and in a row (lowercase) do not differ according to the Tukey test at $P \le 0.05$.

In comparison with the no-tillage treatments, a highly significant ($P \le 0.05$) loss of SOC in the CT-22 occurred in the top 10-cm layer. The percentage of the total SOC loss associated which each soil layer, as compared with the NF treatment, was 62.1% for the 0- to 2.5-cm soil layer, 27.6% for the 2.5- to 5-cm layer, and 10.3% for 5- to 10-cm layer. The comparison between NT-22 and CT-22 for 0- to 40-cm layer showed that no-tillage had 19.0 Mg ha⁻¹ more SOC and 1.91 Mg ha⁻¹ more TN (Fig. 4). Although soil erosion was not measured, the visual observations of these plots, sited on about a 1% slope, showed minimal erosion. Because the annual input of crop residues was similar for the NT-22 and CT-22 treatments, the difference in SOC and TN content may be attributed to differences in the rates of assimilation and decomposition of residues for the two tillage treatments.

Soil Organic Carbon and Total Nitrogen Changes in the Particle-Size Fractions

The particle-size fractions >53 μ m accounted for 24 to 54% of the total sample weight and the <53 μ m fraction represented 45 to 75% of the total sample weight for all depths except for soil obtained from the PNF-1 treatment (Fig. 5). The 200- to 2000- μ m and 53-to 200- μ m size fractions are comprised mainly of sand and its associated organic matter which is coarse undecomposed-plant residues and debris representing different stages of decomposition. The high C/N ratio observed for the organic matter associated with the 200- to 2000- μ m size fraction supports the argument that the SOC in this fraction was comprised of fresh or little altered plant material.

The SOC concentrations in all depths increased in the fractions with size $<20 \ \mu m$ (Fig. 5) indicating associations such as organo-silt complex and organo-clay frac-



Fig. 2. Soil organic C (SOC) and total N (TN) stored in a 0- to 40-cm layer as affected by the various tillage chronosequence treatments. The heavy horizontal line represents the Native Field (NF) treatment. Treatments are defined as follows: NF, native field; PNF-1, 1 yr of conventional tillage of native field; NT-10, 10 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-20, 20 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-22, 22 yr of continuous no-tillage application; CT-22, 22 yr of continuous application of conventional tillage.

tions (Feller, 1994). This trend was similar for the NF and no-tillage treatments, and the enrichment of SOC in the clay fraction compared with the sand fraction (i.e., the particle-size fraction $>53-\mu m$) ranged from 1.72 to 2.75 times for the 0- to 2.5-cm layer, 2.4 to 4.6 times for the 2.5- to 5-cm layer, 2.72 to 12.5 times for the 5- to 10-cm layer, 3.68 to 16.2 times for the 10- to 20-cm layer, and 3.84 to 14.5 times for the 20- to 40-cm layer. The organic matter in the coarser size fractions (i.e., $>53 \mu m$) acts as an energy source for the microbial biomass and the stable organic compounds released from this process bind together the finer-size fractions (Angers and Giroux, 1996; Six et al., 1999). Golchin (1994) found that a continuous flux of organic compounds, released during the mineralization of crop residues, coupled with the activity of soil fungi can, indeed, lead to formation of stable organo-mineral complexes.

In the 0- to 2.5-cm and the 2.5- to 5-cm soil layers of the no-tillage treatments, the peak SOC concentrations were observed in 20- to 53- μ m size fraction. This is an indication that long-term no-tillage with high crop residues input improved the protection and concentration of organic C through formation of silt-sized mineral-organo complexes. This protection may be because of the accumulation of fungal hyphae debris when crop residues are left on the soil surface. Fungi dominate microbial communities in no-tillage systems (Doran, 1980; Hendrix et al., 1986).

It is well known that microorganisms secrete large amounts of polysaccharides that can serve as a strong binding agent (Greenland et al., 1962). According to Baldock et al. (1992) the organic matter in the silt-sized fraction is less decomposed, with higher C/N ratio and higher O-alkyl C concentrations, than organic matter in the <20-µm fraction. In contrast, the silt- (2- to 20- μ m) and clay- (<2- μ m) sized fractions had much lower C/N ratios than observed for the larger sized fractions. This is because of microbial alterations of soil organic matter and the stabilization of the finer fractions by microbial products including polysaccharides, fungal hyphae, and bacterial cells or colonies encrusted with clay particles (Oades and Waters, 1991). As much as 40 to 60% of the microbial biomass may be associated with microaggregates 2 to 20 μ m, depending on the amount and type of clay (Monrozier et al., 1991). Under tropical forest or savanna conditions, bacterial cell walls or colonies at different stages of decomposition can be observed in fractions $<20 \ \mu m$. The amorphous organic matter of microbial origin in clay fractions is indicated by very low xylose/mannose ratios (Feller et al., 1996).



Fig. 3. Soil organic C (SOC) and total N (TN) gains or losses in the top three layers of soil (0–10-cm depths) under various tillage chronosequence treatments compared with the Native Field (NF) treatment (heavy horizontal line). The LSD_{0.05} value determined by the Tukey Test is provided for mean comparison. Treatments are defined as follows: NF, native field; PNF-1, 1 yr of conventional tillage of native field; NT-10, 10 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-20, 20 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-22, 22 yr of continuous no-tillage application; CT-22, 22 yr of continuous application of conventional tillage.

The low C/N ratio observed in the finer-size fractions is an indication that the SOM is more stabilized and more aromatic (Bayer et al., 2000b).

Conversion to cropland caused a significant decrease in concentration of SOC in the 200- to 2000- μ m size fraction for all depths in the PNF-1 treatment (Fig. 5). This size fraction is easily mineralizable because it is composed of fresh plant residues and debris, a potential source of energy for the microbial biomass.

The trends for TN, although not shown, were found to be similar in all cases to those of SOC. This is because of the highly significant correlation between SOC and TN (r = 0.97, n = 150, $P \le 0.001$) in these surface soils.

Effect of Crop Residues and Long-Term No-Tillage on Soil Organic Carbon Assessed by ¹³C Natural Abundance and Sequestration Rates

The conversion of natural C₄ vegetation to C₃ dominant species resulted in significant changes in the δ^{13} C signature for the various treatments in the chronosequence (Fig. 6). The degree of ¹³C enrichment remained greater in the deeper layers and finer fractions. These results confirm that the crop-residue input with predominant C_3 species changed the organic matter composition and suggest different degrees of humification in different particle-size fractions in the top layers.

In the 0- to 10-cm layer, the no-tillage treatments had vastly different δ^{13} C values compared with the NF treatment. The introduction of C₃ carbon with its unique δ^{13} C signature, to the organic C originally present in the soil of the NF treatment, was especially evident in the coarsest particle-size fractions. The differences in δ^{13} C values were -6.83 to -4.77% for the 0- to 2.5-cm layer, -5.54 to -4.08% for the 2.5- to 5-cm layer, and -4.0to -3.05% for the 5- to 10-cm layer (Fig. 6). There were no significant differences amongst treatments below 0to 10-cm depth, suggesting that the crop residues maintained on the surface contributed a greater amount to the SOC than did the root system. The δ^{13} C values in CT-22 were generally between the no-tillage and NF treatments.

The effect of C_3 species in the crop rotation is diluted



SOC (Mg ha⁻¹)

Fig. 4. Soil organic C (SOC) and total N (TN) stored in the 0- to 40-cm soil layer as affected by 22 yr of no-tillage (NT-22) and conventional tillage (CT-22) treatments.

by the δ^{13} C corn signal. However, the ratio of C₃/C₄ species was 7:1, and we did not attempt to isolate the source of error caused by the $\delta^{13}C$ corn signal in the rotation. Both the crop in rotation and the mineralization of the crop residues control the δ^{13} C signal and the mineralization of organic residues is greatly affected by the C/N ratio of the residues. The C/N ratio of crop residues estimated by Derpsch (1983) was 13 to 16 for soybean, 28 to 32 for black oat, 34 to 42 for wheat, and 64 to 68 for corn. These ratios suggest that the rate of mineralization can increase after soybean harvest and the influence of the soybean residues can extend to black oat residues, i.e., the N supplied by the soybean residues can also stimulate high biological activity in Crich crops that the follow in the rotation. Corn residues provide high C input for microbial biomass. The crop residues with a high C/N ratio, when followed by a crop with a low C/N ratio, may be used by the microbial biomass thus stabilizing this C in soil (Smith et al., 1992).

In the 0- to 10-cm soil layer under no-tillage treatments, the estimate of SOC derived from crop residues was significantly greater in the coarse (200–2000, 53–200, and 20–53 μ m) than the fine particle-size fractions (Fig. 7). The SOC derived from crop residues in these coarsesized fractions ranged from: (i) 59.2 to 100% for the 0to 2.5-cm layer, 76.1 to 78.4% for the 2.5- to 5-cm layer, and 48.2 to 96.8% for the 5- to 10-cm layer of the NT-10 treatment; (ii) 52.8 to 100% for the 0- to 2.5-cm layer, 55.7 to 68.2% for the 2.5- to 5-cm layer, and 40.4 to 49.0% for the 5- to 10-cm layer of the NT-20 treatment; and (iii) 69.7 to 100% for the 0- to 2.5-cm layer, 57.8 to 71.7% for the 2.5- to 5-cm layer, and 32.9 to 45.5% for the 5to 10-cm layer of the NT-22 treatment. In the PNF-1 treatment a significant increase in SOC from crop residues occurred in the coarser fraction and in 0- to 10cm layer.

Comparison between no-tillage and NF treatments showed significantly more crop-residues derived C in the



Fig. 5. Particle-size fractions expressed as a percentage of dry weight of the whole soil (vertical bars) and soil organic C content (SOC) (lines) for each particle-size fraction in the 0- to 2.5-, 2.5- to 5-, 5- to 10-, 10- to 20-, and 20- to 40-cm soil layers. Treatments are defined as follows: NF, native field; PNF-1, 1 yr of conventional tillage of native field; NT-10, 10 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-20, 20 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-22, 22 yr of continuous no-tillage application; CT-22, 22 yr of conventional tillage.



TREATMENTS

Fig. 6. The natural abundance (δ) of ¹³C values in various particle-size fractions for each depth as affected by the various tillage chronosequence treatments. Treatments are defined as follows: NF, native field; PNF-1, 1 yr of conventional tillage of native field; NT-10, 10 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-20, 20 yr of continuous no-tillage application; NT-22, 22 yr of continuous no-tillage.

soil from the no-tillage treatments in the 2- to 20μ m and the 0- to 2μ m size fractions. The continuous C flux caused by mineralization and humification of organic compounds in the long-term no-tillage treatments may be a key factor that influences associations of SOC with the aggregates and the particle-size fractions. Balesdant et al. (2000) reported a strong relationship of SOC dynamics and the physical protection for temperate soils.

The decline in SOC concentrations by conversion from natural to agricultural ecosystems attains a new equilibrium level in 30 to 50 yr (Wagner, 1981). The SOC loss in the present study during 20 yr (representing the first



Fig. 7. Percentage of soil organic C (SOC) for each particle-size fraction and each depth that is derived from C originally present in the soil from the various treatment sites and C that is derived from crop residues. PSF, particle-size fraction. The treatment abbreviations are NT-10, no-tillage for 10 yr; NT-20, no-tillage for 20 yr; NT-22, no-tillage for 22 yr; CT-22, conventional tillage for 22 yr.



Fig. 8. Representation of soil organic C (SOC) changes in a tillage chronosequence and the prediction of the new steady-state for no-tillage in the 0- to 20-cm soil layer.

phase of cropping comprising 10 yr with plow tillage and 10 yr of no-tillage) was 1.09 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. The new equilibrium or steady-state level was predicted to occur ~40 yr after the adoption of no-tillage with high inputs of crop residues (Fig. 8). The new equilibrium SOC content estimate for the 0- to 20-cm layer ranged from 88.0 to 90.0 Mg ha⁻¹ and represented an increase of 47.1 to 50.5% from the original SOC content in the native field.

The δ^{13} C technique developed by Cerri et al. (1985) and Balesdant et al. (1987) can be used to assess C input and turnover as affected by crop rotation and tillage (Huggins et al., 1998). The δ^{13} C variation between native prairie and no-tillage crop rotation in this study were similar to that reported by Balesdent et al. (1988).

The SOC sequestration rate associated with no-tillage in this major ecological region of south Brazil was calculated using the NF treatment as a benchmark. The sequestration rate was 80.6 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 0- to 20-cm layer and 99.4 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 0- to 40-cm layer. The largest contribution to the total sequestration rate was associated with the 0- to 5-cm layer. The contribution of different depths was 31.9 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 0- to 2.5-cm layer, 21.2 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 2.5- to 5-cm layer, 12.5 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 5- to 10-cm layer, 15.1 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 10- to 20-cm layer, and 18.7 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the 20- to 40-cm layer. These results of SOC sequestration are higher than the 30 to 70 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ reported by Lal et al. (1998).

In Brazil, 27% of cropland (13.4 million hectares) are cultivated using a no-tillage system (Febrapdp, 2000) of which 70.5% (i.e., 9.43 million hectares) is located in south region (Paraná, Santa Catarina, and Rio Grande do Sul State). Therefore, the SOC sequestration potential of this region is 9.37 Tg C yr⁻¹ (data of this study) to 12.54 Tg C yr⁻¹ (data from Bayer et al., 2000 b). This potential is equivalent to assimilation (1 unit of C convert to 3.67 units of CO₂) of 34.3 Tg CO₂ yr⁻¹ to 46.0 Tg CO₂ yr⁻¹.

CONCLUSIONS

A significant increase in the SOC content in the upper 10-cm layer in no-tillage soils compared with soils under natural vegetation and long-term conventional tillage (CT-22) occurred because of high crop-residue input and the lack of soil disturbance. These effects were pronounced in the silt-sized or larger particle-size fractions, although the finer fractions were also enriched in the surface layers. The significant contribution of crop residues to SOC in the soil surface layers assessed by δ^{13} C, was evident in the 200- to 2000-, 53- to 200-, and 20- to 53-µm particle-size fractions. These trends imply that long-term no-tillage systems protect soil organic matter through formation of stable sand- and silt-sized particles. The C sequestration rate for the top 40-cm layer was 99.4 g m⁻² yr⁻¹, and the C sequestration potential for south Brazil is estimated at 9.37 Tg C yr⁻¹.

REFERENCES

Anderson, D.W., and E.A. Paul. 1984. Organo-mineral complexes and their study by radiocarbon dating. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 48:298–301.

- Angers, D.A., and M. Giroux. 1996. Recently deposited organic matter in soil water-stable aggregates. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 60:1547–1551.
- Balesdent, J., A. Mariotti, and B. Guillet. 1987. Natural ¹³C abundance as a tracer for soil organic matter dynamics studies. Soil Biol. Biochem. 19:25–30.
- Balesdent, J., G.H. Wagner, and A. Mariotti. 1988. Soil organic matter turnover in long-term field experiments as revealed by carbon-13 natural abundance. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 52:118–124.
- Balesdent, J., C. Chenu, and M. Balabane. 2000. Relationship of soil organic matter dynamics to physical protection and tillage. Soil Tillage Res. 53:215–230.
- Batjes, N.H. 1996. Total carbon and nitrogen in the soils of the world. Eur. J. Soil Sci. 47:151–163.
- Bayer, C., L. Martin-Neto, J. Mielniczuk, and C.A. Ceretta. 2000a. Effect of no-till cropping systems on soil organic matter in a sandy clay loam Acrisol from southern Brazil monitored by electron spin resonance and nuclear magnetic resonance. Soil Tillage Res. 53: 95–104.
- Bayer, C., J. Mielniczuk, T.J.C. Amado, L. Martin-Neto, and S.V. Fernandes. 2000b. Organic matter storage in a sandy clay loam Acrisol affected by tillage and cropping systems in southern Brazil. Soil Tillage Res. 54:101–109.
- Baldock, J.A., J.M. Oades, A.G. Waters, X. Peng, A.M. Vassalo, and M.A. Wilson. 1992. Aspects of the chemical structure of soil organic materials as revealed by solid-state ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. Biogeochemistry 16:1–42.
- Beare, M.H., M.L. Cabrera, P.F. Hendrix, and D.C. Coleman. 1994. Aggregate-protected and unprotected organic matter pools in conventional- and no-tillage soils. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 58:787–795.
- Blake, G.R., and K.H. Hartage. 1986. Bulk density. p. 363–375. In A. Klute (ed.) Methods of soil analysis. Part 1. 2nd ed. Monogr. 9. ASA and SSSA, Madison, WI.
- Cambardella, C.A., and E.T. Elliot. 1992. Particulate soil organic matter changes across a grassland cultivation sequence. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 56:777–783.
- Cambardella, C.A., and E.T. Elliot. 1993. Carbon and nitrogen distribution in aggregates from cultivated and native grasslands soils. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 57:1071–1076.
- Cambardella, C.A., and E.T. Elliot. 1994. Carbon and nitrogen dynamics of soil organic matter fractions from cultivated grassland soils. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 58:123–130.
- Campbell, C.A., and W. Souster. 1982. Loss of organic matter and potentially mineralizable nitrogen from Saskatchewan soils due to cropping. Can. J. Soil Sci. 62:651–656.
- Carter, M.R. 1992. Influence of reduced tillage systems on organic matter, microbial biomass, macro-aggregate distribution and structural stability of the surface soil in humid climate. Soil Tillage Res. 23:361–372.
- Cerri, C.C., C. Feller, J. Balesdent, R. Victoria, and A. Plenecassagne. 1985. Application du traçage isotopique naturel en 13C, à l'étude de la dynamique de la matière organique dans le sols (in French). C.R. Acad. Sci. Paris (Sér. II.) 300:423–428.
- Christensen, B.T. 1992. Physical fractionation of soil and organic matter in primary particle size and density separates. Adv. Soil Sci. 20:2–90.
- Cihacek, L.J., and M.G. Ulmer. 1997. Effects of tillage on profile soil carbon distribution in the Northern great plains of the U.S. p. 83–97. *In* R. Lal et al. (ed.) Management of carbon sequestration in soil. CRC/Lewis Publishers, Boca Raton, FL.
- Derpsch, R. 1983. Alguns resultados sobre adubação verde no Paraná. p. 268–279. *In* Adubação verde no Brasil (in Porteguese). Fundação Cargill, Campinas-SP, Brazil.
- Dick, W.A., R.L. Blevins, W.W. Frye, S.E. Peters, D.R. Christenson, F.J. Pierce, and M.L. Vitosh. 1998. Impacts of agricultural management practices on C sequestration in forest-derived soils of the eastern Corn Belt. Soil Tillage Res. 47:235–344.
- Doran, J.W. 1980. Soil microbial and biochemical changes associated with reduced tillage. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 44:765–771.
- Elliot, E.T. 1986. Aggregate structure and carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus in native and cultivated soils. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 50:627–633.
- EMBRAPA-Empresa Brasileira de Pesquisa Agropecuária. 1979. p. 390. Manual de métodos de análise do solo (in Porteguese). EMBRAPA-SNLCS, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
- Eswaran, H., E. Van Den Berg, and P. Reich. 1993. Organic carbon in soils of the world. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 57:192–194.

- Febrapdp–Federação brasileira de plantio direto na palha 2000. Evolução da área de plantio direto no Brasil-dados estatísticos (in Portuguese). Ponta Grossa, PR, Brazil.
- Feller, C. 1994. La matière organique dans le sols tropicaux à argiles 1:1. Recherche de compartiments organiques fontionnels. Une approche granulometrique. Thèse Doctorate ès Sciences (in French). University of Strasbourg (ULP), Strasbourg, France.
- Feller, C., A. Albrecht, and D. Tessier. 1996. Aggregation and organic matter storage in kaolinitic and smectitic soils. p. 309–359. *In* M.R. Carter and B.A. Stewart (ed.) Structure and organic matter in agricultural soils. Adv. Soil Sci. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
- Fox, R.H. 1980. Soil with variable charge: Agronomic and fertility aspects. p. 195–224. *In* B.K.G. Theng (ed.) Soils with variable charge. New Zealand Society of Soil Science, Lower Hutt, New Zealand.
- Gee, G.W., and J.W. Bauder. 1986. Particle-size analyses. p. 383–412. *In* A. Klute (ed.) Methods of soil analysis: Part 1. 2nd ed. Monogr.
 9. ASA and SSSA, Madison, WI.
- Golchin, A., J.M. Oades, J.O. Skjemstad, and P. Clarke. 1994. Soil structure and carbon cycle. Austr. J. Soil Res. 32:1043–1068.
- Greenland, D.J., G.R. Lindstrom, and J.P. Quirk, 1962. Organic materials which stabilize natural soil aggregates. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. Proc. 26:366–371.
- Havlin, J.L., D.E. Kissel, L.E. Maddux, M.M. Claassen, and J.H. Long. 1990. Crop rotation and tillage effects on soil organic carbon and nitrogen. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 54:448–452.
- Hendrix, P.F., R.W. Parmelee, D.A. Crossley, Jr., D.C. Coleman, E.P. Odum, and P.M. Groffman. 1986. Detritus food webs in conventional and no-tillage agroecosystems. BioScience 36:374–380.
- Huggins, D.R., C.E. Clapp, R.R. Allmaras, J.A.Lamb, and M.F. Layese. 1998. Carbon dynamics in corn-soybean sequences as estimated from natural carbon-13 abundance. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 62:195–203.
- Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). 1996. Climate change 1995. Working group 1. IPCC, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Ismail, I., R.L. Blevins, and W.W. Frye. 1994. Long-term no-tillage effects on soil properties and continuous corn yields. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 58:193–198.
- Jackson, M.L. 1966. Soil chemical analysis—Advanced course. 2nd ed. Madison WI.
- Jastrow, J.D., T.W. Boutton, and R.M. Miller. 1996. Carbon dynamics of aggregate-associated organic matter estimated by carbon-13 natural abundance. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 60:801–807.
- Kern, J.S., and M.G. Johnson. 1993. Conservation tillage impacts on national soil and atmospheric carbon levels. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 57:200–210.
- Lal, R. 1976. No-tillage effects on soil properties under different crops in Western Nigeria. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 40:762–768.
- Lal, R., and T.J. Logan. 1995. Agricultural activities and greenhouse gas emissions from soils of the tropics. p. 293–307. *In* R. Lal et al. (ed.) Soil management greenhouse effect. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
- Lal, R., J. Kimble, E. Levine, and C. Whitman. 1995. World soils and greenhouse effect: An overview. p. 1–7. *In* R. Lal et al. (ed.) Soils and global change. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
- Lal, R., J.M. Kimble, R.F. Follet, and C.V. Cole. 1998. Land conversion and restoration. p. 35-51. *In* R. Lal et al. (ed.) The potential of

U.S. cropland to sequester carbon and mitigate the greenhouse effect. Ann Arbor Press, Chelsea, MI.

- Lugo, A.E., and S. Brown. 1993. Management of tropical soil as sinks or sources of atmospheric carbon. Plant Soil 149:27–41.
- Maack, R. 1981. Classificação do clima do Estado do Paraná. p. 175– 189. *In* Geografia Física do Paraná, 2 ed. (in Portuguese). Livraria José Olímpio Editora S.A., Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
- Mann, L.K. 1985. A regional comparison of carbon in cultivated and uncultivated Alfisols and Molisols in the central United States. Geoderma 36:241–253.
- Monrozier, L.J., J.N. Ladd, R.W. Fitzpatrick, R.C. Foster, and M. Raupach. 1991. Components and microbial biomass content of size fractions in soils of contrasting aggregation. Geoderma 49:37–62.
- Nelson, D.W., and L.E. Sommers. 1982. Total carbon, organic carbon and organic matter. p. 539–579. *In* A.L. Page et al. (ed.) Methods of soil analysis, Part 2. 2nd ed. ASA and SSSA, Madison, WI.
- Oades, J.M., and A.G. Waters. 1991. Aggregate hierarchy in soils. Aust. J. Soil Sci. 29:815–828.
- Oades, J.M., A.M. Vassallo, A.G. Waters, and M.A. Wilson. 1987. Characterization of organic matter in particle size and density fractions from Red-Brown Earth by solid-state 13C NMR. Aust. J. Soil Res. 25:71–82.
- Raij, B. van, and J.A. Quaggio. 1983. Métodos de análises de solo para fins de fertilidade (in Portuguese). Instituto Agronômico de Campinas, Campinas, Brazil.
- Rasmussen, P.E., S.L. Albrecht, and R.W. Smiley. 1998. Soil C and N changes under tillage and cropping systems in semi-arid Pacific Northwest agriculture. Soil Tillage Res. 47:197–205.
- Reicosky, D.C., W.D. Kemper, G.W. Langdale, C.L. Douglas, Jr., and P.E. Rasmussen. 1995. Soil organic matter changes resulting from tillage and biomass production. J. Soil Water Conserv. 50: 253–261.
- Resck, D.V.S. 1998. Agricultural intensification systems and their impotential acidity on soil and water quality in the Cerrados of Brazil. p. 288–300. *In* R. Lal (ed.) Soil quality and agricultural sustainability. Ann Arbor Press, Chelsea, MI.
- Sá, J.C.M. 1993. Manejo da fertilidade do solo no plantio direto (in Portuguese). Fundação ABC, Castro, PR, Brazil.
- SAS Institute. 1990. SAS/STAT user's guide. Statistics. Version 6, 4th ed. SAS Inst., Cary, NC.
- Six, J., E.T. Elliot, and K. Paustian. 1999. Aggregate and soil organic matter dynamics under conventional and no-tillage systems. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 63:1350–1358.
- Six, J., R. Merckx, K. Kimpe, E.T. Elliot, and K. Paustian. 2000. A reevaluation of the enriched labile soil organic matter fraction. Eur. J. Soil Sci. 51:283–293.
- Smith, J.L., R.I. Papendick, D.F. Bezdicek, and J. Lynch. 1992. Soil organic matter dynamics and crop residue management. p. 65–94. *In* F.B. Metting, Jr. (ed.) Soil microbial ecology—Applications in agricultural and environmental management. Marcel Dekker, New York.
- Tisdall, J.M., and J.M. Oades. 1982. Organic matter and water-stable aggregates in soils. J. Soil Sci. 33:141–163.
- Wagner, G.H. 1981. Humus under different long-term cropping systems. p. 23–29. *In* Proc. Colloque Humus-Azote, Reims. AISS-AFES-INRA, Paris, France.