



Vol(103) 269-277

221675

Use of deep-rooted tropical pastures to build-up an arable layer through improved soil properties of an Oxisol in the Eastern Plains (Llanos Orientales) of Colombia

E. Amézquita*, R.J. Thomas, I.M. Rao, D.L. Molina, P. Hoyos

Soils and Plant Nutrition Unit, Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical (CIAT), Apartado Aéreo 6713, Cali, Colombia

Abstract

It is widely believed that tropical soils (mainly Oxisols) have excellent physical characteristics such as high infiltration rates, high permeability of water, good and stable soil structure and that consequently, they can support mechanized agriculture. However in the Eastern Plains (Llanos Orientales) of Colombia, when Oxisols are subjected to tillage using disc harrow, soil physical conditions deteriorate rapidly. We report here that change in land use with deep-rooted tropical pastures can enhance soil quality by improving the size and stability of soil aggregates when compared with soils under monocropping. In addition, rates of water infiltration improved by 5–10-fold while rainfall acceptance capacity improved by 3–5-fold. We suggest that intensive and sustainable use of these Oxisols, could only be possible if an “arable” or “productive layer” (i.e. a layer with improved soil physical, chemical and biological properties) is constructed and maintained. One option to achieve this arable layer is through the use of introduced tropical pastures with deep-rooting abilities that can result in increased soil organic matter and associated improvements in soil physical, chemical and biological properties. One land use option that can achieve these soil improvements is agropastoralism whereby pastures and crops are grown in short-term rotations.

© 2004 Published by Elsevier B.V.

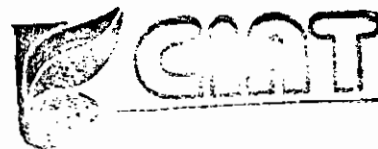
Keywords: Soil physical characteristics; Oxisols; Infiltration; Organic matter; Rainfall acceptance; Lower and upper limits of available water

1. Introduction

Agricultural sustainability implies that agriculture will remain the principal land use over long periods of time relative to human life-span and it is economically competitive and ecologically acceptable while the soil resource base maintains or even improves its fertility and health (Hamblin, 1991). One of the major challenges for the achievement of sustainable agri-

culture in the tropics, is the vulnerability of tropical soils to degradation when they are subjected to mechanization for crop production (Thomas et al., 1995; Thomas and Ayarza, 1999; Amézquita et al., 2000). It is widely believed that tropical savanna soils (mainly Oxisols) have excellent physical characteristics such as high infiltration rates, high permeability, good and stable soil structure and therefore can support mechanized agriculture (Sanchez and Salinas, 1981). However, recent work indicated that Colombian savanna soils (Oxisols of Altillanura), have serious physical, chemical and biological constraints for crop and pasture production (Amézquita et al., 1998a). Physically

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +57-2-4450-357x3402; fax: +57-2-4450-073.
E-mail address: e.amezquita@cgiar.org (E. Amézquita).



45 the fertile layer can be shallow with high bulk densi- 93
 46 ties together with weak structure. Tillage (disc harrow- 94
 47 ing) practices currently used for seedbed preparation 95
 48 could result in surface sealing and low rainfall accep- 96
 49 tance capacity (Amézquita et al., 2000). Chemically 97
 50 the soils have low pH values, high levels of exchange- 98
 51 able Al^{3+} , low P availability, low base (Ca, Mg and K) 99
 52 saturation and low amounts of organic matter. Also, 100
 53 biologically they show constraints typical of soils with 101
 54 low organic matter such as lower rates of mineraliza- 102
 55 tion (Thomas et al., 1995; Lopes et al., 1999).

56 Physical, chemical and biological conditions of 103
 57 these soils need to be improved in order to increase 104
 58 their productivity. Usually this improvement can be 105
 59 achieved by land preparation and by application of 106
 60 lime and fertilizer. However, this effect lasts only for 107
 61 a short time and after 4–7 years, farmers abandon the 108
 62 degraded land as it is no longer productive and often 109
 63 migrate to other areas. To avoid the continued degra- 110
 64 dation of these soils and to achieve sustained produc- 111
 65 tion, we propose that the construction of an “arable 112
 66 layer”, a top layer with improved soil properties, is 113
 67 required (Amézquita et al., 2000).

68 It has been demonstrated that soil physical condi- 116
 69 tions are usually best under permanent grassland (or 117
 70 forest) and as soil is cultivated, these conditions dete- 118
 71 riorate at a rate dependent of climate, soil texture and 119
 72 management (Lal, 1993; White, 1997). Amézquita 120
 73 et al. (1998a), have found significant negative effects 121
 74 of continued cropping on the physical properties of 122
 75 soils in the Llanos. The study by Preciado (1997) 123
 76 from the Casanare region of the Llanos showed that 124
 77 total porosity and macroporosity decrease markedly 125
 78 after 5–7 years of monocropping. Boonman (1997) 126
 79 mentioned similar trends for soils of African savannas.

80 Ploughing and cultivating new land is usually ac- 127
 81 companied by a decline in soil organic matter. When 128
 82 land is ploughed, disruption of peds exposes previ- 129
 83 ously inaccessible organic matter to attack by microor- 130
 84 ganisms and populations of soil structure-stabilizing 131
 85 fungi and earthworms decrease markedly (White, 132
 86 1997). Introduced pastures can markedly reverse 133
 87 these trends through improvements in soil aggrega- 134
 88 tion (Drury et al., 1991; Gijsman and Thomas, 1995; 135
 89 Franzluebbers et al., 2000).

90 The relatively weak structure of savanna soils of 136
 91 Colombia (Oxisols) and their susceptibility to sealing, 137
 92 compaction, and erosion when subjected to tillage can

93 result in negative effects on sustainable productiv- 94
 95 ity of crop-livestock systems (Amézquita, 1998). To 96
 97 overcome these physical constraints, tillage practices 98
 99 should be developed that are based on the concept of 100
 101 development of an “arable layer”. The “arable layer” 102
 103 is a surface layer (0–15, 0–25, 0–30 cm depth), with 104
 105 improved soil physical, chemical and biological prop- 106
 107 erties. This is essential for developing a soil that is 108
 109 capable to support sustainable agriculture (Amézquita 110
 111 et al., 2000).

112 The “arable layer” concept proposed, is based on 113
 114 the combination of: (1) tillage practices to overcome 115
 116 soil physical constraints (high bulk density, surface 117
 118 sealing, low infiltration rates, poor root penetration, 119
 120 etc.); (2) use of chemical amendments (lime and fertil- 121
 122 izers) to enhance soil fertility; and (3) use of soil and 123
 124 crop management practices to increase rooting, to pro- 125
 126 mote biostructure, and to avoid repacking of soil after 126
 127 tillage, thus, improving the biological condition of 127
 128 the soil. This concept relies on the use of deep-rooted 128
 129 and acid-soil-adapted tropical pastures to improve and 129
 130 maintain soil physical conditions via vertical tillage 130
 131 (chisel).

132 The purpose of this study was to evaluate the influ- 133
 134 ence of deep-rooted tropical pastures in comparison 134
 135 with other land uses such as monocropping of upland 135
 136 rice and native savanna pastures on the build-up of an 136
 137 arable layer through improved soil properties.

121 2. Materials and methods

122 2.1. Location

123 The experiments were carried out at Matazul farm 124
 125 ($4^{\circ}9'4.9''N$, $72^{\circ}38'23''W$ and 260 m.a.s.l.) located in 125
 126 the Eastern Plains (Llanos) near Puerto Lopez, Colom- 126
 127 bia. The area has two distinct climatic seasons, a wet 127
 128 season from the beginning of March to December and 128
 129 a dry season from December to March and has an 129
 130 annual average temperature of $26.2^{\circ}C$. The area has 130
 131 mean annual rainfall of 2719 mm, potential evapotran- 131
 132 spiration of 1623 mm and relative humidity of 81% 132
 133 (data from the nearby Santa Rosa weather station, lo- 133
 134 cated at the Piedmont of the Llanos of Colombia). The 134
 135 soil has low fertility and the availability of P in the 135
 136 soil is low because of the soil's high P fixation capac- 136
 137 ity (Phiri et al., 2001).

137 2.2. Treatments

138 To evaluate the impact of deep-rooted pastures on
139 soil physical characteristics, we used the following
140 treatments from long-term experiments.

141 (a) Aggregate size distribution and aggregate stabil-
142 ity aspects were studied in an experiment where
143 disturbed and undisturbed introduced pasture sys-
144 tems were compared with rice monocropping on
145 two sites of contrasting soil texture (Matazul:
146 clay-loam; Primavera: sandy-loam). Native sa-
147 vanna (undisturbed) system was used as a control.
148 Disturbed pasture received two harrow passes
149 for every 2 years to reduce surface sealing and
150 compaction.

151 (b) Infiltration rates were measured in an experiment
152 aimed to improve top-soil conditions (cultural pro-
153 file) using different intensities (1, 2 or 3) of chisel
154 passes (vertical tillage) or different agropastoral
155 treatments (pasture alone, pasture + legume and
156 legumes alone) that were planted after two passes
157 of chisel.

158 (c) Measurements on volume and chemical composi-
159 tion of gravitational water were studied in an ex-
160 periment aimed to understand the processes of soil
161 degradation due to either monocropping of rice
162 or introduced pasture (*Brachiaria dictyoneura* cv.
163 Llanero). Different number of harrow passes (2, 4,
164 8) were applied every year for a period of 2 years
165 for each treatment.

166 (d) Root biomass and root volume of *Brachiaria de-*
167 *cumbens* were determined in two contrasting tex-
168 tural soils: sandy- and clay-loam, under two pas-
169 ture conditions: productive and degraded (less pro-
170 ductive), to compare root growth under these two
171 conditions.

172 2.3. Evaluated parameters

173 2.3.1. Aggregate size distribution and aggregate
174 stability

175 Ten volumetric soil samples were taken in cylinders
176 (120 mm diameter by 25 mm high) and used for dry
177 aggregate size distribution determinations from each
178 of the following treatments: disturbed pasture, undis-
179 turbed pasture, monocrop and native savanna. Dis-
180 turbed pastures means that two harrowing passes were

181 made every 2 years to loosen the soil to improve pas- 181
182 ture productivity. By the time of the evaluation, the 182
183 experimental plots had 8 years of establishment. In 183
184 each of the 10 samples taken from each treatment, a 184
185 test for dry aggregate size distribution (Kemper and 185
186 Rosenau, 1986; Amézquita et al., 1998b) was made 186
187 using the total volume of soil collected in the cylin- 187
188 ders. Sieves of the following openings were used: >6, 188
189 6–4, 4–2, 2–1, 1–0.5 mm, which were fitted to a shaker 189
190 for 5 min. 190

191 Aggregate stability was determined also using 10 191
192 samples (50 g of soil) for each treatment with a Yo- 192
193 der apparatus (Angers and Mehuys, 1993). A set 193
194 of sieves with openings of: 2, 2–1, 1–0.5, 0.5–0.25, 194
195 0.25–0.125 and <0.125 mm was used. The amount of 195
196 sand found in each sieve was discounted from the total 196
197 weight. 197

2.3.2. Infiltration rate 198

199 A double ring devise was used to determine infiltra- 199
200 tion rates (Bower, 1986). Five tests for each treatment 200
201 were made. Internal cylinder was inserted into the soil 201
202 to 5–7 cm soil depth. External cylinder was inserted to 202
203 3–5 cm. Water was poured first to the external cylinder 203
204 to reach a height of about 3 cm within the cylinder and 204
205 then to the internal cylinder to reach a height of 6 cm 205
206 from the soil surface. The amount of water entering 206
207 into the soil was measured at different time intervals 207
208 during a testing period of 2–3 h, until a quasi equilib- 208
209 rium of amount of water entering in function of time 209
210 was reached. 210

2.3.3. Collection of gravitational water 211

212 It is not common to collect and measure the amount 212
213 and elemental composition of free water (drainage wa- 213
214 ter) from the precipitation that moves down in a soil 214
215 profile at different depths. In this study we determined 215
216 the influence of pastures or monocropping of upland 216
217 rice on the amount of gravitational water and its el- 217
218 emental composition at different soil depths. A pit 218
219 of 1.8 m length × 0.7 m wide × 0.5 m depth m was 219
220 dug in each treatment. Funnels filled with clean fine 220
221 and very fine sand, were wetted to field capacity and 221
222 then buried in the soil profile at different depths: 3, 222
223 5, 10, 15 and 30 cm to collect the gravitational wa- 223
224 ter that passes through each depth, during part of the 224
225 rainy season. Measurements of the amount of water 225
226 and elemental composition, were made at different 226

227 times. During the period of measurements, the pits
228 were protected around and covered with a sheet of
229 zinc to avoid any other water entering into the pit. This
230 methodology assumes that there is a vertical piston
231 like water movement. The accepted rain was assumed
232 to move through the soil profile and reach the funnels
233 that were buried at different depths. Wet sand present
234 in the funnels favors pore continuity for the drainage
235 process.

236 2.3.4. Root distribution

237 Root sampling was carried out using a trench profile
238 method (Schuster, 1964). Three sampling points were
239 randomly located within each treatment of degraded or
240 productive pasture of *Brachiaria decumbens*. A trench
241 of 60 cm wide, 50 cm deep and 60 cm long was dug
242 to determine root penetration and root distribution.
243 Root samples were excavated from the wall of each
244 trench, total three samples from each treatment. The
245 nail-boards were made of a 2 cm thick plywood board
246 (50 cm wide and 40 cm long). Twelve centimeters long
247 nails were inserted at 10 cm intervals (10 cm × 10 cm)
248 through the back of the board and protruded into the
249 frame 10 cm.

250 Root samples were excavated by pressing the
251 nail-boards into the trench wall and slicing the en-
252 closed soil monolith from the trench wall with a
253 steel blade. The samples were soaked in water for at
254 least 2 h after which the soil was removed from the
255 roots with a fine spray of water. The root samples
256 were photographed. Root volume was determined

with a measuring jar filled with water by regis- 257
tering the increase in volume. Root biomass (dry 258
weight) was recorded after oven drying for 2 days at 259
65 °C. 260

3. Results 261

3.1. Aggregate size distribution and stability 262

The effect of different management systems on the 263
aggregate size distribution is shown in Table 1. At 264
Matazul Farm, the percentage of aggregates >6. 6–4 265
and 4–2 mm decreased in intervened systems com- 266
pared with the native savanna, while those between 267
2–1, 1–0.125 and <0.125 mm increased. This was 268
noted particularly under monocropped rice. At La Pri- 269
mavera Farm, monocropping with rice resuted in a 270
lower percentage of 4–2 mm and higher percentage 271
of 2–1 and 1.0–0.125 mm aggregates. In contrast, the 272
undisturbed pasture had a positive effect on soil aggre- 273
gation, with the highest (non-significant) percentage 274
of aggregates larger than 2 mm. 275

The results on aggregate stability are presented in 276
Table 2. Aggregate stability values at Matazul Farm 277
were greater for native savanna than for intervened 278
systems. The percentage of stable aggregates larger 279
than 2 mm was significantly greater in relation to other 280
treatments. At La Primavera Farm, undisturbed pasture 281
and native savanna both had a higher percentage of 282
aggregates larger than 2 mm diameter.

Table 1
Aggregate size distribution (%) as influenced by soil management system in savanna soils of Colombia

Treatment	Percentage of aggregates of size (mm) ^a					
	>6	6–4	4–2	2–1	1–0.125	<0.125
Matazul Farm						
Undisturbed pasture	14 b	11 b	16 a	15 b	32 b	12 ab
Disturbed pasture	21 a	11 b	15 ab	15 b	27 c	11 b
Rice monocropping	7 c	7 c	13 b	17 a	44 a	13 a
Native savanna	22 a	14 a	16 a	11 c	24 c	10 b
La Primavera Farm						
Undisturbed pasture	14 a	15 a	26 a	17 b	22 b	5 b
Disturbed pasture	6 b	7 c	17 ab	22 a	37 a	11 a
Rice monocropping	13 a	12 b	15 b	18 b	31 a	10 a
Native savanna	11 a	11 b	26 a	18 b	24 b	9 ab

^a Values within an aggregate size class and farm followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

Table 2
Percentage of stable aggregates under different management systems on a Colombian savanna Oxisol

Treatment	Percentage of stable aggregates of size (mm) ^a					
	>2	2–1	1–0.5	0.5–0.25	0.25–0.125	<0.125
Matazul Farm						
Undisturbed pasture	75 c	7.2 a	4.0 a	1.6 a	1.6 a	10.0 ab
Disturbed pasture	79 bc	4.5 b	2.7 b	1.2 b	0.9 ab	11.4 a
Rice monocropping	84 b	3.6 b	2.6 b	1.2 b	0.9 ab	7.8 ab
Native savanna	93 a	1.2 c	0.6 c	0.3 c	0.3 b	4.2 b
La Primavera Farm						
Undisturbed pasture	94 a	1.0 c	0.5 c	0.5 b	0.2 b	3.7 b
Disturbed pasture	78 c	7.6 a	3.7 a	1.3 a	1.2 a	8.7 a
Rice monocropping	84 b	4.4 b	2.3 b	0.8 ab	1.0 a	7.8 a
Native savanna	93 a	1.7 c	0.6 c	0.3 b	0.2 b	4.4 b

^a Values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

283 3.2. Infiltration rates

284 Infiltration rates, determined under different man-
285 agement system treatments in an experiment aimed to
286 create an arable layer, are shown in Table 3. In relation
287 to native savanna the treatments that included intro-

Table 3
Rate of water infiltration (cm h^{-1}) as influenced by different treat-
ments in the experiment on building an arable layer (Matazul
Farm)

Treatment	Infiltration rate (cm h^{-1})	
	1998	1999
Rice–soybean rotation		
(1) Chisel pass	2.0 c	5.5 bc
(2) Chisel passes	1.6 c	7.4 bc
(3) Chisel passes	2.2 c	7.5 bc
Rice + pastures		
(a) Early incorporation of residues		
<i>A. gayanus</i> (Ag)	17.0 a	15.0 a
Ag + legumes (Kudzu + <i>D. ovalifolium</i>)	8.8 abc	5.6 bc
Legumes (Kudzu + <i>D. ovalifolium</i>)	9.7 abc	6.8 bc
(b) Late incorporation of residues		
<i>A. gayanus</i> (Ag)	8.5 abc	9.4 b
Ag + legumes (Kudzu + <i>D. ovalifolium</i>)	6.5 bc	5.2 bc
Legumes (Kudzu + <i>D. ovalifolium</i>)	14.2 ab	3.1 c
Native savanna (control)	1.7 c	3.7 bc
Significance level	0.07	0.006

Values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

duced pastures showed higher and more stable rates. 288
Particularly higher rates of infiltration were found under 289
A. gayanus pasture. 290

291 3.3. Gravitational water

The amount of gravitational water draining at differ- 292
ent soil depths as a function of soil management sys- 293
tem is shown in Table 4. Little water was collected in 294
the top layers of soil of savanna while greater amounts 295
were collected at 15 cm soil depth. The treatment sown 296
to upland rice with eight harrow passes, did not allow 297
the movement of free water through the soil. With 16 298
harrow passes more water was able to enter into the 299
soil especially in the top two layers. 300

Under introduced pastures, the amount of free wa- 301
ter entering and moving through the soil profile was 302
extremely high (480 cm^3 versus 0 cm^3 with eight har- 303
row passes and 490 cm^3 versus 100 cm^3 with 16 har- 304
row passes) in comparison with upland rice. 305

The chemical composition of the water collected at 306
different soil depths under upland rice and pastures is 307
shown in Table 5. Higher amounts of nutrients, espe- 308
cially at the first two depths were found under rice. 309

310 3.4. Root distribution

Examination of soil monoliths collected through 311
profile wall technique showed marked differences in 312
root penetration and root distribution between a de- 313
graded pasture and a productive pasture of *Brachiaria* 314
decumbens (Fig. 1). Differences in root biomass and 315

Table 4
Gravitational water collected (ml) at different soil depths for different systems of soil management (Matazul Farm)

Depth (cm)	Amount of water collected (ml)				
	Native savanna	Rice		Pasture	
		8 harrow passes	16 harrow passes	8 harrow passes	16 harrow passes
3	3	0	100	480	490
5	2	0	136	480	490
10	4	1	0	480	447
15	490	2	0	440	132
20	1	0	0	40	78
30	0	3	0	0	460

Table 5
Elemental composition of gravitational water collected at different depths and management systems (Matazul Farm)

Crop	Depth (cm)	N (mg l^{-1})	K (mg l^{-1})	Ca (mg l^{-1})	Mg (mg l^{-1})	Al (mg l^{-1})	Electrical conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$)	pH
Rice	3	8.5	12.0	2.9	0.5	6.0	103.8	5.8
	5	2.8	10.4	6.0	1.0	17.5	90.0	6.0
	3	1.7	4.1	1.7	0.5	2.2	463.0	5.9
	5	2.9	0.6	1.6	0.3	1.4	29.5	6.2
Pastures	10	2.0	1.4	0.8	0.2	0.4	288.0	6.1
	15	2.0	2.6	2.8	0.4	0.6	47.5	6.6
	20	2.7	1.5	2.3	0.4	0.5	56.3	6.7
	30	4.8	3.8	3.7	1.0	1.7	79.0	6.6



Fig. 1. Root distribution under degraded and productive *Brachiaria decumbens* pasture.

316 root volume at different soil depths, as influenced by
317 soil texture (clay-loam and sandy-loam) are shown in
318 Table 6. Clearly the productive pasture showed greater
319 abundance and distribution of root systems than the
320 degraded one.

4. Discussion

321
322 Good soil management should aim to create op-
323 timum physical conditions for plant growth (White,
324 1997). These include: (a) adequate aeration for roots

Table 6

Root biomass (g) and root volume (cm³) of *Brachiaria decumbens* at different soil depths as influenced by level of pasture productivity (degraded or productive) on two soil types

Soil depth (cm)	Sandy-loam			Clay-loam		
	Degraded	Productive	LSD _{0.05}	Degraded	Productive	LSD _{0.05}
Root biomass (g)						
0–15	0.7	1.3	0.64	1.0	1.7	NS
15–25	0.2	0.2	NS	0.3	0.3	NS
25–40	0.1	0.3	0.08	0.2	0.2	NS
Root volume (cm ³)						
0–5	6.5	9.7	NS	8.5	15.7	5.6
15–25	2.2	2.7	NS	2.7	2.6	NS
25–40	1.2	2.7	0.8	2.1	2.1	NS

325 and microorganisms; (b) adequate available water;
 326 (c) easy root penetration; (d) rapid and uniform seed
 327 germination; and (e) resistance of the soil to slaking,
 328 surface sealing and accelerated erosion. Results
 329 from this study indicate that change in land use to
 330 deep-rooted tropical pasture can enhance soil quality
 331 by improving the size distribution of stable aggregates
 332 when compared with soils under continuous upland
 333 rice monocropping. The greater percentage of stable
 334 aggregates with introduced pastures compared with
 335 monocropping indicates that any kind of soil distur-
 336 bance negatively affects aggregate stability, possibly
 337 through its influence on soil organic matter (Hamblin,
 338 1985; Lal, 1993) or some of its components (Caron
 339 et al., 1992). Compared with native savanna, intro-
 340 duced pastures also showed higher and more stable
 341 rates of water infiltration, particularly with *A. gayanus*
 342 pasture. These results reconfirm the benefits of intro-
 343 duced pastures in improving soil quality (CIAT, 1998;
 344 Gijsman and Thomas, 1996).

345 The improvement of the structural condition of soils
 346 by pastures, when they are used for grazing, normally
 347 change to less beneficial values of porosity, infiltra-
 348 bility, etc. as a consequence of trampling. However,
 349 strategies to maintain a good soil structural quality can
 350 be developed with proper grazing management.

351 Little amount of gravitational water was collected
 352 in the top layers of soil of native savanna while greater
 353 amounts were collected at 15 cm soil depth suggest-
 354 ing the existence of preferential flow. This could be
 355 due to the wetting mechanisms dominant in the natu-
 356 ral savannas. The treatment sown to upland rice with

357 eight harrow passes, did not allow the movement of
 358 free water through the soil, probably as a result of sur-
 359 face sealing that impeded the entrance of water. Un-
 360 der 16 harrow passes more water was able to enter
 361 into the soil especially in the first two depths, show-
 362 ing that there was a better rainfall acceptance under
 363 this treatment. The greater amounts of gravitational
 364 water entering and moving through the soil profile
 365 of introduced pasture in comparison with monocrop-
 366 ping of upland rice indicates that introduced pastures
 367 are a very good alternative to improve and maintain
 368 the amount of macropores (pores that permit the free
 369 movement of water). This result confirms the bene-
 370 ficial effects of agropastoral system for improvement
 371 of these soils (Angers, 1992). Results on the chemical
 372 composition of the gravitational water collected indi-
 373 cate the beneficial effects of introduced pastures both
 374 on water and nutrient redistribution in the top-soil lay-
 375 ers. However, it is important to note that pastures were
 376 sown a year before rice.

377 Four aspects of the research deserve to be empha-
 378 sized. First, the methodology used was appropriate as
 379 it was possible to collect drainage water and differenti-
 380 ate between treatments. Second, there was a very high
 381 variability in the way the water moved into the soil
 382 (preferential flow). Third, the amount of nutrients that
 383 moved from one depth to the other was a function of
 384 the total amount of water draining through soil profile.
 385 Fourth, the greater capacity of the pastures for facili-
 386 tating a better movement and distribution of nutrients
 387 and water could be used for improving soil physical
 388 conditions.

389 **5. Conclusions**

390 This study shows that change in land use as introduced
 391 pastures can enhance soil quality by improv-
 392 ing the size distribution of stable aggregates, water in-
 393 filtration rates and rainfall acceptance capacity when
 394 compared with soils under monocropping. We suggest
 395 that the intensive and sustainable use of these soils, is
 396 only possible if an “arable” or “productive layer” is
 397 produced and maintained, i.e. a layer with little phys-
 398 ical, chemical and biological constraints. One option
 399 to achieve this arable layer is the use of introduced
 400 pastures with deep-rooting abilities that can result in
 401 increased soil organic matter and associated improve-
 402 ments in soil physical and chemical properties. One
 403 land management option that can achieve these im-
 404 provements is agropastoralism whereby pastures and
 405 crops are grown in short-term rotations.

406 **Acknowledgements**

407 We are grateful to Instituto Colombiano para el
 408 Desarrollo de la Ciencia y la Tecnología “Francisco
 409 José de Caldas”, Colombia (COLCIENCIAS) for
 410 their financial support to field studies in the Llanos of
 411 Colombia.

412 **References**

413 Amézquita, E., Rao, I.M., Molina, D.L., Phiri Lal, S., Thomas, R.J.,
 414 2000. Constructing an arable layer: key issue for sustainable
 415 agriculture in tropical savanna soils. Paper presented at ISCO
 416 Conference. Fort Worth, Texas, USA, July 2000.
 417 Amézquita, E., Preciado, G., Arias, D.M., Thomas, R.J., Friesen,
 418 D.K., Sanz, J.I., 1998a. Soil physical characteristics under
 419 different land use systems and duration on the Colombian
 420 savannas. In: Proceedings of the 16th World Congress of Soil
 421 Science. Summaries, Symposium No. 2, Montpellier, France,
 422 p. 43.
 423 Amézquita, E., Barrios, E., Rao, I.M., Thomas, R.J., Sanz, J.I.,
 424 Hoyos, P., Molina, D.L., Chávez, L.F., Alvarez, A., Galvis,
 425 J.H., 1998b. Improvement of some soil physical conditions
 426 through tillage. CIAT PE-2 Annual Report 1998. CIAT, Cali,
 427 Colombia, pp. 57–59.
 428 Amézquita, E., 1998. Hacia la sostenibilidad de los suelos de los
 429 Llanos Orientales. In: Memorias “Manejo de Suelos e Impacto
 430 Ambiental” IX Congreso Colombiano de la Ciencia del Suelo,
 431 Paipa. Sociedad Colombiana de la Ciencia del Suelo, Bogotá,
 432 Colombia, 21–24 October 1998, pp. 106–120.

Angers, D.A., 1992. Changes in soil aggregation and organic 433
 carbon under corn and alfalfa. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 56, 434
 1244–1249. 435
 Angers, D.A., Mehuys, G.R., 1993. Aggregate stability to water. 436
 In: Carter, M.R. (Ed.), *Methods of Soil Analysis*. CRC Press, 437
 Boca Raton, FL, pp. 651–657. 438
 Boomman, J.G., 1997. Farmers' success with tropical grasses: crop- 439
 pasture rotations in mixed farming in East Africa. Netherlands 440
 Development Assistance (NEDA), Information Department,
 Ministry of Foreign Affairs, The Hague, The Netherlands, 96 pp. 441
 Bower, H., 1986. Intake rate: cylinder infiltrometer. In: Klute, 442
 A. (Ed.), *Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 1*. American Society 443
 of Agronomy and Soil Science Society, Madison, WI, USA, 444
 pp. 825–843. 445
 Caron, J., Kay, B.D., Perfect, E., 1992. Short-term decrease in 446
 soil structural stability following bromegrass establishment on 447
 a clay loam. *Soil Tillage Res.* 25, 167–185. 448
 CIAT (Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical), 1998. 449
 Annual Report PE-2, Overcoming Soil Degradation, 81 pp. 450
 Drury, C.F., Stone, J.A., Findlay, W.L., 1991. Microbial biomass 451
 and soil structure associated with corn, grasses, and legumes. 452
Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 55, 805–811. 453
 Franzluebbers, A.J., Wright, S.F., Stuedemann, J.A., 2000. Soil 454
 aggregation and glomalin under pastures in the Southern 455
 Piedmont USA. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 64, 1018–1026. 456
 Hamblin, A.P., 1985. The influence of soil structure on water 457
 movement, crop root growth, and water uptake. *Adv. Agronomy* 458
 38, 95–158. 459
 Hamblin, A.P., 1991. Sustainable agricultural systems: what are 460
 the appropriate measures for soil structure? *Aust. J. Soil Res.* 461
 29, 709–715. 462
 Gijsman, A.J., Thomas, R.J., 1995. Aggregate size distribution 463
 and stability of an Oxisol under legume-based and pure grass 464
 pastures in the Eastern Colombian savannas. *Aust. J. Soil Res.* 465
 33, 153–165. 466
 Gijsman, A.J., Thomas, R.J., 1996. Evaluation of some physical 467
 properties of an oxisol after conversion of native savanna into 468
 legume-based or pure grass pastures. *Trop. Grassl.* 30, 237–248. 469
 Kemper, W.D., Rosenau, R.C., 1986. Aggregate stability and size 470
 distribution. In: Klute, A. (Ed.), *Methods of Soil Analysis. Part* 471
1. American Society of Agronomy and Soil Science Society, 472
 Madison, WI, USA, pp. 425–442. 473
 Lal, R., 1993. Tillage effects on soil degradation, soil resilience, 474
 soil quality and sustainability. *Soil Tillage Res.* 27, 1–8 475
 Lopes, A., Ayarza, M.A., Thomas, R.J., 1999. Sistemas 476
 agropastoriles en las sabanas de América Latina tropical: 477
 lecciones del desarrollo agrícola de los Cerrados de Brasil. 478
 In: Guimarães, E.P., Sanz, J.I., Rao, I.M., Amézquita, M.C., 479
 Amézquita, E. (Eds.), *Sistemas Agropastoriles en Sabanas* 480
Tropicales de América Latina. CIAT/EMBRAPA, Cali, 481
 Colombia, pp. 9–30. 482
 Phiri, S., Amézquita, E., Rao, I.M., Singh, B.R., 2001. Disc 483
 harrowing intensity and its impact on soil properties and plant 484
 growth of agropastoral systems in the Llanos of Colombia. 485
Soil Tillage Res. 62, 131–143. 486
 Preciado, L.G., 1997. Influencia del tiempo de uso del suelo en 487
 las propiedades físicas, en la productividad y sostenibilidad del 488
 489

- 490 cultivo de arroz en Casanare. Tesis de Maestría. Universidad
491 Nacional de Colombia, Sede Palmira, 111 pp. 499
- 492 Sanchez, P., Salinas, J.G., 1981. Low-input technology for
493 managing Oxisols and Ultisols in tropical America. Adv.
494 Agronomy 34, 280–406. 500
- 495 Schuster, J.L., 1964. Root development of native plants under
496 three grazing intensities. Ecology 45, 63–70. 501
- 497 Thomas, R.J., Ayarza, M.A., 1999. Sustainable land management
498 for the Oxisols of the Latin American savannas: dynamics
of soil organic matter and indicators of soil quality. Centro
Internacional de Agricultura Tropical (CIAT), Cali, Colombia,
231 pp. 502
- Thomas, R.J., Fisher, M.J., Ayarza, M.A., Sanz, J.I., 1995. 501
The role of forage grasses and legumes in maintaining the
productivity of acid soils in Latin America. In: Lal, R.,
Stewart, J.B. (Eds.), Soil Management: Experimental Basis for
Sustainability and Environmental Quality. Advanced Science
Series, Lewis Publishers, Boca Raton, USA, pp. 61–83. 504
- White, R.E., 1997. Principles and Practice of Soil Science. The Soil
as a Natural Resource, third ed. Blackwell Science, UK, 348 pp. 505
- 506
507
508