Soil Property Variations Under Different Land Use/ Cover Types In Traditional Agricultural Landscape In Northeast India

T SHIMRAH¹*, KS RAO² AND KG SAXENA³

- ¹ Assistant Professor, University School of Environment Management, GGS IP University, New Delhi, Pin 110078,
- ² Professor, Department of Botany, University of Delhi, Delhi, Pin 110007
- ³ Professor School of Environmental Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, Pin 110067

*E-mail: tsshimrah@gmail.com

Received: July 10, 2015 Revised: September 9, 2015 Accepted: September 17, 2015

Published online: September 30, 2015 The Author(s) 2015. This article is published with open access at www.chitkara.edu.in/publications

Abstract Clearing of forests and their subsequent conversion into croplands greatly influence soils in terms of its water holding capacity, structure stability and compactness, nutrient supply and storage as well as its biological life. Consequently, many agricultural soils in the tropics are now below their potential levels. In this paper we are reporting that there is expansion of agricultural land use in Northeast India at the expense of forest area in order to meet increasing human population and market demands. New land use/ cover types are also being introduced for commercial and well as subsistence purpose. On the other hand fallow period of shifting agriculture has been reduced. We suggest that a minimum fallow period of seven years is necessary sufficiency of soil nutrients and vegetation in this humid subtropical mountain landscape of Northeast India.

1. INTRODUCTION

The importance of agroecosystems as a sink for CO_2 has been recognized since increased yields, decreased tillage and increased residue inputs lead to accumulations of soil carbon (Civeira, 2011). Understanding the effect of land management practices on soil property changes is quite important for the prediction of soil behaviour and its response to different management options (Ketema and Yimer, 2014).Intensive cropping promotes high levels of nutrient

Journal of Chemistry, Environmental Sciences and its Applications Vol. 2, No. 1 September 2015 pp. 73–97



Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S. Saxena, K.G. extraction from soils without natural replenishment (Alam and Salahin, 2013). Clearing of forests and their subsequent conversion into croplands deprives soils its water holding capacity, structure stability and compactness, nutrient supply and storage as well as its biological life (Vitorello et al., 1989; Sombroek et al., 1993; Wairiu and Lal, 2003; Rasiah et al., 2004). Consequently, many agricultural soils in the tropics are now below their potential levels (Sombroek et al., 1993). Studies in the tropics have shown significant changes in soil organic carbon (SOC) following conversion of natural forest into cultivation, and these changes have been shown to affect soil fertility (Brown and Lugo, 1990; Piccolo et al., 1994; Tiessen et al., 1994; Fernandes et al., 1997; Neill et al., 1997; Dominy et al., 2002, Ramakrishnan, et al., 2003). Lugo et al. (1986) and Lepsch et al. (1994) have also indicated that forested lands converted into cultivated areas in tropical regions undergo important changes in soil properties, including loss of organic matter, increase in bulk density and decrease in pH and exchangeable cations.

Understanding change on soil properties due to land use/cover change in regional to global scale is important aspect for framing land management policies. Land use change, mainly through conversion of natural vegetation to cropland and/or grazing, may influence many natural phenomena and ecological processes (Turner, 1989), leading to a remarkable change in soil properties. Solomon et al. (2002) reported a significant reduction in SOC after conversion of humid tropical forests to maize (Zea mays) cultivation in the south-eastern Ethiopia, with SOC stocks ranging from 58.3 to 63.9 Mg C ha⁻¹ in forest soils and 33.9 to 39.7 Mg C ha⁻¹ in cultivated soils. Similarly, Lemenih and Itanna (2004) found significantly lower soil carbon (C) and total nitrogen (N) stocks in cropland soils than the soil C and total N stocks under the natural vegetation in the south central part of Ethiopia. Apart from an initial reconnaissance (Weinert and Mazurek, 1984) and recent report on soil property variations under natural vegetations at different topographic aspects (Yimer et al., 2006a,b), there has been no study conducted so far to address the impact of conversion of native forests into agricultural lands.

Forest cover of India as per State of Forest Report 2013 assessment is 697,898 sq km which is 21.23 per cent of the geographical area of the country reflecting an increase of 5,871 sq km from 2011 assessment (FSI, 2013). Further there is an increase forest cover of 2,396 sq km in tribal districts of India. Of the 15 states/union territories of India having forest cover of more than 33 per cent of the geographical area, all the states of Northeast India figure in the list with an average of 70.03 per cent. However, with respect of forest cover in 2011, except in the state of Assam where there is no net decrease or increase, only one state; Meghalaya recorded increase in are. Most of the reasons for change are attributed to shifting agriculture and biotic pressures on the forest.Of late, Northeast has become an area of particular concern due to the rapid land conversion practices, sensitivity to human impact and poor agricultural managements in the traditional shifting agricultural areas with fragile tropical mountain and hill ecosystems containing diverse gene reserves and an important source of water draining to the lowlands of the Assam valley and Bangladesh. The main aim of this study was to assess the important physico-chemical properties of soils under different land use systems and changesin Domong and Yogong village landscape.

Soil Property Variations Under Different Land Use/Cover Types In Traditional Agricultural Landscape In Northeast India

2. METHODS

2.1 Study area

The study was conducted in two representative traditional shifting agricultural villages located at 28°10'N to 28°30'N latitude and 94°40'E to 95°00'E longitude at the altitudinal range of 600-1600 masl. This area falls under the south western region of the Dihang-Dibang Biosphere Reserve which constitutes an area of 5,112 km² in the districts of West Siang, Upper Siang and Dibang valley of Arunachal Pradesh (Figure 1). Both the study sites are inhabited by 'Adi' community of Tibeto-Mongoloid race; one of the major tribes of Arunachal Pradesh. The study sites are located in a tropical humid environment with 4 distinct seasons in a year, namely, spring (March-April), summer (May-August), autumn (October-November) and winter (December-February). The mean annual minimum and maximum temperature varies between 12°C and 37°C respectively. More than 80% of the rainfall occurs during monsoon (May-September) registering about 60-80% relative humidity. The area experiences occasional winter rainfall too. Though soil survey of the region has not been carried out, some generalization can be made based on the information available for the state. Arunachal Pradesh can be divided into four distinct zones: (a) snowcapped mountains (> 5500 m amsl.) (b) lower Himalayan ranges (3500-5500 m amsl.) (c) the sub-himalayan Siwalik hills (700-3500 m amsl.) (d) the eastern Assam plains. Soils occurring in these physiographic zones are inceptisols, entisols, ultisols and alfisols. The remaining soils can be classified as miscellaneous. Soils of warm perhumid eastern Himalayan ecosystem with a thermic temperature regime are highly acidic inceptisols and entisols. Soils of warm perhumidsiwalik system with a hyperthermic temperature regime are also entisols and inceptisols with a high to moderate acidic conditions.



Figure 1: The study sites

3. SOIL SAMPLES

To assess the soil characteristics in relation to land use land cover change, three replicates of soil samples from all land use types from both the representative village landscapes were collected at 0-30 cm depth using steel corer (6.5 cm inner diameter) and brought to the laboratory. Samples of each replicate were mixed thoroughly and sieved through 2 mm mesh screen after proper drying in the sun. Soil pH was measured in 1: 2.5 fresh soil-water (w/v) suspensions with an electric digital pH meter (Decibel). Texture was determined by Bouyoucos hydrometric method (Allen et al., 1989). Organic carbon and total nitrogen were determined by using CHNSO analyser. Available phosphorus was determined colorimetrically (Labmed colorimeter) by molybdenum blue method after extracting soil samples with 0.03 N ammonium fluoride in 0.025 N HCl (Olsen and Sommers, 1982).

4. RESULTS

4.1 Physical properties of soil

All soils samples were assigned to sandy loam texture class based on the particle size distribution using the soil textural triangle (Table 1-2). In both the village landscapes, the sand content consistently increased with increase in jhum period but decreased as the length of fallow increased. Wet paddy fields on slope have more sand content than wet paddy fields in valley and least disturbed forests in Domong has less sand content than more disturbed. However in the case of forests of Yogong, it was found to be just reverse. Among plantation types in Domong village landscapes, toko has the largest sand content followed by orange, bamboo, banana and timber, respectively. Similar trend was observed in Yogong village too. The proportion of silt and clay in the soil of both village landscapes was also similar. The sand, silt and clay content range from 64.68 to 76.77%, 11.42 to 17.82 % and 11.30 to 19.07%, respectively, in Domong village and 63.10 to 71.74%, 13.81 to 20.58% and 13.10, respectively, in Yogong village landscapes. Soil pH did not show much variation between the two village landscapes. All soil samples were found to be acidic; pH ranging from 4.86 to 6.8 (Table 1-2).

4.2 Chemical properties of soil (organic carbon, total nitrogen and available phosphorus).

In these two village landscapes, content of organic carbon, total nitrogen and available phosphorus was maximum in both the soil profiles in first year jhum followed by 7th year fallow, 2nd year jhum and forests which have more or less similar content. Wet paddy field has comparatively low content of C and N but more P. Among plantations, soils of bamboo and timber plantation have high content of all these nutrients as compared to orange, toko and banana plantations. In the case of jhum fallow, concentration of CNP is increases with increase in fallow period (Figure 2). To test significant difference among the land uses and between land uses ANOVA and t-test respectively, were applied (Table 3-9).

5. DISCUSSION

Soil texture in all land uses was consistent in both village landscapes. The sand content increases with increase in jhum crop period in both the village landscapes but decreases with increase in jhum fallow period. In contrast, both silt and clay contents decrease with increase in jhum crop period but increase as the jhum fallow period increases. Eyre (1968) reported that loss of finer soil particles, *i.e.*, clay component, increases the proportion of sand in soil during the early developmental stages after disturbance in terrestrial ecosystem. In

Shimrah, T.

Rao, K.S.

Saxena, K.G.

Land use	Class	рН	Clay	Silt	Sand	Organic carbon	Total nitrogen	Available phosphorus
	1st year jhum	5.05 ± 0.08	15.98 ± 1.72	14.79±2.82	68.80±1.92	2.23±0.38	0.19 ± 0.03	7.87±0.90
Jhum cropland	2 nd year jhum	5.30±0.05	11.30 ± 1.88	13.01 ± 1.29	74.02±1.67	1.88 ± 0.09	0.16 ± 0.01	5.17 ± 0.51
	3rd year jhum	6.30±0.06	11.53 ± 0.75	11.70 ± 0.69	76.77±1.03	1.85 ± 0.11	0.16 ± 0.01	4.42±0.56
	1st year fallow	5.15 ± 0.08	15.56 ± 2.10	13.67±0.93	70.77±1.29	2.13±0.36	0.20 ± 0.03	4.75±0.77
Jhum fallow	3 rd year fallow	5.18 ± 0.10	17.06±1.75	16.56±1.76	66.38±2.89	2.16 ± 0.37	0.19 ± 0.03	$4.60{\pm}0.68$
	7 th year fallow	4.96±0.09	16.39 ± 1.10	16.42 ± 1.01	67.19±1.75	2.72±0.23	0.20 ± 0.03	7.15 ± 1.06
	Bamboo	5.48 ± 0.07	18.10 ± 1.92	16.57 ± 1.08	65.33±2.73	2.04±0.13	$0.20{\pm}0.03$	6.42 ± 1.02
	Banana	5.96 ± 0.07	19.07 ± 1.24	15.71 ± 1.01	65.22±0.33	1.86 ± 0.06	0.15 ± 0.01	6.35±0.26
Plantation	Orange	5.02 ± 0.11	15.98 ± 0.40	17.45 ± 0.90	66.57±1.04	1.85 ± 0.03	0.19 ± 0.01	$4.00{\pm}0.58$
	Timber	5.35 ± 0.03	18.61 ± 0.40	16.71 ± 0.93	64.68±1.25	2.49±0.47	0.23 ± 0.02	$5.00{\pm}0.81$
	Toko	5.68 ± 0.18	14.25 ± 0.95	11.42 ± 0.50	74.32±0.46	1.89 ± 0.25	0.16 ± 0.01	5.50±1.73
Forest	Least disturbed	4.86±0.01	14.35±1.16	17.82±1.57	67.83±2.43	2.30±0.42	0.15 ± 0.03	4.01±0.49
	Disturbed	5.12 ± 0.04	14.31 ± 0.86	16.36 ± 1.02	69.33±1.87	2.28±0.45	0.19 ± 0.03	6.72±0.70
Wet paddy	WPF in valley	6.02 ± 0.03	15.09 ± 0.65	16.51 ± 0.70	68.40±0.54	1.50 ± 0.22	0.12 ± 0.01	5.92±0.77
fields (WPF)	WPF on slope	6.16±0.06	14.66 ± 2.10	15.81 ± 0.94	69.53±1.32	1.25±0.12	0.11 ± 0.01	5.34±0.45

Table 1: Soil pH, clay, silt, sand, organic carbon, total nitrogen and available phosphorus in Domong village landscape

 Table 2.:
 Soil pH, clay, silt, sand, organic carbon, total nitrogen and available phosphorus in Yogong village landscape

and use	Clace	Ни	Clav	Silt	Sand	Organic	Total	Available
	66010	h11	Ciay	700	Danu	carbon	nitrogen	phosphorus
Thum anomloud	1st year jhum	4.95±0.06	16.05 ± 2.24	17.26±1.18	66.88±1.06	4.25±1.05	0.35 ± 0.11	6.80 ± 0.50
Juun cropianu	2 nd year jhum	5.54±0.12	15.41 ± 0.96	15.99 ± 0.68	68.60±0.75	2.87±1.60	0.27 ± 0.12	4.96±0.52
	1 st year fallow	6.54±0.08	14.45±0.61	13.81±0.91	71.74±0.71	3.66±0.03	0.33 ± 0.03	3.29±1.06
Jhum fallowland	3 rd year fallow	5.99±0.04	18.45±1.21	15.61±0.56	65.94±0.76	2.79±0.31	0.30±0.03	4.70±1.62
	7 th year fallow	5.94±0.05	16.32±0.08	20.58±0.94	63.10±0.90	3.64±0.19	0.34 ± 0.03	7.02 ± 0.30
Forest	Least disturbed	5.10±0.14	15.07±0.40	15.88±0.66	69.05±0.43	3.31±0.29	0.31 ± 0.04	5.99±0.40
	Disturbed	5.43±0.06	13.10±0.57	16.15 ± 0.62	70.75±0.96	3.44±0.05	0.26 ± 0.01	6.62±0.63
Wet paddy	WPF in valley	5.87±0.07	18.51±0.75	17.35±0.43	64.14±0.52	2.36±0.26	0.23 ± 0.01	5.85±0.91
fields (WPF)	WPF on slope	5.90±0.09	18.36±1.88	16.87±0.58	64.77±1.38	2.00±0.45	0.19 ± 0.03	5.08±1.43

Shimrah, T.

Rao, K.S.

Saxena, K.G.

				De	mong					Y	gnoge		
	Source of Variation	SS	df	SW	F	P-value	F crit	SS	df	SW	F	P-value	F crit
	Between Groups	5.7518	14	0.4108	4.9898	0.0001	2.0374	11.9492	8	1.4936	3.2416	0.0182	2.5102
Organic	Within Groups	2.4701	30	0.0823				8.2939	18	0.4608			
	Total	8.2219	44					20.2431	26				
	Between Groups	0.0441	14	0.0031	6.1530	0.00002	2.0374	0.0706	8	0.0088	2.5111	0.0499	2.5102
Total nitrogen	Within Groups	0.0153	30	0.0005				0.0632	18	0.0035			
1090nm	Total	0.0594	44					0.1338	26				
	Between Groups	56.7920	14	4.0566	5.9892	0.00002	2.0374	34.5896	~	4.3237	4.9968	0.0022	2.5102
Available	Within Groups	20.3194	30	0.6773				15.5752	18	0.8653			
mondored	Total	77.1114	4					50.1648	26				

Table 3: ANOVA for organic carbon, total nitrogen and available phosphorus in Domong and Yogong village landscapes

Table 4:t-test for organic carbon of 0-30 cm soil among different land uses in Domong villaget-Test:Paired Two Sample for Means

	J-1 vr	s J-2	J-1 vr	s J-3	J-2 v	rs J-3	Fal-1 vi	rs Fal-3	Fal-1 vr	s Fal-7	Fal-3 vr:	s Fal-7
	VarI	Var 2	Var I	Var 2	Var I	Var 2	Var I	Var 2	VarI	Var 2	Var I	Var 2
Mean	2.2313	1.8833	2.2313	1.852	1.8833	1.852	2.1333	2.158	2.1333	2.72	2.1577	2.72
Variance	0.1463	0.0077	0.146322	0.0121	0.0077	0.0121	0.1277	0.134	0.1277	0.0516	0.1336	0.052
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.5580		-0.3275		0.9668		0.5156		0.5833		0.9967	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0		0		0		0	
df	2		2		2		2		2		2	
t Stat	1.3781	S	1.5235	NS	1.6029	NS	-0.1185	NS	-3.4938	S	-6.9413	S
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.1511		0.1335		0.1251		0.4583		0.0365		0.0101	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.92		2.9192		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.3021		0.2671		0.2501		0.9165		0.0731		0.0201	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	
	Ora vr	s Bam	Bam vr	's Ban	Or vi	rs Tim	Ora vi	rs Tok	Ora vi	s Ban	Bam vr	s Tim
Mean	1.854	2.039	2.039	1.8613	1.854	2.494333	1.854	1.886	1.854	1.8613	2.039	0.225
Variance	0.001	0.0181	0.0181	0.0031	0.0010	0.2237	0.0010	0.062	0.0010	0.0031	0.0181	4E-04
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.6261		0.9828		-0.0687		0.9204		-0.7594		0.0982	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0		0		0		0	
df	2		2		2		2		2		2	
t Stat	-2.04344	NS	3.8098	S	-2.3290	NS	-0.2547	NS	-0.1537	NS	23.4102	S

Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S.

Saxena, K.G.

Var 2 1.2520.015 Fal-3 vrs Fal-7 WPF Va vrs Sl SZ \mathfrak{c} 0.0018 -0.98740.0009 0.0495 2.9200 Var 1 2.9200 4.3027 1.4997 1.25204.3027 0.1686 0.3371 ŝ 0 2 For-U vrs For-D Var 2 1.95070.0832 Fal-1 vrs Fal-7 NS \mathfrak{c} 1.6357 -1.2210 0.8919 0.44600.0292 0.1732 2.9120 0.3465 Varl 2.9200 4.3027 -0.8847 4.3027 2 0 3 Var 2 0.003Fal-1 vrs Fal-3 1.861Toko vrs Ban NS ŝ 0.82280.4114 2.9200 4.3027 1.8863 0.0621 -0.9534 2.9120 0.8993 4.3027 Var I 0.1431 0.4497 ŝ 0 2 Var 2 1.8613 0.0031 NS Tim vrs Ban ŝ J-2 vrs J-3 0.0726 0.1453 4.3027 2.4943 0.2237 0.7012 2.9200 4.3027 Var I 2.9192 2.5157 0.1283 0.0641 ŝ 0 2 Var 2 1.8863 0.0620 NS Tim vrs Toko \mathfrak{c} J-1 vrs J-3 0.22460.0626 2.4943 0.0313 -0.45331.68090.1174 2.9200 0.2349 2.9200 4.3027 4.3027 Var I 2 \mathfrak{c} 0 Var 2 1.8863 0.0621 NS Bam vrs Toko \mathfrak{c} J-1 vrs J-2 0.0889 0.1772 4.3027 -0.88112.9120 4.3027 2.9200 2.039 0.7084 0.0181 0.2761 0.5521 Varl 0 2 3 t Critical two-tail Mean Difference t Critical one-tail t Critical two-tail t Critical one-tail P(T<=t) two-tail P(T<=t) two-tail P(T<=t) one-tail P(T<=t) one-tail Hypothesized Observations Correlation Variance Pearson Mean t Stat df

Var, Variable, J-1, jhum 1ª year; J-2, jhum 2ª year; J-3, jhum 3rd year; Fal-1, fallow of 1ª year; Fal-3, fallow of 3rd year, Fal-7, fallow of 7th year, Ora, orange plantation; Bam, bamboo plantation; Tim, timber plantation; Tok, toko plantation; Ban, banana plantation; For-U, forest undisturbed, For-D, forest disturbed; WPF-V, wet paddy field in valley; WPF-S, wet paddy field on slope.

Continues Table 4

Table 5: t-test for total nitrogen content in 0-30 cm of soil in different land uses in Domong village t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means

	J-1 v	rs J-2	J-1 vi	rs J-3	J-2 vi	s J-3	Fal-1 v	rs Fal-3	Fal1 vı	s Fal-7	Fal-3 vr	s Fal-7
	Var I	Var 2	Var I	Var 2	Var 1	Var 2	Var 1	Var 2	Var 1	Var 2	Var 1	Var 2
Mean	0.1913	0.1577	0.1913	0.1583	0.1577	0.1583	0.1987	0.1900	0.1987	0.198	0.19	0.198
Variance	0.0009	3.0E-05	0.0009	7.2E-05	3.0E-05	7.2E-05	0.0009	0.0008	0.0009	0.0010	0.0008	0.0010
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.5355		-0.4607		0.9963		-0.5017		0.8360		-0.8941	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0		0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2		2		2		2	
t Stat	1.7375		1.6317		-0.3780		0.2946		0.0641		-0.2352	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.1122		0.1222		0.3709		0.3980		0.4774		0.4180	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.2244		0.2443		0.7418		0.7961		0.9547		0.8360	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	
	Ora av	rrs Bam	Ora vi	rs Tim	Ora vi	rs Tok	Ora vi	rs Ban	Bam vr	s Tim	Bam v	rs Tok
Mean	0.1937	0.1963	0.1937	0.2250	0.1937	0.1573	0.1937	0.1543	0.1963	0.2250	0.1963	0.1573
Variance	8.2E- 05	0.0009	8.2E- 05	0.0004	8.2E-05	0.0001	8.2E-05	7.4E-05	0.0009	0.0004	0.0009	0.0001
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	0.0436		0.5196		0.0240		-0.9821		0.8763		-0.9977	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0		0		0		0	

Commues tuble J		•	,	•	,			•		,		
	v I-L	rs J-2	I-L	rs J-3	J-2 vi	rs J-3	Fal-1 v	rs Fal-3	Fal1 vi	cs Fal-7	Fal-3 vr	s Fal-7
	Var I	Var 2	Var 1	Var 2	Var 1	Var 2	Var I	Var 2	Var I	Var 2	Var 1	Var 2
Df	2		2		2		2		2		2	
t Stat	-0.1459		-3.0089		4.1830		3.8673		-3.1134		1.5735	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.4487		0.0475		0.0263		0.0304		0.0448		0.1281	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.8974		0.0950		0.0527		0.0608		0.0895		0.2563	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	
	Bam v	'rs Ban	Tim vr	s Toko	Tim vi	rs Ban	Toko v	rs Ban	For-U vr	s For-D	WPF- WPI	V vrs F. S
Mean	0.1963	0.1543	0.2250	0.1573	0.2250	0.1543	0.1573	0.1543	0.1473	0.1850	0.1207	0.1057
Variance	0.0009	7.4E-05	0.0004	0.0001	0.0004	7.4E-05	0.0001	7.4E-05	0.0011	0.0008	0.0002	0.0002
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.2309		-0.8417		-0.6711		0.1645		-0.9943		-0.9281	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0		0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2		2		2		2	
t Stat	2.1536		3.6656		4.4447		0.3780		-1.0795		0.9993	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.0821		0.0335		0.0235		0.3709		0.1966		0.2115	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.1641		0.0670		0.0471		0.7418		0.3932		0.4229	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	

* Var, Variable, J-1, jhum 1^s year; J-2, jhum 2nd year; F-J, jhum 3rd year; Fal-1, fallow of 1st year, Cora, orange plantation; Bam, bamboo plantation; Tim, timber plantation; Tok, toko plantation; Ban, banana plantation; For-U, forest undisturbed, For-D, forest disturbed; WPF-V, wet paddy field in valley; WPF-S, wet paddy field on slope.

Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S.

Kao, K.S. Saxena, K.G.

Table 6:t-test of available phosphorus in 0-30 cm depth of soil in different land uses in Domong village landscapest-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means

	J-1 vi	s J-2	J-1 vrs	s J-3	J-2 vr	s J-3	Fal-1 vrs	s Fal-3	Fal-1 vrs	: Fal-7	Fal-3 vi	s Fal-7
	Var I	Var2	Var I	Var2	Var I	Var2	Var 1	Var2	Var I	Var2	Var I	Var2
Mean	7.8700	5.1715	7.8700	4.4172	5.1715	4.4172	4.7526	4.6007	4.7526	7.1476	4.6007	7.1476
Variance	0.8103	0.2571	0.8103	0.3136	0.2571	0.3138	0.5975	0.4646	0.5975	1.1155	0.4646	1.1155
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.8365		0.9865		-0.9150		-0.305		0.9110		0.1150	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0		0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2		2		2		2	
t Stat	3.4542	S	16.6354	S	1.2510	NS	0.2236	NS	-8.7339	S	-3.7089	S
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.0373		0.0018		0.1687		0.4219		0.0065		0.0328	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.0746		0.0036		0.3374		0.8438		0.0129		0.0656	
t Critical two- tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	
	Ora vr	s Bam	Ora vr	s Tim	Ora vrs	t Toko	Oravrs	Ban	Bam vr	s Tim	Ват и	s Toko
Mean	4.0111	6.7187	4.0111	5.9237	4.0111	5.3354	4.0111	6.4168	6.7186	5.9237	6.7186	5.3354
Variance	0.2374	0.4832	0.2374	0.5939	0.2374	0.2068	0.2374	1.0399	0.4832	0.5939	0.4832	0.2068
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S. Saxena, K.G.

	J-1 vr	s J-2	J-1 vr	s J-3	J-2 vr:	s J-3	Fal-1 vrs	s Fal-3	Fal-1 vrs	: Fal-7	Fal-3 vi	s Fal-7
	Var I	Var2	Var I	Var2	Var I	Var2	Var 1	Var2	Var I	Var2	Var I	Var2
Pearson Correlation	-0.7204		0.7843		-0.9270		0.9562		-0.9953		0.4075	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0		0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2		2		2		2	
t Stat	-4.2657	S	-6.7297	s	-2.4806	NS	-7.2861	s	0.9404	NS	3.6436	s
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.0254		0.0107		0.0656		0.0092		0.2232		0.0339	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.0508		0.0214		0.1313		0.0183		0.4463		0.0678	
t Critical two- tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027		4.30267		4.3027		4.3027	
	Ä	am vrs Ba	, a	Tim vı	rs Tok	Tim vr	s Ban	Ток и	rs Ban	For-U vi	rs For-D	WPF- Va vrs WPF-S
Mean	6.7187	6.4168	5.9237	5.3354	5.9237	6.4168	5.3354	6.4168	3.9979	5.5010	6.3543	4.9992
Variance	0.4832	1.0399	0.5939	0.2068	0.5939	1.0399	0.2068	1.0399	0.3375	2.9849	0.0665	0.6508
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.8918		-0.4943		0.9315		-0.7766		-0.6757		-0.2219	

Continues Table 6

Continues Table 6

s Fal-7	Var2			NS				
Fal-3 vr	Var I	0	2	2.6086	0.0604	2.9200	0.1209	4.3027
Fal-7	Var2			NS				
Fal-1 vrs	Var I	0	2	-1.2036	0.1759	2.9200	0.3519	4.3027
Fal-3	Var2			NS				
Fal-1 vrs	Var 1	0	2	-1.3355	0.1567	2.9200	0.3134	4.3027
s J-3	Var2			NS				
J-2 vrs	Var I	0	2	-2.0730	0.0870	2.9200	0.1739	4.3027
; J-3	Var2			NS				
J-1 vrs	Var 1	0	2	0.9514	0.2209	2.9200	0.4418	4.3027
s J-2	Var2			NS				
J-1 vr	Var I	0	2	0.3131	0.3919	2.9200	0.7838	4.3027
		Hypothesized Mean Difference	Df	t Stat	P(T<=t) one-tail	t Critical one-tail	P(T<=t) two-tail	t Critical two- tail

* Var, Variable, J-1, jhum 1st year; J-2, jhum 2nd year; Fal-1, fallow of 1st year; Fal-3, fallow of 3rd year; Fal-7, fallow of 7th year. Ora, orange plantation: Bam, bamboo plantation; Tim, timber plantation; Tok, toko plantation; Ban, bamana plantation; For-U, forest undisturbed, For-D, forest disturbed; WPF-V, wet paddy field in valley; WPF-S, wet paddy field on slope.

Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S.

 Table 7: t-test of organic carbon in 0-30 cm soil of different land uses in Yogong village landscape

Saxena, K.G.

t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means

	J-1 vi	rs J-2	Fal-1 vr	s Fal-3	Fal-1 vi	rs Fal-7
	Var1	Var2	Var1	Var2	Var1	Var2
Mean	4.2517	2.8687	3.6553	2.7917	3.6553	3.6417
Variance	1.0950	2.5704	0.0008	0.0932	0.0008	0.0350
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.5328		0.1430		0.4941	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2	
t Stat	1.0258	NS	4.9458	S	0.1354	NS
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.2064		0.0193		0.4523	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.4128		0.0385		0.9047	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	
	Fal-3 vi	rs Fal-7	For-U vr	s For-D	WPF- WP	V vrs F-S
Mean	2.7917	3.6417	3.3107	3.4443	2.3627	1.9957
Variance	0.0932	0.0350	0.0814	0.0027	0.0668	0.2018
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	0.9311		-0.1683		-0.1961	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2	
t Stat	-9.9669	S	-0.7758	NS	1.1342	NS
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.0050		0.2595		0.1872	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.0099		0.5191		0.3744	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	

*Var, Variable, J-1, jhum 1st year; J-2, jhum 2nd year; J-3, jhum 3rd year; Fal-1, fallow of 1st year; Fal-3, fallow of 3rd year, Fal-7, fallow of 7th year, Ora, orange plantation; Bam, bamboo plantation; Tim, timber plantation; Tok, toko plantation; Ban, banana plantation; For-U, forest undisturbed, For-D, forest disturbed; WPF-V, wet paddy field in valley; WPF-S, wet paddy field on slope.

Table 8: t-test of total nitrogen in 0-30 cm soil of different land uses in Yogong villagelandscape.

t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means

·	,		1		1	
	J-1 vi	rs J-2	Fal-1 vr	rs Fal-3	Fal-1 vi	rs Fal-7
	Var1	Var2	Var1	Var2	Var1	Var2
Mean	0.3463	0.2687	0.3280	0.2967	0.3280	0.3433
Variance	0.0118	0.0144	0.0010	0.0008	0.0010	0.0007
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.8346		-0.1856		0.6204	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2	
t Stat	0.6137		1.1546		-1.0108	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.3010		0.1838		0.2093	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.6019		0.3676		0.4185	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	
	Fal-3 vi	rs Fal-7	For-U vr	s For-D	WPF- WP	V vrs F-S
Mean	0.2967	0.3433	0.3063	0.2550	0.2307	0.1860
Variance	0.0008	0.0007	0.0017	0.0000	0.0000	0.0010
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	0.6555		-0.5732		-0.9745	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0	
Df	2		2		2	
t Stat	-3.4773		1.9607		2.1421	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.0368		0.0945		0.0827	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.0737		0.1890		0.1655	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	

Soil Property Variations Under Different Land Use/Cover Types In Traditional Agricultural Landscape In Northeast India

* Var, Variable, J-1, jhum 1st year; J-2, jhum 2nd year; J-3, jhum 3rd year; Fal-1, fallow of 1st year; Fal-3, fallow of 3rd year; Fal-7, fallow of 7th year; Ora, orange plantation; Bam, bamboo plantation; Tim, timber plantation; Tok, toko plantation; Ban, banana plantation; For-U, forest undisturbed, For-D, forest disturbed; WPF-V, wet paddy field in valley; WPF-S, wet paddy field on slope.

Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S.

Saxena, K.G.

Table 9: t-test of available phosphorus in 0-30 cm soil of different land uses inYogong village landscape

t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means

	J-1 v	rs J-2	Fal-1 vi	rs Fal-3	Fal-1 v	rs Fal-7
	Var1	Var2	Var1	Var2	Var1	Var2
Mean	6.7975	4.9631	3.2887	4.7010	3.2887	7.0192
Variance	0.2532	0.2753	1.1314	2.6159	1.1314	0.0885
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	0.2337		-0.9995		0.9517	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0	
df	2		2		2	
t Stat	4.9922	S	-0.9125	NS	-8.2211	S
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.0189		0.2289		0.0072	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.0379		0.4578		0.0145	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	
	Fal-3 v	rs Fal-7	For-U For	U vrs :-D	WPF WF	-V vrs PF-S
Mean	4.7010	7.0192	5.9893	6.6238	5.8466	5.0839
Variance	2.6159	0.0885	0.1581	0.4024	0.8314	2.0313
Observations	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pearson Correlation	-0.9609		-0.9821		0.9789	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0		0		0	
df	2		2		2	
t Stat	-2.1077	NS	-1.0694	NS	2.3411	NS
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.0848		0.1984		0.0720	
t Critical one-tail	2.9200		2.9200		2.9200	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.1696		0.3968		0.1441	
t Critical two-tail	4.3027		4.3027		4.3027	

* Var, Variable, J-1, jhum 1st year; J-2, jhum 2nd year; J-3, jhum 3rd year; Fal-1, fallow of 1st year; Fal-3, fallow of 3rd year, Fal-7, fallow of 7th year, Ora, orange plantation; Bam, bamboo plantation; Tim, timber plantation; Tok, toko plantation; Ban, banana plantation; For-U, forest undisturbed, For-D, forest disturbed; WPF-V, wet paddy field in valley; WPF-S, wet paddy field on slope.



Soil Property Variations Under Different Land Use/Cover Types In Traditional Agricultural Landscape In Northeast India

Figure 2: Organic carbon (%), total nitrogen (%) and available phosphorus (ppm) content in different land uses in Domong and Yogong village landscapes

wet paddy fields in both the study villages, the content of sand, silt and clay was uniform so is also in plantation and forest although slightly higher content in sand was found in wet paddy fields on slope (WPF-S) and disturbed forest (For-D) as compared to wet paddy field in valley (WPF-V) and undisturbed forest (For-U). As compared to other land uses, plantation of all kinds except toko plantation has lower content of sand but higher content of finer particles, *i.e.*, silt and clay. This may be attributed to plantation having fewer disturbances and less erosion as compared to other land uses. Toko plantations, on the other hand, are mostly located at the open areas and jhum fallow which facilitates greater degree of erosion of finer particles.

The soil pH was found to be acidic throughout all land uses. In Domong village landscape, lowest pH (most acidic) was observed in undisturbed forest followed by fallow of 7th year, orange plantation and jhum of 1st year respectively and highest pH was found in jhum of 3rd year followed by wet paddy fields on both slope and valley and banana plantation respectively. In Yogong village landscape, highest pH value was observed in fallow of 1st year followed by fallow of 3rd year, fallow of 7th year, and wet paddy fields respectively and lowest value of pH was observed in jhum crop field of 1st year followed by undisturbed forest, disturbed forest, jhum of 2nd year and wet paddy field in valley respectively. Across the land uses except fallow of seven years, there is not much significant variation indicating that a minimum of seven years is necessary to retain sufficient nutrient in shifting agriculture practice.

Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S. Saxena, K.G. Roder et al. (1993), depending on the vegetation cover developing during the fallow period, categorized shifting agriculture in higher elevations of Bhutan into grass fallow and bush fallow systems. The grass fallow system is used at elevations ranging from 2500 to 3800 m amsl which are generally poor in available phosphate. These soils are used as grazing land during fallow period and the vegetation cover consists mainly of grasses and short shrubs interspersed with blue pine (*Pinuswallichiana*). Soil organic carbon and total nitrogen were reduced from 3.3 and 0.17 to 0.8 and 0.08%, respectively. Such and closely similar slash-burn practices observed elsewhere (Ramakrishnan et al., 2003) are not observed in the study area.

An increase in population pressure may be reflected in terms of a number of changes shifting cultivation landscapes in highlands of Chiapas including (a) conversion of a mosaic landscape where a variety of forest successional stages coexist with fertile cropland to a more homogeneous landscape characterized by larger crop fields, smaller and more isolated forest patches, and shorter fallow periods (b) removal of timber/wood before burning the slash (c) selective extraction of oak firewood since the early stages of fallow period favouring pine dominance. Pines and oaks differ in their morphology, resprouting ability, shade tolerance, life history and colonizing ability. Oaks are mostly logged at pre-reproductive age for firewood, while pines are allowed to grow up to commercial timber sizes attainable after their reproductive maturity. Pines have similar lignin contents but substantially less N and P concentrations in their green foliage and fresh or partially decomposed litter than oaks (Zublena et al., 1991; Magill and Aber, 1998). It is expected that soil fertility in pine-dominated secondary forests may be lower than in similarly aged oak-dominated stands (Duryea et al., 1999; Galindo-Jaimes et al., 2002) and pine dominance may reduce crop yields (Garcia-Barrios and Gonzalez-Espionosa, 2004). Garcia-Barrios and Gonzalez-Espionosa, (2004) concluded that human induced pine dominance could be a self-reinforcing process which has catalyzed the decline of shifting agriculture as well as soil degradation in the region. Around the study area, such practices were not observed. People removed wood from the plot after cultivation was abandoned and removed timber of only large dying trees.

Burning is also credited with increasing pH and decreasing aluminum saturation, a significant agronomic benefit on acid soils (Ahn, 1974; Ewel et al., 1981; Sanchez et al., 1983; Christanty, 1986). To minimize the loss of nitrogen and sulfur during burning, temperatures can be reduced. However, lower temperature burns also result in lowered transfer of biomass nutrients to the soil because of limited breakdown of organic matter and ash complexes (Andriesse and Koopmans, 1984). Zinke et al. (1978) found that although

calcium, phosphorus and potassium are returned primarily through residual ash, nitrogen and organic matter are added by forest fallow. Notably, because of the size of many slash-and-burn rotation systems, erosion in areas within or outside of the agroecosystem may result in sediment deposition within the agroecosystem. For example, the Dayaks of Borneo sometimes plant swamp rice at the base of steep swiddens (Dove, 1985), thereby taking advantage of the deposition of eroded sediments and associated nutrients.

Results from village-level models developed by Sankhayan and Hofstad (2001) suggest that forest degradation could be best retarded through introduction of improved agricultural techniques and marketing (*viz.*, higher cotton prices, increased rural wages and reduced charcoal prices). Agricultural intensification is important in that it can result in higher rates of carbon sequestration (Woomer et al., 1997; IPCC, 2000) and it reduces agricultural expansion which is a key driver for removal of forested land, which is the major carbon stock in many regions. Intensification may be of two types: capital led intensification involving increase in non-labour inputs such as fertilizers and capital deficient intensification which utilizes the inputs of family or hired labour but without channeling the surplus labour towards capital inputs. In this study area where the agricultural fields are located at hilly terrain, soil nutrient can be managed more effectively by soil erosion control measures through improved agricultural techniques employed in neighbouring states like Meghalaya by construction of bunds, bench terraces and contour trenching.

6. CONCLUSION

Shifting agriculture system in Northeast India, unlike most traditional shifting cultivation systems (Raintree and Warner, 1986), does not maximize returns on labour, but is perhaps the only possibility for the highland farmers to produce their staple food under the prevailing conditions. One ha of buckwheat produced with this system may release 30-90 t of CO_2 during the burning process. With a fallow period of 15-20 years this system would accumulate 0.4 -1.0 t of C/ha/year. Fallow periods of 15-20 years are required for the system to be sustainable.

Although vegetation, land management and cropping patterns in the present study area is different from the scenarios reported in studies referred in the preceding paragraph, there is a resemblance in perception of local people that sustainability demands fallow periods longer than 10 years. The yields in shifting agriculture as well as in wet paddy cultivation system of the study area are markedly higher than the yields in similar agricultural systems in other parts of the north-eastern India and elsewhere. If 15 t/ha of rice is taken as the maximum possible yield in the present study area (Turner and Haygarth, 2001),

Shimrah, T. Rao, K.S. Saxena, K.G. there is immense scope of increasing the yields in wet paddy fields. While shifting agriculture is valued as an agricultural production system resilient to climatic fluctuations, yielding a food for a balanced diet, enforcing social integration and equity and providing a buffer zone between human habitations and natural ecosystems rich in large mammals, wet paddy cultivation is valued for its high productivity.

With the kind of warm and humid climatic factors prevailing in the study area where regeneration of vegetation is fast with broadleaved plant, a minimum seven fallow years would be ideal period for recuperation of sufficient soil nutrients in this agroecosystem landscape.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The financial assistance from Ministry of Environment and Forest, Government of India, in the form of research project to carry out this study is being acknowledged. We also place on record the help extended by Dr Dinakaran for his suggestions in formulating this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ahn, P.M. (1974). Some observations on basic and applied research in shifting cultivation. FAO Soils Bull., 24 : 123-154.
- [2] Alam, M.K. and Salahin, N. (2013). Changes in soil physical properties and crop productivity as influenced by different tillage depth and cropping patterns. Bangladesh Journal of Agricultural Research, 38, 289-299. (http://www.banglajol.info/index. php/BJAR/article/view/15891)
- [3] Allen, S.E., M.H. Grimshaw, J.A. Parkinson and C. Quarmby.(1974). Chemical Analysis of Ecological Materials.In:(Ed.): S.E. Allen. Blackwell Scientific Publications, Oxford London, Edinburg, Melbourne, pp. 386.
- [4] Andriesse, J.P. and Koopmans, T. (1984). A monitoring study on nutrient cycles in soils used for shifting cultivation under various climatic conditions in tropical Asia.
 I. The influence of simulated burning on form and availability of plant nutrients. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 12 : 1-16.
- [5] Brown, A. and Lugo, A.E. (1990). Tropical secondary forests. *Journal of Tropical Ecology*, 6 : 2-32.
- [6] Christanty, L. (1986). Shifting cultivation and tropical soils: patterns, problems, and possible improvements. In: G.G. Marten (Ed.), *Traditional Agriculture in Southeast Asia.* Westview Press, Boulder, CO, pp. 226-240.
- [7] Civeira, G. (2011).Estimation of Carbon Inputs to Soils from Wheat in the Pampas Region, Argentina.*Czech Journal of Genetics and Plant Breeding*, 47, S39–S42. (http://www.agriculturejournals.cz/publicFiles/48948.pdf)
- [8] Dominy, C.S., Haynes, R.J. and van Antwerpen, R. (2002). Loss of soil organic matter and related soil properties under long-term sugarcane production on two contrasting soils. *Biol. Fertil. Soils*, 36 : 350-356. (http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/931).

- [9] Dove, M.R. (1985).Swidden Agriculture in Indonesia: The Subsistence Strategies of the Kalimantan Kantu. Mouton, Berlin, 515 pp.
- [10] Duryea, M.L., English, R.J. and Hermansen, L.A. 1999. A comparison of landscape mulches: chemical, allelopathic, and decomposition properties. J. Abor., 25: 88-97.
- [11] Ewel, J., Berish, C., Brown, B., Price, N. and Raich, J. (1981). Slash and burn impacts on a Costa Rican wet forest site. *Ecology*, 62 : 816-829.
- [12] Eyre, S.R. (1968). Vegetation and Soils A World Picture. Edward Arnold Publishers Limited, U.K.
- [13] Fernandes, E.C.M., Motavalli, P.P., Castilla, C. and Mukurumbira, L. (1997). Management control of soil organic matter dynamics in tropical land-use systems. *Geoderma*, **79**: 49-67.
- [14] Forest Survey of India (FSI), (2013).*India State of Forest Report*, Dehradun -248195, India. (http://fsi.nic.in/cover_2013/message_content_preface3.pdf)
- [15] Galindo-Jaimes, L., Gonzalez-Espinosa, M., Quintana-Ascencio, P. and Garcia-Barrios, L. (2002). Tree composition and structure in disturbed stands with varying dominance by *Pinus* spp.in the highlands of Chiapas, Mexico. *Plant Ecology*, 162 : 259-272. (http://www.kluweronline.com/issn/1385-0237/contents)
- [16] Garcia-Barrios, L. and Gonzalez-Espinosa, M. (2004). Change in oak to pine dominance in secondary forests may reduce shifting agriculture yields: experimental evidence from Chiapas, Mexico. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 102 : 389-401. (https://www.infona.pl/resource/bwmeta1.element.elsevier)
- [17] IPCC (International Panel on Climate Change). (2000). Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry.Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK. (www.ipcc.ch/)
- [18] Ketema, H. and Yimer, F. (2014). Soil property variation under agroforestry based conservation tillage and maize based conventional tillage in Southern Ethipia. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 141, 25 31. (www.elsevier.com/locate/still)
- [19] Lemenih, M. and Itanna, F. (2004).Soil carbon stock and turnovers in various vegetation types and arable lands along an elevation gradient in southern Ethiopia. *Geoderma*, **123** : 177-188.
- [20] Lepsch, I.F., Menk, J.R.F. and Oliveria, J.B. (1994).Carbon storage and other properties of soils under agriculture and natural vegetation in São Paulo State, Brazil. *Soil Use Manage.*, 10: 34-42.
- [21] Lugo, A.E., Sanchez, M.J. and Brown, S. (1986). Land use and organic carbon concentration of some sub-tropical soils. *Plant Soil*, 96 : 185–196.
- [22] Magill, A.H. and Abers, J.D. (1998).Long-term effects of experimental nitrogen additions on foliar litter decay and humus formation in forest ecosystems.*Plant Soil*, 203: 301-311.
- [23] Neill, C., Piccolo, M.C., Cerri, C.C., Steudler, P.A., Melillo, J.M. and Brito, M. (1997).Net nitrogen mineralization and net nitrification rates in soils following deforestation for pasture across the southwestern Brazilian Amazon Basin landscape. *Oecologia*,**110** : 243-252.
- [24] Olsen, S.R. and Sommers, L.E. (1982). Phosphorus, In: A.L. Page, R.H. Miller and D.R. Kenny, (Eds.), Methods of soil analysis. Part 2.American Society of Agronomy, Madison.

Shimrah, T.

Rao, K.S.

Saxena, K.G.

- [25] Piccolo, M.C., Neill, C. and Cerri, C.C. (1994).Net nitrogen mineralization and net nitrification along a tropical forest-to-pasture chronosequence.*Plant Soil*, 162: 61-70.
- [26] Raintree, J.B. and Warner, K. (1986). Agroforestry pathways for intensification of shifting agriculture. *Agroforestry Systems*, 4 : 39-54.
- [27] Ramakrishnan, P.S., Saxena, K.G., Patnaik, S. and Singh, S. (2003). Methodological Issues in Mountain Research: A Socio-ecological Systems Approach.Oxford & IBH, Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd. 283pp.
- [28] Rasiah, V., Florentine, S.K., Williams, B.L. and Westbrooke, M.E. (2004). The impact of deforestation and pasture abandonment on soil properties in the wet tropics of Australia. *Geoderma*, **120** : 35-45.
- [29] Roder, W., Calvert, O. and Dorji, Y, (1993). Effect of burning on selected soil parameters in a grass fallow shifting cultivation system in Bhutan. *Plant and Soil*, 149: 51-58.
- [30] Sanchez, P.A., Villachica, J.H. and Bandy, D.E. (1983).Soil fertility dynamics after clearing a tropical rainforest in Peru.*American Journal of Soil Science Society*, 47 : 1171-1178.
- [31] Solomon, D., Fritzsche, F., Lehmann, J., Tekalign, M. and Zech, W. (2002). Soil organic matter dynamics in the sub-humid agroecosystems of the Ethiopian highlands: evidence from natural 13C abundance and particle-size fractionation. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.*,66 : 969-978. (http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.182.9650&rep=rep1&ty

(http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download/doi=10.1.1.182.9650&rep=rep1&ty pe=pdf)

- [32] Sombroek, W.G., Nachtergaele, F.O. and Hebel, A. (1993). Amounts, dynamics and sequestering of carbon in tropical and sub-tropical soils. *Ambio*, **22** : 417-426.
- [33] Tiessen, H., Cuevas, E. and Chacon, P. (1994). The role of soil organic matter in sustaining soil fertility. *Nature*, 371: 783–785.
- [34] Turner, B.L. and Haygarth, P.M. (2001). Phosphorus solubilization in rewetted soils. *Nature*, 411 : 258.
- [35] Turner, M.G. (1989). Landscape ecology: the effect of pattern and process. *Ann. Rev. Ecol. Syst.*, **20** : 171-197.
- [36] Vitorello, V.A., Cerri, C.C., Andreux, F., Feller, C. and Victoria, R.L. (1989). Organic matter and natural carbon-13 distribution in deforested and cultivated oxisols. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.*, **53** : 773-778.
- [37] Wairiu, M. and Lal, R. (2003).Soil organic carbon in relation to cultivation and topsoil removal on sloping lands of Kolombangara, Solomon Islands.*Soil & Tillage Research*, 70 : 19-27. (file:///C:/Users/usem/Downloads/Tinio_Croplands-libre.pdf).
- [38] Weinert, E. and Mazurek, A. (1984).Notes on vegetation and soil in Bale Province of Ethiopia.*Feddes Rep. Band*, 95: 373-380.
- [39] Woomer, P.L., Palm, C.A., Qureshi, J.N. and Kotto-Same, J. (1997). Carbon sequestration and organic resource management in African smallholder agriculture. In: R. Lal, J.M. Kimble, R.F. Follett and B.A. Stewart, (Eds.), *Management of Carbon Sequestration in Soil*.CRC Press, New York, (Chapter 12), pp. 153-173.
- [40] Yimer, F., Ledin, S., Abdu Abdelkadir, (2006a). Soil organic carbon and total nitrogen stocks as affected by topographic aspect and vegetation in the Bale Mountains, Ethiopia. *Geoderma*135, 335–344.

[41]	Yimer, F., S. Ledin and A. Abdelkadir, (2006b). Soil property variations in relation
	to topographic aspect and vegetation community in the south-eastern highlands of
	Ethiopia. Forest Ecology and Management, 232: 90–99.

- [42] Zinke, P.J., Sabhasri, S. and Kunstadter, P. (1978). Soil fertility aspects of the Lua' fallow system of shifting cultivation. In: P. Kunstadter, E.C. Chapman and S. Sabhasri (Eds.), *Farmers in the Forest: Economic Development and Marginal Agriculture in Northern Thailand*, East-West Center, Honolulu, HI, pp. 134-159.
- [43] Zublena, J.P., Baird, J.V. and Lilly, J.P. (1991). Nutrient content of organic materials. Extension soil science specialists, North Carolina Coop, Ext. Serv. Publ. AG