# TROPICAL RAIN FORESTS OF KWAKWANI-GUYANA. PART 1: PEDOSPHERE, SEDIMENTS AND VEGETATION STRUCTURE

# BOSQUE LLUVIOSO TROPICAL EN KWAKWANI-GUYANA: PARTE I: PEDOSFERA, SEDIMENTOS Y ESTRUCTURA DE LA VEGETACION

José L. Berroterán

Instituto de Zoología Tropical. Facultad de Ciencias. Universidad Central de Venezuela. Av. Los Ilustres. Apartado postal 47058. Caracas. 1041.A. Venezuela. Fax 58 2 6051204. E.mail jberr@strix.ciens.ucv.ve

#### ABSTRACT

Soils in Kwakwani (northeastern Guyana) were identified and characterized to establish the patterns of spatial distribution of soil and vegetation and their relationships. The study area is located between 5° 21' 46" - 5° 20' 18" N and 58° 2' 24" - 58° 1' 44" W. Climate is rainy tropical with 2280-2540 mm of annual rainfall and udic soil humidity regime. Thirty observations of soil detail were done in five permanent plots established in Guyana by the Biodiversity Program SI/MAB, and simultaneously the characteristics of the vegetation structure were determined. Data were analyzed by principal component analysis and canonical correlation analysis. In the sandy sediments, Aquoxic Quartzipsamments excessively drained were identified, with Haplorthods inclusions in the more depressed sites. In the loam sediments there was a dominance of Typic Paleudults with Aquic Paleudults inclusions. The forest associated to sandy soils had a similar structure to caating aforest, presenting a low height and high density of trees (DBH> 10 cm), whereas forests associated to loam soils were characterized by high forests, with a low density (DBH> 10 cm). Soils were acidic with low nutrient levels in the mineral fraction. Nutrient concentration was not related to the mineral fraction characteristic of soils, such as texture and exchangeable aluminum, but it was to organic matter content. Soil variability was related to texture, complex exchange, A horizon thickness, and structure, which also had an influence on the water retention capacity of the soils; these characteristics were associated to forest type.

#### RESUMEN

Los suelos de Kwakwani (noreste de Guyana) fueron identificados y caracterizados con la finalidad de conocer el patrón de distribución y las interrelaciones con la vegetación. El área de estudio está localizada entre 5° 21' 46" - 5° 20' 18" Norte y 58° 2' 24" - 58° 1' 44" Oeste. El clima es lluvioso tropical con 2280-2540 mm anual de lluvia y un régimen udico de humedad del suelo. En cinco parcelas permanentes del Biodiversity Program SI/MAB se describieron 30 observaciones de detalles y simultáneamente se determinaron las características de la estructura de la vegetación. La información fue analizada con el uso de componentes principales y correlación canónica. En los sedimentos arenosos fueron identificados Aquoxic Quartzipsamments con inclusiones de Haplorthods en los sitios depresionales. En los sedimentos francos hubo dominancia de Typic Paleudults con Aquic Paleudults como inclusiones. Los bosques en suelos arenosos son similares a la caatinga, con baja altura (15-20 m) y alta densidad de fustes (DBH> 10 cm). Los bosques en suelos francos son altos (25-35 m), con baja densidad de fustes (DBH> 10 cm). Los suelos son ácidos con baja concentración de nutrientes en fracción mineral. El contenido de nutrientes de los suelos no se relacionó con características de la fracción mineral, tales como textura y aluminio intercambiable, pero sí con el contenido de materia orgánica. La variabilidad del suelo está relacionada a textura, CIC, espesor del horizonte A y estructura, las cuales influencian la capacidad de retención de agua de los suelos, y a su vez se relacionan con la presencia de un tipo de bosque específico.

**Key words**: Guyana, pedosphere, soil, tropical rain forest, relationships, vegetation structure. **Palabras claves**: Guyana, pedósfera, suelo, bosque lluvioso tropical, estructura de vegetación, interrelaciones.

#### INTRODUCTION

Pedosphere constitute a hypogeous system with trophic and spatial structure, autoregulation, and functionality. Its function is to provide air, water, nutrients, and mechanical support to plants. It is critical to include the study of soil in ecological research, since soil is responsible for important functions in the flow of energy and matter in the tropical rain forest ecosystems (Stark, 1971a, b; Anderson, 1981; Baille and Ashton, 1985; Mabberley, 1992; Matsumoto, 1995).

Soils of tropical rain forests are acid and oligotrophic, due to the effect of high rainfall on paren-tal material for long periods of time; however, soils that are recent alluvials tend to be more fertile (Sánchez, 1989; Prance, 1989; Whitmore, 1990). The most frequent soil classes are Oxisols and Ultisols (63%), Psamments and Spodozols (7%), and Fluvents and Aguents (12%) (Sánchez, 1989; Whitmore, 1990). Characteristic of rain forest soils is their high sensibility to disturbance, because of their erosivity and nutrient flow dependence of organic matter (Schultz, 1960; Janos, 1985; Jordan, 1989; Tiessen et. al., 1994; ter Steege et. al., 1995; Van Der Meer and Bongers, 1996). Several ecolo-gical studies of tropical rain forests report soil characteristics for some ecosystems near the study area, as Davis and Richards (1934) and ter Steege et al. (1993) in Guyana, Shultz (1960) and Stark (1970) in Suriname, Lescure and Boulet (1985) and Van Der Meer and Bongers (1996) in French Guiana. Soil-vegetation relationships in rain forest have been studied by Johnston (1992) in Tabonuco Forest of Puerto Rico, Oliveira-Filho et al. (1994) in the Brazilian Amazon, ter Steege (1993) in Guyana, Duivenvoorden (1995) in the Colombian Amazon, and Sabatier et al (1997) in French Guiana.

The purpose of this study was to identify and characterize soils of the Kwakwani-Guyana area to establish the patterns of spatial distribution of soil and soil-vegetation relationships. Soil measurements were done in the Biodiversity Permanent Plots established by the Biodiversity Program SI/MAB (Comiskey et al, 1993). In this paper was shown that high forest is restricted to loam soils, and lower forest to sandy soils. However, nutrient concentration in the mineral fraction was not important for forest differentiation.

# **METHODS**

Study area: The study area is located in Kwakwani, northeastern Guyana, near the Berbice River, between 5° 21' 46" - 5° 20' 18" N and 58° 2' 24" - 58° 1' 44" W (Figure 1), with an average altitude of 120-130 m. Geological materials were previously assigned to the Berbice Formation (White Sand Formation) and correspond to the Early Pleistocene (Brown and Sawkins, 1875; Fanshawe, 1952; Sinha, 1968; Berrangé, 1977). The Napi Laterite Formation is present in some locations below the Berbice Formation. It is compose of aluminous laterite or bauxite, with kaolinitic material, which is white or greenish white in color at the base and corresponds to the Oligocene-Eocene. The Berbice Formation has white and brown sands, both overlaying and passing into brown-orange silty and clayey sediments. They are probably sedimentary deposits of the Proto-Berbice River derived from the Roraima Formation (Sinha, 1968; Berrangé, 1977), subject to erosional phases that took place during the Pleistocene.

The well-drained soils of northern Guyana are generally acid, low in nutrients, and highly meteorized (Davis and Richards, 1934; Fanshawe, 1952). In the Berbice Formation, sandy soils and Spodozols predominate, and are related to the caatinga sclerophyll forest vegetation (Richards, 1961). ter Sttege et al. (1993) mention the existence of a soil mosaic in the rain forest.

Climate is tropical with an average temperature of 28°C, and variation lower than 5°C between the rainy and the dry season. Precipitation is distributed in a bimodal pattern with maxima in the months of June and December and minima in September-October and February-March. Largest precipitations occur in June. This bimodal pattern is related to the influence on the intertropical convergence zone by the northeastern and southeastern trade winds (Frost, Climatological stations in Georgetown (6° 24'N, 58° 8'W) and Ebini (5° 34'N, 57° 47'W), to the north of the study area, show an annual rainfall of 2,358 mm and 2,286 mm, respectively; in September and October, rainfall was less than 100 mm, but more than 30 mm. The Kurupukari Station to the South shows an annual average of 2,540 mm; with more mm of rainfall than each month.



Figure 1. Study area, Kwakwani, Guyana

Evapotranspiration is low (4.2 mm/day) during the maximum precipitation season and high (8.2 mm/day) during the months with lower rainfall (Eden, 1964; Sinha, 1968). The soil humidity regime may be described as udic; it has less than 90 dry days in the control section (Soil Survey Staff, 1994).

Sampling: This study was conducted in the rain forest of the Kwakwani, Guyana area. A stratified design was used, where each stratum was one of the permanent biodiversity plots established in Guyana by *The Biodiversity Program SI/MAB*. Five permanent plots of 1-ha each were analyzed, subdivided in 25 quadrates of 20 m x 20 m (Dallmeier et. al., 1992). A systematic sampling was set up within each plot with a fixed distance of 40 m between observations, which correspond to 6 subplots (quadrates) per 1-ha plot (Figure 2). To

detect soil variability in forest, it has been proved unnecessary to use a plot size smaller than 20 m x 20 m (Berroterán, 1994). Soil observations were made in the center of quadrate (20 m x 20 m) and vegetation structure data measured in the whole area of the quadrate. A total of thirty observations were described.

Soil observations were of detail (holes of 60 cm wide by 1 m deep). Characteristics of the genetic surface horizon (A) and subsurface horizon (B or C) were performed, because of the importance of considering subsoil in this type of study, as indicated by Berroterán (1994). The soil observations were used to characterize soil variability in the landscape. Thirty observations of detail were described. Representative profile descriptions (5) were made (2 m wide by 2 m

deep holes), and morphological and compositional characteristics of each horizon in the soil profile were determined and identified according to the Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff, 1994).

Variable Determination: Morphological characteristics of soil horizons are described according to the Soil Survey Manual (Soil Survey Staff, 1993). Horizon width, HCl reaction, color, structure, inclusions, cracks, rock fragments, and roots were considered. All horizons were considered for taxonomic descriptions of the soils. Means of the A and B or C horizons were used for detail observations.

Granulometric composition was determined by the Bouyoucos's method and organic matter by wet oxidation of the carbon present in the organic fraction of the soil (Jackson, 1984). Availables elements were extracted with North Carolina solution in a 1:4 ratio (weight/volume). Phosphorus was determined colorimetrically (Chapman, 1986), and available cations, calcium, magnesium, and potassium by atomic absorption spectrophotometry. Exchangeable aluminum was estimated with the potassium chloride method (Allen, 1974) and pH using a 1:1 water-soil ratio. Total organic nitrogen was determined by microKjeldal digestion and distillated (Jackson, 1984). Exchangeable bases were determined by extraction with ammonium acetate. Total elements in litter were estimated by digestion with hydrogen peroxide and sulfuric acid (Chapman, 1986).

The characteristics of vegetation structure selected were basal area of trees with diameter at breast

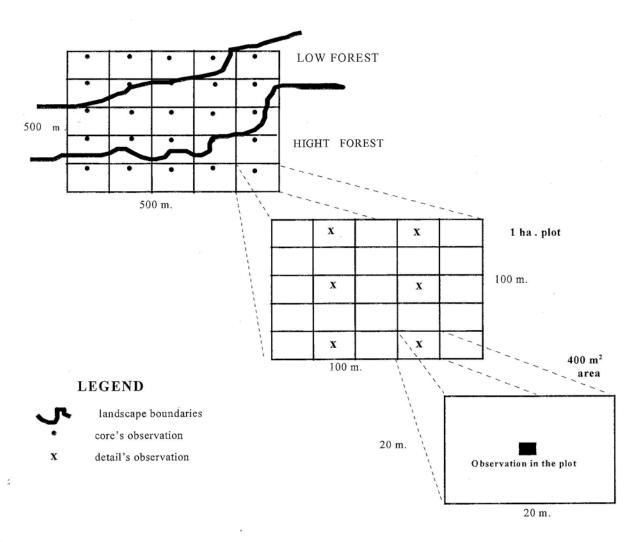


Figure 2. Stratified sample design for soils in permanent biodiversity plots established in Kwakwani, Guyana by the SI/MAB Project (Comiskey et al., 1993)

height (DBH >10 cm) or 1.5 m from ground, maximum height of canopy and stem density (DBH>10 cm), emergent trees height, soil cover by trees, and DBH of widest tree in the quadrate.

Statistical Analyses: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed with the SAS version 6.1 program. Normality of variables was tested with the Shapiro and Wilk's test, being p< 0.05 the acceptable threshold. In the principal component analysis, a variable correlation matrix was used to standardize the unitary variance of the original variables, giving equal importance to each variable. Correlation was determined between the original variables and the principal components (Pla, 1986). The difference between the proportion of the variation in the explained variable for each component or group of components and the maximum variation of the data of that variable (100%) reveals the amount of information loss in the variable for a specific principal component or group of components. This permitted the selection of the variables that explain the information variability.

Canonical Correlation (CANOCO) Analysis was performed to study the relationship between the soil variables and vegetation structure. Soil variables used were those selected by principal component analysis. The linear combination for each set of variables was calculated as the maximum correlation between the two sets was obtained (Gittins, 1985). The linear combination of each group of variables is called canonical variable and its correlation coefficient is the first canonical correlation. The other pair of linear combinations not related to the first, and which makes the second largest correlation coefficient is the second canonical correlation. In similar fashion, n variables and canonical correlations may be obtained, depending on the number of variables of the smallest set.

### RESULTS

Soils: The study area is a slightly undulated landscape, a product of the dissection of sediments from the Berbice Formation. Slopes are lower than 4% and the difference between the top of the landscape and the drainage border is less than 5 m. Sandy sediments were recognized with a mean of 95% sand and 3.6% clay, with massive relief and less dissected than loam sediments. These latter contain 66% sand and 19.6% clay in the

subsurface horizons. No signs of erosion exist at present. Sandy and loam sediments do not overlap, but gradually get in contact, indicating that they are the products of chronologically-related depositions. Sand particle size curves (Figure 3) show a dominance of particles between 500-100  $\mu$  (70-75% of the total).

Granulometric curves of the profiles do not vary with depth, suggesting uniformity in the sedimentologic behavior throughout the profile. In the sand fraction, quartz highly resistant to meteorization is the dominant mineral in the two soils, and it is related to deposits coming from quartzic linestones of the Roraima Formation (Sinha, 1968). Below the sandy and loam sediments, at a depth between 2 and 4 m, a clayey deposition with presence of bauxite, related to the Napi Formation (Berrange, 1977) was observed.

In the sandy sediments, Aquoxic Quartzipsamments were identified, excessively drained with Haplorthods inclusions in the more depressed sites. In the loamy sediments there was a dominance of Typic Paleudults with Aquic Paleudults inclusions, the latter associated to clayey sediments above the 2 m of depth. A high acidity and low cation and base exchange capacity are evident in the three profiles (Table 1). All soils are present an organic horizon (O1) that varies between 4 and 5 cm thick, with a high content of fiber material (70%). Total concentration of nitrogen (1.07-0.87%), phosphorus  $(1500-1600 \text{ (g/g)}, \text{ calcium } (21,000-35,000 \text{ } \mu\text{g/g}),$ magnesium (3,200-5,000 μg/g), and potassium (13,800-19,900 µg/g) in organic horizon does not show a high variability in the profiles (Table 2).

Plots 3 and 6 are located in sandy soils (97-94% sand) and plots 4, 5, and 7 in loamy soils (14-32% clay). Very low concentrations of phosphorus, potassium, calcium as well as strong acidity, were typical in all soils (Table 3). Organic matter, magnesium and potassium concentration in the surface horizon is higher than in the subsuperficial horizon. Sandy soils do not present structure and show less exchangeable aluminum than loam soils. Surface horizon is dark (10YR3/2-5YR3/2) in all soils and subsurface is pinkish gray (7.5YR7/2) in sandy soils and yellowish brown (10YR5/4) to yellow (10YR7/6) in the loam soils.

**Table 1. Analysis of representative soil profiles.** One profile was analyzed for each plot, however, only three were considered in the laboratory, because Paleudults were described in plots 4, 5, and 7.

Horizon	Depth	Clay	Silt	Sand	Texture	O.M	N	P	Ca	Mg	K	Na	Al	Н	CEC	Base	pН
Name	(cm)	%	%	%	7	%	%	ug/g	g ci	mol/k	g. of s	oil	cmol	/k g. c	of soil	saturation %	water
Typic Pa	leudult (pl	ot 4.22)															
O1	0-4					76.5											
Ah1	4-32	15.9	7.17	76.93	Sandy Ioam	1.99	0.18	5	0.12	0.06	0.05	0.02	3.24	2.36	6.7	2.39	4.4
Ah2	62-83	19.6	5.38	75.02	Sandy Ioam	1.64	0.14	8	0.1	0.04	0.03	0.02	3.96	2.54	6.1	1.97	4.24
Bt1	62-83	22.7	5.07	72.23	Sandy loam clay	0.71	0.09	9	0.1	0.04	0.02	0.01	3.42	1.88	5.2	1.92	4.68
Bt2	83-125	21.4	10.44	68.16	Sandy loam clay	0.43	0.07	7	0.12	0.04	0.02	0.01	2.04	1.9	4.6	2.39	4.59
Bt3	125-180	29.6	6.1	64.3	Sandy loam clay	0.43	0.09	12	0.1	0.02	0.01	0.01	1.68	1.36	4.4	1.82	4.54
Udoxic (	)uartzipsai	mment (	plot 3.2	22)													
01	0-5					71.2											
Ah	5-26	1.7	6.86	91.44	Sand	1.85	0.16	3	0.18	0.33	0.04	0.03	0.06	1.28	2.2	10.91	4.66
C11	26-40	1	2.62	96.38	Sand	0.28	0.13	1	0.06	0.09	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.62	1.2	8.33	5.09
C12	40-65	0.6	4.29	95.11	Sand	0.14	0.1	ì	0.06	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.06	0.38	0.7	8.57	4.95
C13	65-180	0.7	2.49	96.81	Sand	0.14	0.04	1	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.24	1	6.0	5.53
Haplorth	od (plot 6.	17)															
01	0-5					78.2											
AE	5-25	1.1	6.93	91.97	Sand	1.85	0.12	I	0.24	0.12	0.02	0.02	0.06	1.04	2.3	6.96	4.62
Bhs11	25-40	0.9	8.27	90.83	Sand	2.13	0.13	5	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.01	2.7	1.84	4.5	2.22	4.42
Bhs12	40-55	1.2	2.94	95.86	Sand	1	0.13	6	0.06	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.3	0.7	2.3	2.17	5.32
E	55-75	0.6	6.7	92.7	Sand	0.57	0.09	6	0.06	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.8	1.7	2.94	4.32
Bhs21	75-100	0.5	10.81	88.69	Sand	1.71	0.12	16	0	0.03	0.02	10.0	1.56	1.18	7.8	0.51	5.13
Bhs22	100-115	1.2	3.86	94.94	Sand	1.85	0.1	12	0	0	0.01	0.02	0.24	0.88	5	0.6	5.4
C	115-180	1	6.46	92.54	Sand	1.56	0.1	11	0.12	0	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.4	2.8	2.14	5.55

Table 2. Total concentration of elements in superficial organic horizon of representative profile.

	Depth (cm)	N %	P ug/g	Ca ug/g	Mg ug/g	K ug/g
Typic Paleudult (plot 4.22)	0-4	1.07	1600	35000	3200	16200
Udoxic Quartzipsamment (plot 3. 22)	0-5	. 0.87	1500	21000	5000	13800
Aquic Haplorthod (plot 6.17)	0-5	0.89	1500	22000	3800	19900

Table 3. Soil characteristics of detail observations. Horizon thickness, pH, organic material, exchangeable aluminum, available nutrient (phosphorus, potassium, calcium, magnesium), color (Munsell table values), size and type structure, and root number/area for each plot with 6 replicates (detail observations).

VEGETATION	Lov	v, dens	e forest	s	High forests					
PLOTS	3		6		4		5		7	
	Ave	sd	Ave	sd	Ave	sd	Ave	sd	Ave	sd
SUPERFICIAL HORIZO	N									
Thickness (cm)	25.67	2.94	22.00	3.46	47.83	12.62	48.00	5.76	46.33	11.31
рН	4.17	0.29	3.92	0.42	4.21	0.16	4.22	0.12	4.23	0.24
Sand (%)	97.41	3.16	97.00	2.77	81.49	7.87	74.10	1.90	78.13	8.21
Silt (%)	0.28	0.69	0.18	0.45	5.65	5.08	5.00	2.45	1.93	1.14
Clay (%)	2.31	2.53	2.82	2.38	12.86	7.32	20.90	2.21	19.93	8.75
Organic material (%)	1.79	1.01	1.87	0.53	1.94	0.36	2.26	0.86	1.78	0.95
Aluminum (cmol/kg.)	0.60	0.13	0.18	0.08	4.53	0.26	4.62	0.23	4.32	0.36
Nitrogen (%)	0.15	0.14	0.07	0.03	0.08	0.01	0.08	0.02	0.05	0.04
Phosphorus (μg/g)	5.05	6.83	10.43	8.73	3.70	0.78	2.80	1.02	6.12	7.48
Potassium (μg/g)	14.09	4.03	11.21	1.46	11.07	2.86	7.93	1.86	15.43	5.45
Calcium (µg/g)	28.74	7.13	31.15	4.59	32.37	2.62	27.19	3.72	49.63	11.02
Magnesium (μg/g)	23.45	10.39	23.84	6.00	15.51	4.09	13.44	1.78	30.40	22.22
Value (color)	3.67	1.63	3.17	0.98	3.00	0.00	3.00	0.00	3.42	0.49
Chroma (color)	2.00	0.00	2.17	0.41	2.83	0.41	2.92	0.20	2.83	0.75
Fine roots (n/100 cm <sup>2</sup> )	27.33	5.92	22.50	9.85	17.00	6.63	11.00	2.76	17.17	3.49
Coarse roots (n/100 cm <sup>2</sup> )	1.00	0.89	1.50	1.76	0.17	0.41	0.33	0.52	1.00	1.10
Structure	no		no		Mediun		Fine		Mediun	
					Blocky		Block	У	Blocky	
SUB-SUPERFICIAL HO	RIZON		,							
pH	4.82	0.20	4.61	0.32	4.57	0.14	4.54	0.17	4.73	0.13
Sand (%)	98.05	1.53	93.28	3.15	72.17	1.83	66.93	0.93	59.40	19.78
Silt (%)	0.72	1.75	0.43	0.80	13.12	4.80	12.67	2.42	8.20	10.56
Clay (%)	1.23	0.61	6.28	2.79	14.71	5.09	20.40	2.11	32.40	22.74
Organic material (%)	0.28	0.14	0.24	0.16	0.71	0.09	1.23	0.36	1.53	1.14
Aluminum (cmol/kg.)	0.30	0.07	0.21	0.10	3.06	0.10	3.03	0.23	2.32	0.09
Nitrogen (%)	0.08	0.06	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.02
Phosphorus (µg/kg)	4.16	4.62	9.21	5.19	4.36	2.79	9.98	15.15	2.50	3.44
Potassium (µg/kg)	6.28	2.46	5.13	1.55	8.82	8.63	7.15	6.47	5.14	1.86
Calcium (µg/kg)	27.99	8.31	28.81	3.94	30.72	7.05	39.76	20.09	22.46	5.97
Magnesium (μg/kg)	12.07	3.84	10.05	0.77	11.98	3.50	15.14	4.62	19.81	17.95
Value (color)	7.00	0.00	6.33	1.63	5.33	0.82	6.33	1.03	5.50	1.52
Chroma (color)	2.00	0.00	2.00	0.00	4.33	1.51	5.33	1.03	3.33	2.07
Coarse roots (n/100 cm <sup>2</sup> )	0.17	0.41	0.17	0.41	0.17	0.41	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Fine roots (n/100 cm <sup>2</sup> )	19.33	6.09	12.17	8.50	6.67	10.48	5.33	2.80	3.50	1.64

Ave= average, sd= standard deviation

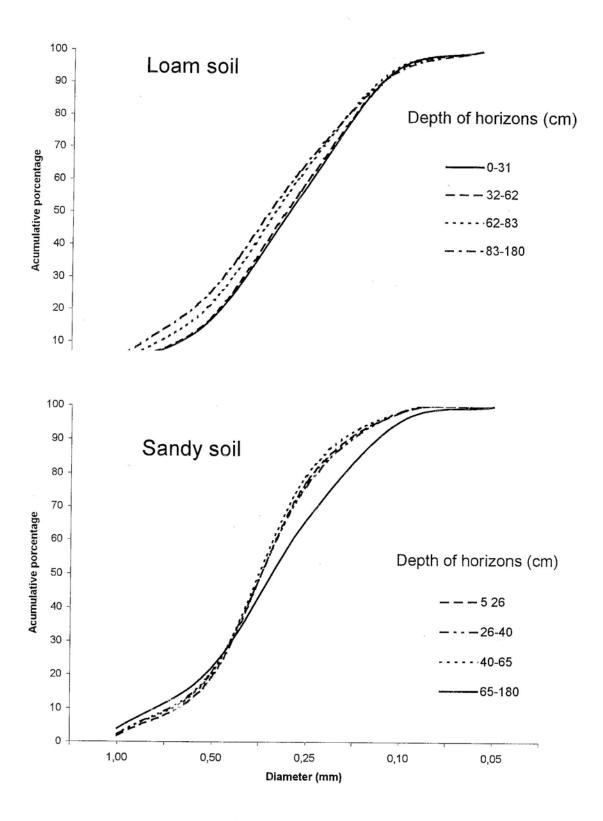


Figure 3. Sand particle size distribution curve in sandy and loam soils. It shows the dominance of medium and fine sands (between 0.5-0.1 mm) in all soil horizons

In the principal component analysis of the soil characteristics, the first component had an eigenvalue of 11.3 and explained 37.7% of the information variability; the second an eigenvalue of 3.8 and explained 12.6% of the variability. The total of principal components were 30, the first 5 explained 70% of the information variability, and the remaining 25 components had very low values (<1) and each explained less than 5% of the information, thus they were omitted from the analysis.

In the first principal component the particle size distribution (sand, silt and clay) and the aluminum are the characteristics with more weight in the distribution of the others characteristics. In the component 2 axis the available nutrient distribution predominates (Figure 4). Texture, cation exchange capacity, aluminum, and A horizon thickness, were

not related to the concentration of available nutrient in the surface and subsurface horizons. These nutrients are more associated to the content of organic matter of the surface horizon. Magnesium, calcium, potassium, and phosphorus did not show significant correlation with texture, structure, A horizon thickness, and A horizon aluminum (Figure 4).

Aluminum, clay, silt, chroma and structure are characteristics that make up a highly correlated group (Figure 4). Clay and aluminum are positively correlated for both surface (r=0.52) and subsurface (r=0.8) horizons. Structure is correlated positively with exchangeable aluminum (r=0.9) and clay (r=0.77), and negatively with sand (r=-0.81). Sand correlates negatively with the former characteristics (> -0.68 in all cases) and in sandy soils there is a larger root content.

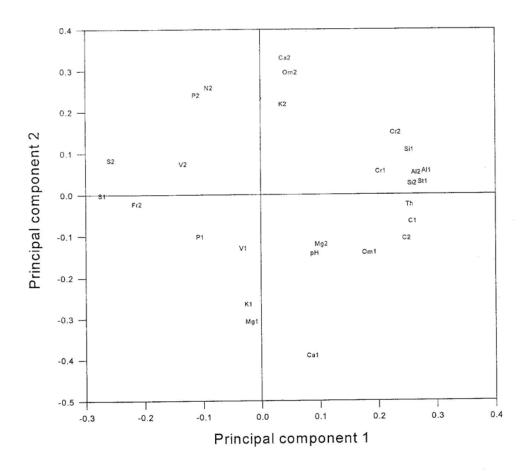


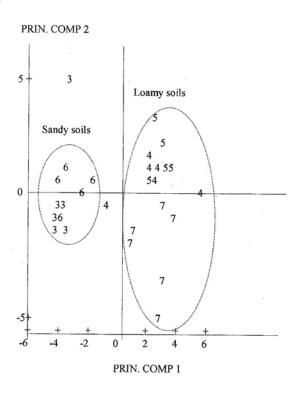
Figure 4. Soil characteristic eigenvectors for the first 2 principal component with 50% of the information variability. In the first principal component the particle size distribution, A horizon thickness, structure of superficial horizon and aluminium are the characteristics with more value. In the component 2 axis there is predominance of the available nutrient. Superficial horizon symbols: Th. Thickness; pH, S1: Sand, Si: Silt, C1: Clay, Oml: Magnesium, V1: value (color), Cr1: chroma (color), St1: structure. Subsuperficial horizon symbols: S2: sand, Si2: silt, C2: clay, Om2: organic material, Al2: aluminium, N2: nitrogen, P2: phospohorus, K2: potassium, Ca2: calcium, Mg2: magnesium, V2: value (color), Cr2 chroma (color), Fr2: fine roots.

The variables that lost less than 20% of the information in the 5 selected principal components of the explained variance percentage are sand, clay, silt, and aluminum content for the surface and subsurface horizons; and structure, thickness, and magnesium content of the surface horizon (Appendix 1). These are the most important characteristics for the study of soil variability and interpreting their relationships.

Figure 5 confirms that there are differences between the two big groups of sandy and loam soils. Component 1, where sandy soils (plots 3 and 6) are clearly separated from loamy soils (plots 4, 5, and 7) is related to texture dominance in the soil information variability and the behavior of the other characteristics. The high relationship between the sandy soils of plots 3 and 6 is clear, as well as that of loam samples from plots 4 and 5. Principal component 2 separates plots 4 and 5 from 7. This last plot shows the greatest dispersion in soil variability, with Typic Paleudults and Aquic Paleudults. In component 2, a soil from plot 3 located far from the rest of sandy soils. corresponds to a Spodosol inclusion. In plot 4, there are soils tending to sandy loam and associated with the sandy soils of plots 3 and 6.

Vegetation and soil-vegetation relationships: The forest associated to sandy soils had emergent heights between 14-21 m, upper canopy limit between 13-20 m, mean density for individuals with diameter >10 cm is 763-879 stem/ha, basal mean area of individuals with diameter >10 cm is 22.6 m²/ha (Table 4). These characteristics help identify these forests as similarly structured as the caatinga or wallaba forest (Davis and Richards, 1934; Fanshawe, 1952; Klinge and Medina, 1979, Johnston and Gillman, 1995). In the study it is classified as a low forest, with high density of thin stems (DBH> 10 cm).

The forest associated to loam soils had emergent heights between 26-40 m, upper canopy limit between 18-38 m, mean density for individuals with diameter >10 cm is 442-525 stem/ha, and basal mean area of individuals with diameter >10 cm is 28.7 m²/ha. These characteristics help identify these forests as a high forest, with low density of thin stems (DBH> 10 cm).



**Figure 5** Principal Components 1 and 2 of soil detail observations in Kwakwani-Guyana. Numbers 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 are plot numbers in permanent biodiversity plots of SI/MAB. In component 1, sandy soils (plot 3 and 6) are clearly separated from loamy soils (plots 4, 5 and 7). There are 2 hidden observations.

For CANOCO, 8 variables of vegetation and 9 of soil were included. The multivariate statistics tests of Wilks' lambda, Pillai Trace, Hotelling-Lawley, Trace and Roy's Greatest Root give values of Pr>F less than 0.001. It was shown that there was a highly significant correlation between soil and vegetation characteristics. Using the F approximation with the Ho (null hypothesis) test, it was shown that the canonical variable 1 is highly related (p>0.001) in linear fashion to the soil and vegetation variables (Table 5). With a canonical correlation of 98.5%, an eigenvalue of 32.7, representing 85% of the information variance. The second canonical correlation has an F value greater than 0.05, and is included in the analysis because it has an eigenvalue greater than 1 (2.09) and a canonical correlation between soil and vegetation variables of 82.7%. These first two canonical variables represent 90.7% of the information variance.

**Table 4.** Structural characteristics of forest vegetation in Kwakwani-Guyana. Average characteristic /plot with 6 replicates (n=6) or quadrate (20 mx 20 m).

VEGETATION	Lo	w, der	se fores	ts		High	1	for	ests	
PLOTS	6		3		4		5		7	
Characteristics	average	sd	average	sd	average	sd	average	sd	average	sd
Emergent trees height (m)	21.00	2.00	17.75	2.27	37.17	2.48	37.50	4.32	36.33	6.02
Maximum canopy height (m)	20.50	0.84	17.50	2.51	34.17	3.76	33.00	7.48	32.17	5.15
Minimum canopy height (m)	15.17	2.71	11.00	2.76	10.33	10.39	7.00	7.04	6.75	9.41
Thickness between maximum	5.33	3.27	6.50	1.76	23.83	11.37	26.00	8.39	25.42	9.00
and minimum canopy (m) Stem density, BH>10 cm (stem/ha)	763	100.9	879	182.6	525	11.8	49.2	84.7	442	163.3
Stem density, BH>30 cm	38	31.1	21	24.6	83	49.2	95.8	36.8	91.7	40.8
(stem/ha) DBH of widest tree in the	35.70	10.21	29.18	9.89	58.94	26.48	54.86	8.96	71.20	29.48
quadrat (cm) Soil cover by trees (%)	77.00	6.32	78.33	8.16	74.00	17.82	79.17	10.21	73.33	20.66
Basal area of trees, DBH> 10 cm (m <sup>2</sup> /ha)	24.8	12.08	21.35	8.32	30.08	14.82	25.83	13.21	29.3	17.21

sd= Standard deviation; **DBH**= diameter at breast height (1.5 m from ground)

Table 5. Canonical Correlation Analysis. 30 observations, 8 vegetation variables and 9 soil variables.

Canonical Correlations				Eigenvalues					
Canonical Correlation	Adjusted Canonical Correlation	Squared Canonical Correlation	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion (	Cumulative	Pr> F		
1 0.985035 2 0.827308 3 0.775982 4 0.708499 5 0.623166 6 0.531723	0.977549 0.696867 0.671054 0.617889 0.550497	0.970295 0.684439 0.602148 0.501970 0.388336 0.282730	32.6638 2.1690 1.5135 1.0079 0.6349 0.3942	30.4949 0.6555 0.5056 0.3730 0.2407 0.3652	0.8502 0.0565 0.0394 0.0262 0.0165 0.0103	0.8502 0.9066 0.9460 0.9722 0.9888 0.9990	0.0001 0.0878 0.2209 0.4250		

Canonical variable 1 sums up two large groups of variables (Figure 6). One group where the vegetation variables of emergent tree, density of woody stratum (DBH>30 cm), canopy heights, canopy thickness and greater diameter interrelate with the soil variables clay, aluminum and structure. The opposing group shows density of woody stratum (DBH>10 cm) related to the surface and subsurface sand.

## DISCUSSION

The sand particle size sigmoidal curves (Figure 3) with a dominance of particles between 500-100  $\mu$ , indicate a distribution corresponding to an alluvial high-energy deposition, similar to those shown by Glennie (1970) for alluvial environments with little selection. Then, depositions are confirmed to be alluvial and not marine as suggested by Prance (1989). It is shown that the white sands are not the product of granitic rock meteorization or podzol pedogenesis, as indicated by Schultz (1960) for the white sands of Suriname and by Anderson (1981) for the Amazon caatinga. According to Brown and Sawkins (1875), Fanshawe (1952) and Berrangé (1977), these alluvial sediments are from the beginning of the early Pleistocene.

In sandy and loam sediments, sands show prevalence of particles between  $100\text{-}500\mu$ , which indicates that the alluvial depositions came from sediments of the same source of the Proto-Berbice River derived from the Roraima Formation. Although in the case of more sandy sediments, the environment was more turbulent and the deposited particles thicker, which is explained by a transversal ranking in a high competition environment. Matsumoto (1995) found similar results in the Amazon basin, and reported an average of  $320\mu$  in the sandy sediments and  $300\mu$  in the loam, confirming the similarity of the alluvial depositional process in the areas with dry paleoclimates.

The percolated water of 1090 mm/year in the Guyana forests (ter Steege et al, 1995) is considered sufficient for a high soil lixiviation. All soils analyzed in the study area are acidic and with low nutrient levels in the mineral fraction. This might be explained by the action of a wet climate over rich quartz sediments and a relief favoring free drainage for base leaching in material with

sustained mineral transformation and decomposition. Whitmore (1990) reports that soils with low fertile levels, such as Oxisols, Ultisols, Psamments, and Spodozols represent 70% of the soils of the humid tropics. According to Sánchez (1989) and Mabberley (1992), the soils of the humid tropical regions tend to be acidic and pedogenetically developed, which is favored by the wet climate.

PCA showed that nutrient concentration is not related to the mineral fraction characteristic of the soils, such as texture and exchangeable aluminum, but to its organic matter concentration. This fact explains the little difference in content of available phosphorus, nitrogen, calcium, magnesium, and potassium in the Kwakwani soils, since organic matter content in the mineral horizons and litter shows no significant difference. Scott et al. (1992) in Maracá, Brazil and Tiessen et al. (1994) in the Venezuelan Amazon also indicated the relationship of nutrients and organic matter concentration in forest soils.

The high concentration of available bases (calcium, potassium, and magnesium), phosphorus, and nitrogen in litter, and the high density of roots in the organic horizons in the soils studied, guarantee the nutrient supply to the forest vegetation, since levels in the mineral fraction of these soils are quite low to explain the presence of vegetation in the Kwakwani rain forest.

This high litter in the acidic soils of tropical rain forests has been reported also by Stark (1970, 1971a, 1971b) in Suriname and the Brazilian Amazon, by Scott et al. (1992) in the Maracá island of Brazilian Amazon, and by Coomes and Grubb (1996) in the Orinoco Basin. Also, Stark (1970, 1971a, b), Janos (1985), Jordan (1989), Scott et al. (1992), and Thompson et al. (1994) state that in the acidic soils with low cation content in the mineral fraction, the mechanisms of direct nutrient absorption from litter through mycorrhizae and a high root density are important for the mineral nutrition of the rain forests.

Texture of parent material is the major factor determining soil variability between forest types (Figure 6). Partial drainage restriction is the major factor of soil variability within a forest type. Sandy sediments are related to Quartzipsamments with

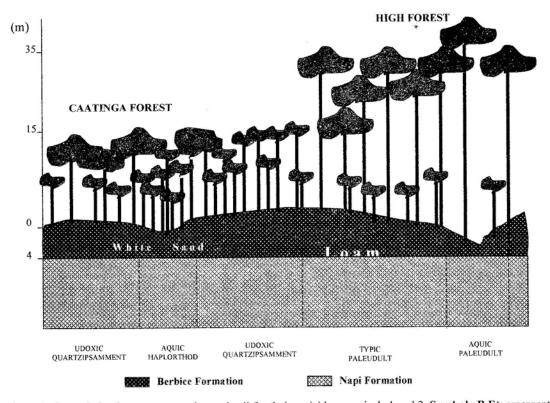


Figure 6. Canonical correlation between vegetation and soil for their variable canonicals 1 and 2. Symbols:B Et: emergent trees height, Ch: maximum height canopy, Ct: thickness between maximum and minimum canopy, D30: stem density (DBH>30 cm), D10: stem density (DBH>10 cm), Co: soil cover by trees, Dtt: DBH of widest tree in the quadrate, Ba: basal area of trees (DBH>10 cm), S: sand of superficial horizon, S: sand od subsuperficial horizon, c: clay of superficial horizon, C: clay of subsuperficial horizon, al: aluminium superficial horizon, AL: aliminium subsuperficial horizon, H: A horizon thickness, st: structure of superficial horizon

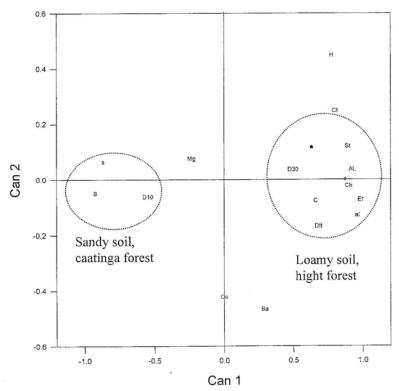


Figure 7. Diagram block of landscape in Kwakwani-Guyana. It shows soil taxonomy, vegetation structure and geology.

high quartz content, poor in bases and cation retention capacity. They correspond with white sand soils reported by Davis and Richards (1934) in Guyana, by Schultz (1960) in Suriname, and by Matsumoto (1995) in northeastern Brazil. Spodosol and lowest forest inclusions were identified in low positions, due to fluctuations in the water table with leaching of organic matter and iron and aluminum sesquioxides from the upper horizons of the profile. Anderson (1981) and Matsumoto (1995) in Brazil have reported dominance of Quartzipsamments in the sand deposits of the rain forests. However, the presence of Spodosols has been reported for San Carlos de Río Negro, Venezuela (Klinge and Medina, 1979) and in the white sand of many places in Brazil (Stark, 1971a). However, chemical analysis shows that Psamments and Spodosols are quite similar from a nutrient viewpoint, so soil variability in this forest type derives from drainage. Sabatier et al (1997) reported that changes in soil drainage are accompanied by substantial changes in the forest community, similar to this study.

Typic Paleudults dominate in loam sediments, coincident with the brown sand soils reported by Richards (1961), Fanshawe (1952), and Johnston and Gillman (1995) for Guyana. Aquic Paleudult and highest forest inclusions were observed in low positions or with clayey horizons that restrict drainage. Paleudults show greater thickness in A horizon, aluminum and clay, and a larger cation retention capacity than Quartzipsamments. Soil taxonomy reflected differences shown at the level of soil ordination by PCA into a forest type.

Multivariate analyses show the high relationship between soil and vegetation structure. Clay and exchangeable aluminum contents are the soil characteristics more related to forest height, although thickness and structure type of A horizon are also important. The greater clay content increases the cation exchange capacity and water retention with free drainage, which enhace soil-plant relationship in soils with thicker and better structured A horizon. This is expressed in both canopy and emergent individuals height, and stem thickness.

The high sand content is closely related to the high density of trees with DBH>10 cm, which is explained by a lower height in the formation and a negative correlation between height and woody stratum density. These close relationships between granulometric composition, A horizon thickness, and vegetation characteristics, as determinant factors for the distribution pattern of ecological systems, have not been quantitatively demonstrated for rain forests.

#### CONCLUSION

Following analysis of soils, parental material, and vegetation of systems under a specific mesoclimate, ecosystems can be identified and their functionality partly understood. In the well-drained oligotrophic soils of the rain forests of Guyana, the nutrient concentration in the mineral fraction is not determinant for defining the characteristics of vegetation structure. There were no significant differences in nutrient concentration between these forest types, due to its dependence on the organic fraction in litter. Texture, aluminum content, A horizon thickness, and structure are associated to distribution of forest types. Soil drainage was very important in determining within forest type variation.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was conducted as part of de Biodiversity Program SI/MAB and was partially sponsored by Instituto de Zoología Tropical, Facultad de Ciencias, UCV. I would like to thank Francisco Dameier and James Comiskey for their helpful advice at Smithsonian Institution-Washington and for providing data vegetation essential to this article and Christopher Ross for his exceptional work in both the field and office. The draft document had been prepared at Smithsonian Institution-Washington during September-October, 1996. Jorge Zegarra helped translating the article. I very much appreciate Ernesto Medina and Jorge Perez for significant reviews and suggestions to improve the manuscript.

#### REFERENCES

#### ALLEN, S.

1974. Chemical analysis of ecological materials. Blackwell Scientific Publications. Oxford, England. 565p.

#### ANDERSON, A.

1981. White - sand vegetation of Brazilian Amazonia. Biotropica, 13 (3): 199-210.

#### BERRANGE, P.

1977. The geology of Southern Guyana; South America. Institute of Geological Sciences. Her Majesty's Stationary Office. London, England. 112 p.

#### BERROTERAN, J.

1994. Ecología de sistemas nativos y agrosistema maíz en los Llanos Altos Centrales de Venezuela. Tesis Doctoral en Ciencias Agrícolas. Facultad de Agronomía. Universidad Central de Venezuela. Maracay. Venezuela. 455 p.

# BROWN, C. & J. SAWKINS.

1875. Reports on the physical, descriptive and economic geology of British Guiana. Edited by Longmans, G. & E. Stanford. London - England. 297 p.

#### CHAPMAN, S.

1986. Production ecology and nutrient budgets. In: Methods in plant ecology. Edited by Moore, P. and S. Chapman. Blackwell Scientific Publications. New York -USA. 589 p.

### COMISKEY, J., F. DALLMEIER, G. AYMARD & A. HANSON.

Biodiversity survey of Kwakwani, Guyana.
 Smithsonian Institution/ Man and the Biosphere
 Biological Diversity Program. Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C. 36p.

#### COOMES, D. & P. GRUBB

1996. Amazon caatinga and related communities at La Esmeralda, Venezuela: forest structure, physiognomy and floristics, and control by soil factors. *Vegetatio*, 122: 167-191.

# DALLMEIER, F., M. KABEL & R. RICE

1992. Methods for long-term biodiversity inventory plots in protected tropical forest. In: Long-Term Monitoring of Biological Diversity in Tropical Forest Areas. Edited by Dallmeier, F. MAB Digest 11, p. 11-46. UNESCO, Paris, France.

#### DAVIS, T. & P. RICHARDS

1934. The vegetation of Moraballi Creek, British Guiana: An ecological study of a limited area of tropical rain forest. Part II. Journal of Ecology. 22: 106-155.

#### DUIVENVOORDEN, J.

1995. Tree species composition and rain forest-environment relationships in the middle Caquetá area, NW Amazonia. Vegetatio, 120: 91-113.

# EDEN, M.

1964. The Savanna Ecosystem - Northern Rupunini British Guiana. McGill University Savanna Research Project. Savanna Research Series 1. Montreal -Canada. 216 p.

#### FANSHAWE, D.

1952. The vegetation of British Guiana. A preliminary review. Institute Paper N° 29. Imperial Foresty Institute. University of Oxford. Oxford - England. 95 p.

#### FROST, D.

1968. The climate of the Rupununi savannas. McGill University Savanna Research Project. Savanna Research Series 12 and Climatological Research Series 3. Montreal - Canada. 92 p.

#### GITTINS, R.

1985. Canonical analysis. Biomathematics 12: 351 p.

#### GLENNIE, K.

1970. Desert sedimentary environments. Developments in Sedimentology 14. Elsevier Publishing Company. Amsterdam - Holland. 222 p.

#### JACKSON, M.

1984. Análisis químicos de suelos. Ediciones Omega, 4ta. Edición. Barcelona - Spain. 662 p.

#### JANOS, D. 1985.

Tropical mycorrhizas, nutrient cycles and plant growth. In:

Tropical rain forest: Ecology and management.

Edited by Sutton, S. L., T. C. Whitmore and A.C.

Chadwick. Special publication number 2 of the

British Ecological Society. Blackwell Scientific

Publications, pp 329 - 343. Oxford, England.

#### JOHNSTON, M.

1992 Soil-vegetation relationships in a tabonuco forest community in the Luquillo Mountains of Puerto Rico. *Journal of Tropical Ecology*, 8: 253-263.

#### JOHNSTON, M. & M. GILLMAN

1995. Tree population studies in low-diversity forests, Guyana. I. Floristic composition and stand structure. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 4: 339-362.

#### JORDAN, C.

1989. An Amazonian rain forest. Man and the Biosphere series Volumen 2. The Parthenon Publishing Group. New Jersey. USA. 173 p.

#### KLINGE, H. & E. MEDINA

1979. Rio Negro caatingas and campinas, Amazona states of Venezuela and Brazil. In: *Heathlands and related Shrublands*. Edited by Specht, R. Ecosystems of the world 9A. Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company, pp 483-488. Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

#### LESCURE, J. & R. BOULET

1985. Relationships between soil and vegetation in a tropical rain forest in French Guiana. *Biotropica*, 17 (2): 155-164.

### MABBERLEY, D.

 Tropical rain forest ecology. Blackie and Son Limited. Second Edition. London, England. 299 p.

#### MATSUMOTO, E.

1995. White sand soils in North-East Brazil. In The Fragile Tropics of Latin America: Sustainable management of changing environments. Nishizawa, T. & J. Uitto (eds). Unit. Nat. Univer. Press: 253-267. Tokio, Japan.

# OLIVIERA-FILHO, M., E. VILELA, D. CARVALHO & M. GAVILANES

1994. Effects of soils and topography on the distribution of tree species in a tropical riverine forest in South-Eastern Brazil. *Jour. of Tropical Ecology*, 10: 483-508.

# PLA, L.

1986. Análisis multivariado: Método de componentes principales. Organización de los Estados Americanos. Serie de Matemáticas. Monografía No 27. Washington, D. C, USA. 94 p.

#### PRANCE, G.

1989. American tropical forests. In: *Tropical rain forest ecosystems*. Edited by Lieth, H. & M. Werger. Ecosystems of the world 14B. Elsevier. pp 99-132. Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

#### RICHARDS, P.

1961. The types of vegetation of the humid tropics in relation to the soil. In Tropical Soils and Vegetation, Proceeding of the Abidjan Symposium. UNESC. pp 15-23. París, France.

# SABATIER, D., M. GRIMALDI, M.F. PREVOST, J. GUILLAUME, M. GODRON, M. DOSSO & P. CURMI

1997. The influence of soil cover organization on the floristic and structural heterogeneity of a Guianan rain forest. *Plant Ecology*, 131: 81-108.

#### SANCHEZ, P.

1989. Soils. In: *Tropical rain forest ecosystems*. Edited by Lieth, H. & M. Werger Ecosystems of the world 14B. Elsevier. pp 73-88. Amsterdam, Holand.

#### SCHULTZ, J.

1960. Ecological studies on rain forest in Northern Suriname. Doctoral thesis. University of Utrecht. Amsterdan, Holand. 263 p

#### SCOTT, D., J. PROCTOR & J. THOMPSON

1992. Ecological studies on a lowland evergreen rain forest on Maracá Island, Roraima, Brazil. II. Litter and nutrient cycling. *Journal of Ecology*, 80: 705-717.

#### SINHA, N.

1968. Geomorphic evolution of the Northern Rupunini Basin, Guyana. McGill University Savanna Research Project. Savanna Research Series No 11. Montreal -Canada. 125 p.

#### SOIL SURVEY STAFF (SSS).

- 1994. Keys to Soil Taxonomy. Sixth Edition. Soil Conservation Service. Department of Agriculture. Washington, DC USA. 306 pp.
- 1993. Soil Survey Manual. Soil Survey Division Staff. Department of Agriculture. Handbook 18. Washington, DC - USA. 437 pp.

#### STARK, N.

- 1970. The nutrient content of plants and soils from Brazil and Surinam. *Biotropica*, 2(1): 51-60.
- 1971a. Nutrient Cycling I. Nutrient Distribution in some Amazonian soils. *Tropical Ecology*, 12(1): 24-50.
- Nutrient Cycling II. Nutrient distribution in Amazonian vegetation. Tropical Ecology, 12(2): 177-201

# TER STEEGE, H., R. BOOT, L. BROUWER, D. HAMMOND, P. VAN DER HOUT, V. JETTEN, Z. KHAN, A. M. POLAK, D. RAAMAIKERS & R. ZAGT

1995. Basic and aplied research for sound rain forest management in Guyana. *Ecological Applications*, 5(4): 904-910.

# TER STEEGE, H., V. JETTEN, M. POLAK & M. WERGER

1993. Tropical rain forest types and soil factors in a watershed area in Guyana. *Journal of Vegetation Science*, 4: 705-716.

### THOMPSON, J., J. PROCTOR & S. DUNCAN

1994. A semi-evergreen forest on Maracá Island I:
Physical environment, forest structure and floristics.
In the rainforest edge, Plant and Soil Ecology of
Maracá Island, Brazil. Edited by Hemming, J.
Manchester University Press. pp 19-29.
Manchester, United Kingdom..

#### TIESSEN, H., P. CHACON & E. CUEVAS.

1994. Phosphorus and nitrogen status in soils and vegetation along a toposequence of dystrophic rainforests on the upper Río Negro. *Oecology*, 99: 145-150.

# VAN DER MEER, P. & F. BONGERS

1996. Patterns of tree-fall and branch-fall in a tropical rain forest in French Guiana. *Journal of Ecology*, 84: 19-29.

#### WHITMORE, T.

1990. An Introduction to tropical rain forests. Clarendon Press. Oxford, England. 226 p.

Appendix 1. Percentage of Information loss in soil characteristics for 5 firsts principal components

	% information in original	% information loss in
	variable	variable
SUPERFICIAL HORIZON		
Tickness	80.77	19.23
рН	74.94	25.06
Sand	92.8	7.2
Silt	84.32	15.68
Clay	93.59	6.41
Organic material	63.73	36.27
Aluminum	92.12	7.88
Nitrogen	69.51	30.49
Phosphorus	64.98	35.02
Potassium	64.91	35.09
Calcium	70.6	29.4
Magnesium	81	19
Value	39.57	60.43
Chroma	69.54	30.46
Fine roots	68.66	31.34
Structure	87.62	12.38
SUBSUPERFICIAL HORIZON		100
pH	44.36	55.64
Sand	95.2	4.8
Silt	95.22	4.78
Clay	80.22	19.78
Organic material	60.16	39.84
Aluminium	84.6	15.4
Nitrogen	72.09	27.91
Phosphorus	67.3	32.7
Potassium	42.63	57.37
Calcium	70.6	29.4
Magnesium	73.87	26.13
Value	57.72	42.28
Chroma	69.96	30.04
Fine roots	70.9	29.1

Appendix 2. Multivariate Statistics and F Approximations

Statistic	Value	F	Num DF	Den DF	Pr > F
Wilks' Lambda	0.00078	2.6954	72	86.65	0.0001
Pillai's Trace	3.46682	1.6995	72	160.0	0.0031
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	38.42105	6.0033	72	90.0	0.0001
Roy's Greatest Root	32.66383	72.5863	9	20.0	0.0001