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# Changing soil characteristics as affected by different land uses in a humid region, west of Iran Pariya Heidari \*, Mohammad Feizian

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# Article Info

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Abstract

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Land use change, mostly from forest to conventional agriculture, has a detrimental impact on soil health and production. However, the impact of such LUC on soil biological characteristics is unknown. This study aimed to evaluate some of the physicochemical and biological properties of soil with varied land uses in the southwestern Khorramabad area. The research locations comprised diverse land use types including coniferous forest, broadleaf forest, farmland, and rangeland. According to the findings, there was no significant variation in bulk density ( $\rho$ b) and bulk density at 33 kPa ( $\rho b_{33}$ ) for various land uses, but there was a significant difference between different soil layers. The amount of clay and silt varies dramatically across land uses. However, the quantity of sand used did not differ significantly across the usage (p < 0.05). The results showed that the highest and lowest values of soil pH were observed in the coniferous forest and rangeland, respectively. Although the EC in coniferous forests was greater (0.17 dS m<sup>-1</sup>) than in other land uses, there was no significant difference in the average soil EC in various land uses (p < 0.01). In terms of soil organic carbon (SOC), the greatest value was found in broadleaf forests with an average of 1.517 (ton/ha), while the lowest content was observed in farmland with an average of 0.797 (ton/ha). The findings showed that there is a significant difference in soil nitrogen averages across different land uses followed by the decreasing order of broadleaf forest (0.11%) rangeland (0.06%) > Farmland (0.05%) coniferous forest (0.03%). The findings also suggested that the quantity of microbial respiration has considerably declined in all locations as land use has shifted from forest to pasture and farmland. Notably, farmland includes the greatest population of fungi, bacteria, and actinomycetes, with a significant difference from other uses (p < 0.01). Additionally, the relationship between OC and other soil factors is the most significant in this study.

**Keywords:** Land use, Biological properties, Soil organic carbon, Lorestan province. © 2025 Federation of Eurasian Soil Science Societies. All rights reserved

# Introduction

In recent decades, there has been a growing concern about rising atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations and global warming. Climate change has now become a major problem for all countries, causing significant effects on the environment, such as temperature rises, which have contributed to ecosystem deterioration (De Stefano and Jacobson, 2018; Mukherjee et al., 2024). Climate change has an impact on vegetation and species composition by modifying soil moisture and temperature regimes, as well as nutrient cycles, and changes in biomass (*i.e.*, material residues, aerial and subsurface biomass) seem to have an impact on organic carbon (OC) storage and cycling (Aminiyan et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2024). As a consequence, the soil's physical and chemical qualities are affected (Aminiyan et al., 2015a; Nadal-Romero et al., 2023).

The major axis of soil quality and health is soil organic carbon (SOC). Soil, being a main source of atmospheric carbon, may help to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by reducing carbon dioxide generation (Aryal et al.,

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2020; Nave et al., 2024). In other words, soils are both a sink and a source of carbon, making them an essential component of the global carbon cycle with roughly 1206 Pg OC in the top 1 m depth, much exceeding the atmospheric carbon store (800 Pg) (Zdruli et al., 2017). Carbon storage in soil and plants revealed that about 60% of SOC is stored in the first 20 cm of soil surface (Ramesh et al., 2019). As a result, even a minor increase in soil carbon stores has a significant impact on decreasing greenhouse gas emissions into the environment (Basheer et al., 2024; Kopittke et al., 2024). Carbon sequestration, or flux of carbon, is a potential option for mitigating climate change by turning atmospheric  $CO_2$  into stabilized SOC for a long time in soil, which also improves soil quality (Smith et al., 2020; Benslama et al., 2024). Demand for agricultural and forestry products will continue to rise as a result of population expansion and industrial progress, and consumption patterns will move toward products that have larger overall environmental impacts (Clerici et al., 2019; Payen et al., 2020). Agriculture and forestry are important contributors to ecosystem degradation and biodiversity loss (Aminiyan et al., 2018; Ekka et al., 2023).

Nowadays, the conversion of forests to rangelands or agricultural lands has become a major cause of environmental degradation and global climate change all over the world (Barati et al., 2023). Land use change is considered as the second greatest cause of carbon emissions after fuel consumption (Ramesh et al., 2019; Benslama et al., 2024). Reduced biomass-C inputs (i.e. roots, litter fall) and losses due to increased erosion and dissolved organic C leaching diminish SOC reserves when natural and agricultural ecosystems are converted (Aminiyan et al., 2015b; Tiefenbacher et al., 2021). As a result, land use change combined with poor management is one of the primary causes of greenhouse gas emissions and global warming in recent decades (Liu et al., 2023).

Forest soils have always been considered due to their high organic matter (OM) content and suitable structure (Kooch et al., 2023; Nave et al., 2024). However, changes in their management and use along with tillage practices generally have a major impact on the amount of soil organic matter (SOM) and other soil physical and chemical properties (Voltr et al., 2021; Yadav et al., 2021). One of the most important studies on environmental change is the connection between land use change and soil properties (Eze et al., 2023).

Land use changes and agricultural activity can negatively impact soil physical and chemical properties, leading to a considerable decrease in SOM and nutrients, porosity, fertility, aggregate stability, hydraulic conductivity, increased bulk density, increased erosion rate, and accelerated degradation of soil (Asmare et al., 2023; Ekka et al., 2023; Mirghaed and Souri, 2023; Ma et al., 2024). For instance, Padbhushan et al. (2022) reported that soils under natural forests had 36.1% higher SOM compared to converted croplands. Additionally, they reported that conversion of natural vegetation to pasture typically increases soil pH. This change is often due to the application of fertilizers and lime to enhance grass growth, which can lead to higher soil alkalinity (Padbhushan et al., 2022). It has been found that deforestation also increases soil erosion rates and bulk density, and reduces porosity, aggregate stability, and hydraulic conductivity (Molla et al., 2022). Cultivated lands have much lower levels of SOC, total nitrogen (TN), and available phosphorus compared to natural forests and pastures, thereby soils under natural forests had 36.1% higher organic carbon than converted croplands (Matano et al., 2015). Cultivation diminishes soil carbon within a few years of initial conversion from forest (Gebresamuel et al., 2022). The conversion of forest to cropland increases bulk density and reduces porosity and aggregate stability (Tellen and Yerima, 2018). Therefore, soil quality indices differed across all land uses and management regimes, revealing that the most essential systems in sustaining soil quality were natural forests and protected regions, whereas developed lands had much lower physical features (Zhao et al., 2021).

So far, numerous researchers have also investigated the effect of replacing natural and degraded forests with artificial forests on carbon sequestration and have highlighted the relevance of such studies (Liu et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2021). The comparison of SOC in natural pastures under wheat cultivation and areas under cultivation of perennial rangeland species indicated that the lowest amount of SOC was in the area under wheat cultivation (Saurabh et al., 2021). Additionally, the amount of SOC in the areas under cultivation of perennial rangeland species to natural rangeland (McGowan et al., 2019). As a result, studying changes in the physical, chemical, and biological characteristics of soil in various uses can not only demonstrate the implications and consequences of this transition but also help us figure out how to address the problem and avoid additional soil damage in these places (Tellen and Yerima, 2018; Voltr et al., 2021; Yadav et al., 2021).

Land-use changes in Iran have been more rapid in the last 50 years than at any time in Iran's history and are expected to continue at this rate or accelerate in the future (Azizi et al., 2022). Anthropogenic activities are

degrading the rangelands of Iran, mostly due to land use change and subsequent intense rainfed or irrigated farming (Soleimani et al., 2019). The conversion of natural virgin rangelands into orchards and rainfed farmlands is the most typical land use change in the Lorestan province, west of Iran (Japelaghi et al., 2019). There has been a lack of research in this area so far to investigate the changes in soil characteristics and C sequestration in diverse land uses due to the unique climatic conditions of Lorestan Province and its varied land uses. The primary objective of this study was therefore to evaluate some of the physicochemical and biological properties of soil with varied land uses in the south-western Khorramabad area. The findings of this study might be useful in controlling and forecasting unfavorable changes caused by land use changes in other parts of the province.

# **Material and Methods**

#### Study area

Lorestan province is located in the west of Iran between 66° 51'-50° 3' E longitude and 32° 37'-34° 22' N latitude (Figure 1). Its altitude is 1160 meters above sea level. The province is located in the west of the country and the middle part of the Zagros Mountains and along the two rainy aerial fronts of the Mediterranean from the west and the Indian Ocean from the south, which has significant and potential resources. The average annual temperature for a period of 25 years is 17.9°C, which has a thermal heating regime, and the warmest month of July is 30.1°C, and the lowest temperature is related to January with a temperature of 6.1°C. The average monthly rainfall of Khorramabad station is 519 mm, which has a humid regime and the highest rainfall is from November to April, the months of June to September are dry and the rainfall is almost zero. The area of the Lorestan province is 28300 ha. The soil humidity and thermal regimes are xeric and thermic, respectively. Moreover, the studied soils are under the category of Inseptisol with calcareous rock parent material.



Figure 1. The map of the studied area in the Khorramabad region

### Sampling, treatment, and analysis of soil

8 soil samples were randomly taken from the body of soil profiles for each of four land uses (i.e., farmland, coniferous forest, broadleaf forest, and rangeland) in three replications. In doing so, around 10 kg of the soil was taken from each land use and quickly transported to the lab. Afterward, the samples were spread on dry paper and air-dried. Then, the soil was sieved to remove gravel, large roots, and plant residues using an 8-mm sieve followed by a 2-mm sieve in preparation for further procedures. One kilogram of each sample was transferred to the laboratory in plastic bags and inside an ice flask and stored at 4 °C for biological analyses. The percentage of sand, silt, and clay was determined using the hydrometer method (Gee and Or, 2002). Soil

pH, and electrical conductivity (EC) were measured in a 1:2.5 (soil: water) extraction by a pH-meter (Metrohm) and an EC-meter (Metrohm), respectively (Rayment and Lyons, 2011). The content of total organic carbon in soil samples was analyzed by the modified Walkley and Black method (Aminiyan et al., 2015b; Walkley and Black, 1934). Also, total nitrogen (TN) was determined using the Kjeldahl method (Bremner, 1996), and soil available phosphorous by the Olsen method (Peperzak et al., 1959).

Soil bulk density ( $\rho$ b) in undisturbed soil samples was measured with cylinders. To estimate BD at 33 kPa moisture content the following formula was employed, which was established by (Kern, 1994).

$$\rho b_{33} = (\rho b_{OD} \ 0.880) + 0.046$$

Eq (1)

where  $\rho b_{33}$  was bulk density at 33 kPa moisture and  $\rho b_{0D}$  was oven-dried bulk density.

The colony count technique was utilized to estimate the quantity of bacteria, fungi, and actinomycetes. The fresh soil solution was sequentially diluted with saline buffer to produce an optimum number of colonies on each plate. The media of nutrient agar (NA) bacteria, potato dextrose agar (PDA) for fungi, and rose Bengal starch casein nitrate agar (RBSCNA) for actinomycetes were utilized (Aminiyan et al., 2018). Briefly, in doing so, the fresh soil suspension was serially diluted with saline buffer to obtain an appropriate number of colonies on each plate. Each dilution was plated in triplicate and the population was expressed as the number of colonies forming units (log CFU. g<sup>-1</sup> soil). After preparing each specific media in plates 0.1 ml of soil suspension of each serial dilution was spread across the plates (spread plate method). The plates were incubated at 28 °C for 3, 4, and 14 days for bacteria, fungi, and actinomycetes, respectively.

Moreover, the Isermeyer technique was used to determine soil respiration (Isermeyer, 1952). The 50 grams of soil samples (weighted dry equivalent) were wet to 80% of their water-holding capacity with distilled water and placed in sealed jars containing 25 mL of 0.5 M NaOH. For basal respiration (BR), the samples were incubated at 25 °C for 7 days, followed by titration of NaOH with 0.25 M HCl (Aminiyan et al., 2018).

### Statistical data analysis

After data collection, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was applied to investigate the normal distribution of data at a confidence level of 95%. Statistical analyses such as descriptive statistics were conducted by MS Excel 2016. Also, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used for the mean comparison using SPSS Version 19 at 5% (p<0.05) and 1% (p<0.01) significant levels.

# **Results and Discussion**

## Soil physical properties

The results did not show a significant difference between bulk density (pb) and bulk density at 33 kPa ( $pb_{33}$ ) at different land uses (Table 1), while did show a significant difference (p < 0.05) between different soil horizons (Figure 2a,b). The average of pb ranged from 1.29 to 1.36 (Mg/m<sup>3</sup>) in all studied land uses. Additionally, the average of  $pb_{33}$  varied from 1.41 to 1.49 (Mg/m<sup>3</sup>) in the studied land uses. The lowest  $pb_{33}$  was observed in broadleaf forests, while the highest was observed in farmland (Table 1). As illustrated in Figure 2a,b,  $pb_{33}$  and pb exhibited a significant difference, which increased at the surface horizons and decreased with increasing depth, owing to the reduction in organic matter with depth. Hajabbasi et al. (2007) found no significant change in pb as a consequence of land use change in their investigations, which is in line with the findings of this study. As also shown in Figure 2a,b, pb rises with increasing depth in the studied land uses. It can be expected that tillage and topsoil disturbance reduce organic matter and consequently soil degradation, thus reducing soil pores and increasing pb (Li et al., 2021). Therefore, the pb increases with the lowering of the proportion of SOM, lightening of texture, and disintegration of soil structure during forest-to-farmland conversion (Antón et al., 2021).

Table 1. The mean content of soil bulk density ( $\rho$ b) in undisturbed soil, soil bulk density at 33 kPa ( $\rho$ b<sub>33</sub>) moisture, and mean percentage of sand, silt, and clay particles for all studied land uses (p < 0.05)

	.,,.					
Land-use Type	ρb <sub>33</sub> (Mg/m³)	ρb (Mg/m³)	Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Clay (%)	Soil Texture
Coniferous forest	1.29 a	1.42 a	17.99 b	29.70 ab	52.31 a	Clay
Broadleaf Forest	1.29 a	1.41 a	22.08 ab	30.23 ab	42.97 b	Clay, Clay loam
Rangeland	1.33 a	1.46 a	23.70 a	31.68 a	44.62 b	Clay, Clay loam
Farmland	1.36 a	1.49 a	20.25 ab	27.43 b	52.28 a	Clay
i ui iiiuiiu	1.00 u	1.17 u	20.20 40	27.100	52.20 u	Glay

The different letters indicate the mean difference is statistically significant at the level of 0.05 among the treatments (p < 0.05)



Figure 2. The mean comparison of a)  $\rho$ b33 and b)  $\rho$ b (Mg/m<sup>3</sup>) in all studied land uses. The different letters indicate the mean difference is statistically significant at the level of 0.05 among the treatments (p <0.05)

The soil texture is a critical component of the soil that affects the capacity of the soil to store water, aeration, temperature, CEC, and the ability to provide nutrients, as well as plant development and reproduction. According to Table 1, the quantity of clay and silt significantly differed across the land uses. However, there was no significant change in the amount of sand across the uses (p < 0.05). As overall can be seen in all land uses, clay content was >42% (ranging from 42.97 to 52.31%), and silt and sand contents were <32 (ranging from 27.43% to 31.68%) and 24% (ranging from 17.99% to 23.7%), respectively. Based on the USDA classification, soil texture ranged from clay to clay loam classes (Table 1). Accordingly, clay class was the dominant texture in coniferous forests and farmland, while clay and clay loam textures were simultaneously found in broadleaf forests and rangeland (Table 1). The results of some earlier studies showed that soil texture changes as a consequence of land-use change, with a considerable reduction in soil clay and enhancement in silt content due to erosion, loss of surface layers, and exposure of deep layers in rangeland use (Khormali and Shamsi, 2009; Nazari, 2013). By changing moisture availability and nutrient delivery to microbial degradation, soil texture may also affected in the forest area (Manral et al., 2020). These results were in accordance with our findings.

#### Soil chemical properties

Soil reaction or pH indicates soil acidity or alkalinity. Changes in agricultural land use could greatly affect the availability of nutrient substances like nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and other nutrients by modifying soil qualities including texture, structure, organic matter, and pH (Asmare et al., 2023; Hasanpori et al., 2020; Qi et al., 2018). Land use change is one of the factors that has an impact on soil quality. The pH level of the soil was evaluated for various land uses because pH impacts many soil characteristics and because land use change might affect pH level and soil calcium carbonate (Boroumand et al., 2015; Tellen and Yerima, 2018; Hasanpori et al., 2020).

As illustrated in Figure 3a, soil pH varied from 7.31–7.57 in the different land-use systems. The coniferous forest had the highest soil pH, whereas rangeland had the lowest (Figure 3a). The slightly high level of soil pH is most likely due to management practices like fertilization. This also might be owing to the applied chemical fertilizers, increased organic matter decomposition, and increased carbon dioxide and soluble carbonate leaching as a result of soil deterioration (Rad et al., 2018). In past investigations, it has been reported that the change in land use from rangeland to farmland increased soil pH (Boroumand et al., 2015; Hashemi Rad et al., 2018; Tellen and Yerima, 2018). The findings of Qi et al. (2018) showed that for all investigated land uses, soil pH was much lower in the top layer than in the lower layer, despite no significant variations across the land uses. However, land use change in the southwestern region of Khorramabad has not affected soil pH (Hasanpori et al., 2020). Because soil pH depends on the soil's parent material, the changes that occur during formation depend on rainfall (Augusto et al., 2017). Given that the studied land uses have the same parent materials and are in the same climatic zone, their pH has not changed. Although the EC in the coniferous forest was higher (0.17 dS m<sup>-1</sup>) than in the other land uses, the average of soil EC in different land uses did not show a significant difference (p < 0.01) (Figure 3b). EC measures the concentration of soluble salts, can vary due to differences in vegetation type, root architecture, and organic matter decomposition, which may lead to higher salt concentrations in coniferous forests compared to other land uses (Teramage et al., 2023). Also, vegetation cover plays a significant role in influencing soil electrical conductivity (EC) variability through various

mechanisms related to soil chemistry, moisture retention, and organic matter dynamics (Szymański et al., 2019). Therefore, alteration in EC can be attributed to the uniformity of parent materials, vegetation cover, and the stabilizing effects of climate. In this context reported that no significant difference observed between the EC of forest and rangeland soils. Therefore, the earlier reported results were consistent with our findings (Rad et al., 2018; Varasteh Khanlari et al., 2019). The amount of SOM is a key indicator of its productivity (Wang et al., 2018). Because of its determining effects on the physical, chemical, and biological properties of the soil, such as the ability to keep and provide water, the nutrient cycle, plant root growth, current intensity of gases, and soil preservation. The SOM also plays a key role in soil quality stability, crop production, and environmental quality (Aminiyan et al., 2018; Ramesh et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2020). In terms of SOC, there is a substantial difference between various land uses (p < 0.01) (Table 2). This table reveals that SOC content was the greatest in broadleaf forests with an average of 1.517 (ton/ha), while was the lowest in farmland use with an average of 0.797 (ton/ha). It indicates agricultural activities have a role in lowering SOC because plowing accelerates the degradation of soil organic materials (Nayak et al., 2019). Also, the plowing can lead to the discharge of OC from the soil solum as a result of carbon mineralization and CO<sub>2</sub> gas emission (Wasige et al., 2014; Yellajosula et al., 2020). Another factor contributing to the loss of SOM is the intensification of erosion in agricultural regions. Soil erosion rises as a result of land use change, and OM with a high carbon content is transferred to the surface soil (da Cunha et al., 2021; Telo da Gama et al., 2021). Furthermore, during tillage operations, deep soil layers with a lower percentage of OC are mixed with a surface layer with a greater percentage of OC, resulting in a reduction in topsoil OC relative to the initial state (Saurabh et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). Raiesi and Beheshti (2022) also showed that the conversion of rangelands into farmlands significantly reduces SOM. Carbon is stored as OM in the soil, but these reserves are affected by farming. When pastures are cultivated, the amount of SOC begins to decrease, and this reduction depends on climatic factors and the intensity of cultivation (Yellajosula et al., 2020; Kooch et al., 2021).



Figure 3. The mean comparison of a) soil pH and b) EC (dS/m) in all studied land uses. The different letters indicate the mean difference is statistically significant at the level of 0.05 among the treatments (p <0.05)

The findings demonstrate that there is a considerable difference between the averages of soil nitrogen in various land uses (Table 2). The TN value in the broadleaf forest is considerably different from other land uses (p < 0.05). As also given in Table 2, the content of TN in the land uses followed the decreasing order of broadleaf forest (0.11%) rangeland (0.06%) Farmland (0.05%) coniferous forest (0.03%). Nitrogen has been identified as the most critical soil component determining SOC level in several recent studies (Qiu et al., 2018; Jahangir et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021). The vertical and horizontal distributions of TN concentration and stock were influenced by anthropogenic disturbance. This is confirmed by the findings of this study, which found that natural land use categories had greater nutrient levels than either agricultural or urban areas. Greater SOC and TN concentrations in forestry areas may be attributed to higher residue decomposition from surface litter inputs that enhanced SOC (Nwaogu et al., 2018). The increase in SOC content has been closely associated with an increase in TN content (Diwediga et al., 2017). On the other side, low levels of SOC and TN as found in farmland and rangeland may be explained by poor soil conditions due to the use of plant residues as animal food and fuel, as well as unsustainable management approaches which exacerbated soil erosion (Li et al., 2017; Rezapour and Alipour, 2017; da Cunha et al., 2021). The conversion of crop wastes to humus and the increase in soil aeration due to plowing cause a decline in soil nitrogen, which results in an increase in soil microorganisms and the disruption of soil nitrogen balance (Fenton et al., 2018; Gaël et al., 2021).

Consequently, agricultural activities and practices can lead to the accelerated decomposition and mineralization of the available OM, thereby lowering SOC and TN concentrations and stocks (Aguilera-Huertas et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2021).

Table 2. Mean content of soil organic carbon (SOC) (ton/ha) and the percentage of total nitrogen (TN %) in the studied land uses

Land-use type	SOC (ton/ ha)	TN (%)
Broadleaf Forest	1.5173 a	0.10950 a
Rangeland	1.0951 b	0.06063 b
Coniferous forest	0.9319 bc	0.03875 b
Farmland	0.7970 c	0.05550 b

The different letters indicate the mean difference is statistically significant at the level of 0.05 among the treatments (p < 0.05)

#### Soil biological properties

Land use change may impose a detrimental influence on soil microbial properties. As shown in Figure 4a, there is a significant variation in the rate of microbial respiration in different land uses (p < 0.05). Forest uses have the highest rate of microbial respiration, whereas arable land has the lowest (Figure 4a). Changes in SOC and soil moisture had the greatest impact on soil respiration (Aminiyan et al., 2018). The presence of greater SOM content in forest use is one of the causes of increased microbial activity and, as a result, microbial respiration (Wu et al., 2020). In agricultural uses, however, the soil is regularly plowed upside down, causing the aggregates to break down and exposing the organic matter inside to microbial attack (Aminiyan et al., 2015a).

The results indicated that the amount of microbial respiration has decreased dramatically in all sites as land use has changed from forest to pasture and arable land (Figure 4a). These results were consistent with the findings of Rasouli-Sadaghiani et al. (2018) and Zheng et al. (2019). One of the effective reasons for the existence of more microbial respiration in the forest ecosystem is the suitable conditions for microbial activity, including adequate carbon supply and the litter layer used by soil microorganisms (Soleimani et al., 2019). In an assessment of land use change on soil quality characteristics in Iran, (Zarafshar et al., 2020) found that microbial respiration in forest lands is greater than in arable lands. Bakhshandeh et al. (2019) showed that soil microbial respiration in agricultural lands is significantly less than in forest use. Because microbial respiration is an indicator of organic carbon mineralization, it is highest in places where organic carbon is the highest (Rasouli-Sadaghiani et al., 2018; Fan and Han, 2020). More microbial respiration is typically seen by soil scientists as a sign of high soil quality because greater microbial activity leads to higher microbial respiration (Babur et al., 2021). Moreover, Kooch et al. (2021a) reported that soil microbial respiration is greatly reduced as a result of forest degradation and farming, which supports the findings of this study.

As illustrated in Fig 4b, the largest population of fungi, bacteria, and actinomycetes is related to agricultural use and has a significant difference with other uses (p < 0.01). Bacteria are an essential component of soil microorganisms and make up the majority of the microbial population (Odelade and Babalola, 2019). As a result, they outnumber the whole population of fungi, algae, and protozoa because of their involvement in carbon and nitrogen cycles, as well as other modifications and interactions with higher plants (Aminiyan et al., 2018). Bacterial diversity reacted to changes in land use and soil properties (Wehr, 2018). The findings of Barnett et al. (2020) revealed that the greatest bacterial alpha diversity was found in agricultural soils, whereas the lowest was found in forest soils. They found that soil pH and land use have interactive impacts on bacterial community assembly, which changes depending on pH class. These findings support the idea that soil pH is a master variable that drives soil bacterial communities, but they also demonstrate the need to understand intricate interactions between soil pH and other soil properties in community formation. Yang et al. (2020) reported contrarily that the bacterial diversity of the forest and grassland samples was similar, and the clustering analysis revealed no significant differences in their communities between the two environments. In Hawaii, Brazil, and Ecuador, a comparison of bacterial populations from forest, rangeland, and sugarcane areas revealed that agricultural soils have a bigger microbial population than forest grounds (Wehr, 2018), which was in line with our findings.

Also, land use changes affect the structure of soil fungal populations such as population and diversity (Fernández-Bravo et al., 2021). Plant species in forest cover, grass species in rangeland cover, and other plant species in agriculture and a mixture of forest and agricultural cover (forest-crop) may play a key role in fungal changes (Mueller et al., 2014; Zarafshar et al., 2020). The role of fungi in soil is very complex. Fungi can affect the nutrient cycle of soil, have symbiotic and pathogenic communities with other plants and animals, and interact with other microorganisms (Deveau et al., 2018; Odelade and Babalola, 2019). Sui et al. (2019)

demonstrated that arable land and forest land had identical bacterial and fungal community patterns, whereas marsh wetland communities were different. They concluded that the key drivers of soil fungal community compositions as land use changed are soil pH, SOC, TN, accessible nitrogen, and total phosphorus concentrations.

Our results showed that actinomycetes have a higher population in farmland than in forest and rangeland (Figure 4b). In the study of Luo et al. (2020), it reveals that the actinobacteria in the secondary forest were significantly higher than in plantation forest land use. They also concluded that the soil microbial community composition was mainly controlled by TN and pH. Overall, altered land-use type initiated changes in the physicochemical characteristics of the soils, which affected the composition of microbial communities. Additionally, it could be concluded that the identity of affected microbial properties by various soil parameters under various land usages (i.e., type of soil physicochemical and biological characteristics) in the original ecosystem depends on the original nature of each ecosystem in different areas.



Figure 4 (a) Comparison of microbial respiration content (mg CO<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> soil day<sup>-1</sup>) and (b) the abundance of Bacteria, Fungi, and Actinomycete (Log CFU g<sup>-1</sup> soil) colonies between all of the land uses. The different letters indicate the mean difference is statistically significant at the level of 0.05 among the treatments (p < 0.05)

#### **Correlation analysis of soil properties**

Examining the relationships between soil factors and the extent to which each of them is affected by each other will guide managers in controlling these factors in the desired direction (Table 3). The objective of this investigation into the interaction between soil qualities is to find out the relationship between SOC and other soil parameters as well as to identify the most essential factors impacting it.

16 <b>0C</b>	Sand	Silt	Clay	ρb	EC	рН	TN	MR <sup>a</sup>	
OC	1								
Sand	0.38*	1							
Silt	0.37*	-0.25	1						
Clay	-0.61**	-0.75**	-0.37*	1					
ρb	-0.65**	-0.27	-0.22	0.42*	1				
EC	0.09	-0.20	0.02	0.18	-0.18	1			
рН	-0.00	-0.38*	-0.09	0.29	-0.10	0.27	1		
TN	0.97**	0.41	0.29	-0.59**	-0.62**	-0.15	0.27	1	
MR	0.60**	0.01	0.34	-0.23	0.52**	0.09	0.48**	0.47**	1

Table 3. Correlation matrix for different soil characteristics in different land uses of Khoramabad region

<sup>a</sup> MR: Microbial Respiration; \* P<0.05; \*\* P<0.01

The findings of the soil factor correlation analysis reveal that the majority of the components analyzed have a significant relationship. The correlation between OC and other soil parameters is the most significant in this research. SOC had a strong relationship with TN (r= 0.971),  $\rho b$  (r= -0.65), clay (r= -0.61), and microbial respiration (r= 0.60) at a level of (p < 0.01). Also, a correlation was observed between SOC and sand and silt contents (p < 0.05). However, no significant correlation was observed between SOC pH and EC (Table 3). A significant correlation between SOC and other properties has been reported in past studies, pointing to a significant correlation between organic carbon and soil reaction (Liu et al., 2021). However, Amighi et al. (2013) reported that there is no significant relationship between OC and pH, which is consistent with the

results of the present study. Soil texture is also a relevant and influential factor in SOC and significant correlations have been observed between them (Varamesh et al., 2014). Also, another research noted a significant correlation between SOC and TN (El Tahir et al., 2009). Other studies have emphasized the significant relationship between SOC and TN levels (Wang et al., 2018). They consider nitrogen communication management as a very important precondition for maintaining SOC levels in forest ecosystems. Given the above, it can be said that proper management of factors affecting the amount of soil organic carbon, in addition to helping to increase levels and storage, will also help the sustainability of the ecosystem.

### Conclusion

The results of the present study conducted in the southwestern region of Khorramabad city show that land use change had a significant impact on the physical, chemical, and biological properties of soil. The amount of carbon content was more significantly different than the other soil traits in different land uses. There was a significant correlation between SOC content and physical, chemical, and biological properties in soils with different uses. Among these, the strongest correlations are related to TN,  $\rho$ b, and microbial respiration. The results of the current study showed that land use changes such as forest change to cultivated lands can significantly affect soil properties and change soil formation processes and is certainly the most important factor that affects the protection of natural ecosystems.

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