



Evaluating the Soil Quality of Forest, Broom Grass and Cultivated Land Uses in Hilly Agro-ecosystem, Meghalaya Plateau, North East India

Alok Maurya ^{a++}, Vikash Kumar Yadav ^{b#*},
Thokchom Dorenchand Singh ^{a++},
Abhishek Maurya ^{c†} and Vivek Kumar Singh ^{d‡}

^a CPGSAS, CAU (I) Meghalaya, India.

^b Mahayogi Gorakhnath University, Gorakhpur, Uttar Pradesh, India.

^c Acharya Narendra Deva University of Agriculture and Technology, Kumarganj, Ayodhya, Uttar Pradesh, India.

^d Veer Bahadur Singh Purvanchal University, Jaunpur, Uttar Pradesh, India.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/IJECC/2023/v13i61841

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: <https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/99169>

Original Research Article

Received: 15/02/2023

Accepted: 17/04/2023

Published: 22/04/2023

ABSTRACT

Soil quality can be inferred from selected chemical soil indicators and it may be altered under the impact of changes in land uses (LUS). For achieving sustainable management practices the soil quality indicators (SQI) should be measured. The objective of this study was to compare the soil

⁺⁺ PhD Research Scholar (Soil Science and Agri. Chemistry);

[#] Asst. Professor (Plant Pathology);

[†] MSc. Research Scholar (Soil Science & Agri. Chemistry);

[‡] MSc AG (Agri Chemistry and Soil Science);

*Corresponding author: E-mail: rvikashyadav@gmail.com;

quality index in forest, Broom and cultivated land use systems in some areas of Meghalaya, using a completely randomized design at nine different land uses containing Mixed-Forest, Pine-Forest, Broom-Grass, Rice-Potato, Rice-Cabbage, Upland Rice-Monocrop, Lowland Rice-Monocrop, upland pineapple crop and slash-burn cropping system with three replications and two depths. 54 soil samples were collected from the surface and subsurface soil depth of diverse LUS and 9 soil chemical attributes was selected for SQI. Values of SQI deduced using the average factorial deviation from the values of soil quality indicators of diverse LUS site relative to their value of the mixed forest as a (reference) scaled to 100 per cent. The results showed that the pine forest land use had the premier value of SQI (98.99) and poorest in the rice-potato (70.00) land use system in both the depth compared to mixed forest land. It can be concluded that cultivated land use decreases soil quality index such as rice-potato system.

Keywords: Soil quality; land uses; sustainable management.

1. INTRODUCTION

Soil, a medium for plant growth, is a natural resource and mantle of the earth surface. The world population is expected to reach 0.80 X 10³ million by 2030, 0.98 X 10³ million by 2050 and 1.12 X 10³ million by 2100 [1]. Therefore, meeting the food demands of the current population without significantly disturbing the soil-water-atmosphere equilibrium has become the most challenge for researchers and policymakers. Degradation natural resource such as soil erosion is a natural sensation that poses severe environmental, socio-economic issues etc. [2]. Soil health and function of hilly agroecosystem are closely linked to the quality and long-term utility of soil. Therefore, a better thoughtful of the effects of forest and agricultural LUS on soil quality of Meghalaya plateau can benefit viable options for sustainable development of hill ecosystem. Advancement has been made on the impacts of land uses on soil properties. Conversion of natural forest (mixed forest) to cultivated land use types degrade the fertility status of soil i.e. physical fertility, biological fertility and chemical fertility, soil erosion, water quality [3-5]. [6] evaluated the impact of shifting cultivation on soil quality, in Wokha district of Nagaland, using weighted soil quality index (SQI). The results showed that the high SQI more than 0.70 for two forest soils (FS1 and FS2) and land under shifting/jhum cultivation low quality (<0.5). [6] reported SQI in different land uses in Meghalaya. The results showed that the overall SQI was found to follow the following order: dense forest>shifting cultivation>pine forest>bun cultivation>abandoned land after shifting cultivation.

In Meghalaya, the mean annual loss of surface soil, organic carbon (OC), P and K due to the

extent of shifting cultivation/ jhum cultivation up to the extent of 40.9 X 10³ kg, 7.03 X 10² kg, 0.15 kg and 7.5 kg per ha, respectively [7].

Soil quality indices/index was decision support tools that effectively integrate a variety of information for multi-objective decision making [8]. A number of soil quality and fertility indices (pH, EC, nutrients, structure, porosity etc.) have been proposed [9] none identifies state of soil degradation that affects its functionality. The SQI frequently integrates some soil indicators which are accompanying with soil functions into a dimensionless value (between 0 and 100) to quantitatively assess the soil quality [10-14]. This method is normally proceeded in different steps: selecting soil indicators, reference land use as 100 (undisturbed), log 100 transform, factorial deviation and integrating the soil indicators into an index [15,16,12]. [16] observed that forest clearance and subsequent cultivation practice, due to land degradation, has a significant negative impact on SQI, i.e. drop of 44.5% of SQI was occurred. Mukherjee and Lal (2014) evaluated SQI at Ohio State, they resulted SQI varied between treatments and soil types and was ranging from 0 to 0.9 (1 being the maximum SQI). Generally SQIs did not significantly differ at depths under any method advising that soil quality did not expressively differ for different surface and subsurface depth. Singh *et al.* 2013 evaluated SQI in Nagaland, and they found the SQI rating was the highest for the least-disturbed land use compared to disturbed/agricultural LUS, i.e., natural forest>grassland> Shifting cultivation> horticultural-based system>cultivated land. Prokop *et al.* (2018) evaluate soil quality in Upper Shillong, Meghalaya they showed that the higher soil quality in pine forest, followed by cultivated land and deciduous forest.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Study Area and Soil

The study area represents the North-Eastern Himalayan region of India, lies from 21.57° N to 29.26° N latitude and 87.50° E to 97.30° E longitude with a geographical area of 26.20 million ha in the fragile Eastern Himalayan landscape. The study was carried out East-Khasi Hills district of Meghalaya, which lies between 90°55'15"-91°16' latitude and 25°40'-25°21' longitude, the total area of East Khasi Hills (2,752 sq. km). The selected area was Upper Shillong. The annual average rainfall exceeds 2935 mm with wide orography-led spatial variability (15,00–11,500 mm) and temperature varies from 10°C in December to 30°C in July and August, East Khasi hill district experiences different types of climate varies from tropical climate in bordering areas Assam to the temperate climate in the East Khasi Hills district. The bordering areas of Assam found hot-humid climate during summer seasons with an average temperature 30°C, during month of May to July of the year. The soils of the study area is Silty-Loam, the soils developed from shale and sandstone are red and lateritic with very shallow (in steep slopes) to medium in depth and relatively fine in texture. Soils are invariably acidic in reaction, with half of them (53% of GA) are very strong to strong in reaction (pH: 4.5–5.5). Complex interaction of geographic location, high rainfall, and conducive temperature favours luxurious plant biomass production which in turn adds higher organic carbon (98% GA with > 1% SOC) in the soils of the region.

2.2 Selection of Land Use Systems (LUS)

Nine land uses (LUS) types were selected based on the following three steps. In the first step,

details about past and current LUS were obtained and described. Sites for soil sampling were then identified for each LUS. In the final step, soil samples from the identified areas were collected, and analysed in the laboratory for various soil indicators.

In the first step, a field reconnaissance soil survey along with an inquiry/interview and discussions with local farmers well acquainted with the land use and local farming systems were conducted. Based on the obtained information, nine predominant LUS in the study area were chosen and are described. Terrain characteristics and vegetation types from each LUS were also recorded during sampling. The nine LUS selected for soil chemical properties (1) Jhum-System (2) Mixed-Forest (3) Pine-Forest (4) Rice-Potato (5) Rice-Cole Crops (6) Upland Rice-Monocrop (7) Lowland Rice-Monocrop (8) Upland Pineapple-System and (9) Upland Broom-System.

Soil pH and EC were determined by (1:2.5) ratio of soil and distilled water, and then it mixed 30 minutes by manually and then takes the reading for pH. After 24 hrs the clear suspension we use the measure EC by EC meter. Available N was determined by 0.2 % Alkaline potassium permanganate. Available P was determine by 1:5 ratio of soil and Bray,s-1 extractant (0.025 N NH₄F+ 0.03 N HCL), after this we use Brays reagent and stannous chloride and finally we take absorbance 660 nm by spectrophotometer. Available K was determined by 1N NH₄OAc solution by using Flame photometer. DTPA cationic micronutrient was determined by 0.005 M DTPA, 0.2 % CaCl₂, 0.1 M TEA. 1:2 ratio of soil and DTPA extractant (7.3 pH), shake 120 minutes at 120 RPM. Then filter the soil by Whatman No 42 and measure the wavelength by using AAS [21].

Table 1. Methods of soil chemical parameters

Sl. No.	Parameters	Methods	Reference
1.	Soil pH and EC	Soil: water suspension (1:2.5) for pH and 1:5 for EC	[17]
2.	Available Nitrogen	Alkaline potassium permanganate method	[18]
3.	Available Phosphorus	Bray's-1 method	[19]
4.	Available Potassium	Neutral Normal Ammonium acetate method	[20]
5.	DTPA extractable Fe, Mn, Zn and Cu	DTPA extractable followed by AAS	[21]

2.3 Soil Quality Index Evaluation

$$SQI = 10_{\log} m - \sum_i^N 1 \frac{I \log m - \log n_i I}{N}$$

Where , m is the reference indexed values (each values set to 100%) from adjacent mixed forest soil, n is the measured values as a percentage of the reference and N is the total no. of parameters [22].

2.4 Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed MS-Excel. The statistical significance difference between the groups will be studied by performing one way anova.

3. RESULTS

Soil chemical properties (macro and micronutrients) in 0-15 cm depth of diverse LUS in Shillong are shown in Table 2. Values of soil pH was ranging from 4.96-5.34 and the highest value recorded in RCC, whereas lowest in PF. The values of EC ($\mu\text{S}/\text{m}$) ranged from 18.53 to 27.06 and maximum value observed in UBS and minimum in PF. The mean value of soil Avl. N was ranging from 244.39 to 550.00 (kg/ha), whereas highest value was observed in MF and lowest in UBS. The values of Avl. P_2O_5 (kg/ha) content ranged from 8.24 to 20.24 while maximum value was recorded in RCC and minimum in PF. Values of Avl. K_2O (kg/ha) content was ranging from 160.61 to 315.98, whereas highest value was observed in MF and lowest in RP. The DTPA Fe (ppm) content ranged from 41.19 to 92.61, however highest value observed in PF and lowest in URM. The value of DTPA Mn (ppm) ranged from 12.08 to 26.43, while highest value was found in PF and lowest in RCC. The range of DTPA Cu (ppm) varied from 0.80 to 4.27. The DTPA Cu was highest in UBS and lowest in JS. Values of DTPA Zn (ppm) ranged from 0.08 to 3.81. The highest value of DTPA Zn was found in MF and lowest in LRM.

Soil chemical properties (macro and micronutrients) in 15-30 cm depth of diverse LUS in Shillong are showed in Table 3. Values of soil pH was ranging from 4.98 to 5.49 and the highest value recorded in JS, whereas lowest in PF. The values of EC ($\mu\text{S}/\text{m}$) ranged from 18.36 to 26.98 and maximum value observed in UBS and minimum in PF. The mean value soil Avl. N was ranging from 164.99 to 454.45 (kg/ha), whereas highest value was observed in MF and lowest in UBS. Values of Avl. P_2O_5 (kg/ha) content ranged from 6.71 to 19.95, while maximum value was recorded in RCC and minimum in PF. Values of Avl. K_2O (kg/ha) content was ranging from 158.83 to 270.47, whereas highest value was observed in MF and lowest in RP. The DTPA Fe (ppm) content ranged from 40.30 to 92.02, however highest value observed in SPF and lowest in URM. The value of DTPA Mn (ppm) ranged from 12.23 to 27.51, while highest value was found in PF and lowest in RCC. The range of DTPA Cu (ppm) varied from 0.74 to 4.14. The DTPA Cu was highest in JS and lowest in UBS. Values of DTPA Zn (ppm) ranged from 0.06 to 3.67. The highest value of DTPA Zn was found in MF and lowest in LRM.

Development of Soil Quality Index using physicochemical and biological attributes of Various LUS in Shillong. Values of SQI deduced using the mean factorial deviation from the values of soil quality indicators of diverse land use site relative to their value of MF (mixed forest) land use as a (reference land use) scaled to 100 per cent. Soil quality index (SQI) of diverse LUS in surface and subsurface soil in Shillong region of East Khashi hills of Meghalaya demonstrated in Table 4. The SQI value at 0-15 cm soil depth was found to be highest in PF (94.68) and lowest in rice-cole crop (71.87) followed by rice-potato system (75.21) of Upper Shillong region followed pattern as: in surface soil (0-15 cm) PF>UPS>URM>UBS>JS>LRM>RP>RCC and subsurface soil (15-30 cm) very good SQI was observed in also PF (92.74) and poorest in rice-cole crop (68.36) PF>UPS>URM>UBS>JS>LRM>RP>RCC.

Table 2. Soil chemical properties (macro and micronutrients) in (0-15 cm) depth of diverse land uses in Shillong

LUS	pH	EC $\mu\text{S/m}$	Avl. N kg/ha	Avl. P_2O_5 kg/ha	Avl. K_2O kg/ha	DTPA Fe ppm	DTPA Mn ppm	DTPA Cu ppm	DTPA Zn ppm
JS	5.27	26.60	391.48	15.70	270.50	52.72	16.53	0.80	2.19
MF	5.26	24.23	550.00	17.29	315.98	55.50	17.56	2.17	3.81
PF	4.96	18.53	416.30	8.24	281.11	92.61	26.43	2.79	2.73
RP	5.29	25.22	261.66	16.45	160.61	51.46	15.98	1.20	0.11
RCC	5.39	20.09	263.94	20.23	181.31	46.19	12.08	0.91	0.32
URM	5.34	24.15	285.85	18.07	238.63	41.19	14.36	1.67	0.51
LRM	5.18	21.06	269.64	12.39	200.33	63.30	20.72	2.47	0.08
UPS	5.26	25.36	324.20	15.20	245.67	56.37	18.24	3.37	1.19
UBS	5.09	27.06	244.39	10.43	215.61	77.14	22.17	4.27	1.81
S.E (m) \pm	0.04	0.06	1.27	0.78	0.58	0.40	0.01	0.28	0.03
LSD	0.11	0.18	3.78	2.31	1.73	1.18	0.04	0.82	0.10
CV	2.17	0.76	1.14	15.64	0.74	2.01	0.24	37.90	7.33

(LUS= Land Uses, JS= Jhum System, MF= Mixed-Forest, PF= Pine-Forest, RP= Rice-Potato System, RCC= Rice-Cole Crop, URM= Upland Rice-Monocrop, LRM= Lowland Rice-Monocrop, UPS= Upland Pineapple System, UBS= Upland Broom System, \pm = Standard Error, LSD= Least Significance difference, SEM= Standard Error of Mean)

Table 3. Soil chemical properties (macro and micronutrients) in (15-30 cm) depth of diverse land uses in Shillong

LUS	pH	EC $\mu\text{S/m}$	Avl. N kg/ha	Avl. P_2O_5 kg/ha	Avl. K_2O kg/ha	DTPA Fe ppm	DTPA Mn ppm	DTPA Cu ppm	DTPA Zn ppm
JS	5.49	26.38	271.93	13.77	245.45	51.19	15.52	0.74	2.10
MF	5.10	24.09	454.44	16.31	270.47	54.56	17.53	2.18	3.67
PF	4.98	18.36	326.76	6.71	220.58	92.02	27.51	2.75	2.61
RP	5.05	25.12	173.21	14.66	158.83	49.23	13.52	1.05	0.09
RCC	5.18	19.84	182.09	19.95	175.39	44.16	12.23	0.82	0.29
URM	5.13	24.08	209.49	17.87	212.48	40.30	13.88	1.61	0.49
LRM	5.05	20.86	191.71	11.98	178.51	60.03	19.16	2.44	0.06
UPS	5.09	24.87	233.02	15.09	215.56	52.78	18.07	3.43	1.14
UBS	5.02	26.98	164.99	10.19	195.74	75.65	21.10	4.14	1.71
S.E(m) \pm	0.04	0.10	1.38	0.49	0.49	0.35	0.19	0.38	0.23
LSD	0.11	0.30	4.11	1.46	1.44	1.05	0.58	1.13	0.68
CV	2.10	1.30	1.69	10.48	0.70	1.83	3.32	53.72	51.04

Table 4. Soil quality index of various land uses in 0-15 and 15-30 cm soil depth Shillong

LUS	SQI (0-15 cm)	SQI (15-30 cm)
JS	82.87	82.86
PF	94.68	92.74
RP	75.21	71.64
RCC	71.87	68.36
URM	85.18	84.06
LRM	78.74	75.03
UPS	88.86	85.79
UBS	85.12	83.38
MF	100.00	100.00

4. DISCUSSION

Conversion of land use from natural forest vegetation to cultivated land could not only affects soil physico-chemical and biological properties but also change the management system (Hazarika et al., 2014). In Meghalaya, lands are converted into shifting cultivation and cultivated Agricultural LUS from forest land [23]. Several researchers reported that the change of LUS such as shifting cultivation practices can cause significant variations in soil structural quality, terrestrial cycles, reduction of output, soil loss and degradation of soil [6,5]. Under natural environment, soils sustain their quality and equilibrium over the pedogenic progressions [24] Carter, 2002). Though, due to anthropogenic activities i.e. drastic change in land-uses (LUS) and soil management practices as a way to meet the food demand of growing inhabitants have led to the deterioration of soil quality [25].

4.1 Impact of Diverse Land Uses on Soil Chemical Attributes and Macronutrients

According to Table 2, the highest proportion of soil pH among different land uses (LUS) was observed in the RCC (5.39) at the surface depth of 0-15 cm and in the subsurface soil of JS land use (5.49), while the lowest pH was recorded in the pine forest (4.96) at the same depth of 0-15 cm. Interesting high soil pH obtained in RCC system was due to application of manures i.e. FYM, poultry manure, pig manure, vermicompost and addition of DPA. The higher pH value was recorded in JS due to liming effect of slashed OM and burning [26]. The soil pH was decreased with increasing soil depth. Decline in soil pH was mainly could be due to build-up of exch. Al^{3+} , rectangle shaped canopy prominent the rain to big drops consequently augmenting the leaching of bases and by releasing organic acids make organo-metal complex in 15-30 cm soil depth, which is in agreement with the finding of several researchers [27-30].

In this study maximum EC was recorded in UBS (27.06 $\mu S/m$) at surface and lowest in PF (18.53 $\mu S/m$) at surface soil (0-15 cm). The lower value of EC was due to exch. Al^{3+} , and organic acids, whenever high EC was due to accumulations of soluble salts in UUBS. Similar results also was found by [31,12].

Avl. N is found to be present in the highest amount in MF (550.00 Kg/ha) at surface (0-15

cm) as related to the further land use studied, whenever UBS was observed lowest amount 244.39 Kg/ha. Our study also supported by finding of [10] forest soil have more N than cultivated soil. The avl. N content was higher in the surface soil and it decreased with soil depth in diverse LUS. The litter availability in mixed forest resource availability on the forest floor that can be colonized, decomposed and mineralized by the soil microbes, and also retains moisture on the forest floor which may lead to decomposition SOM and nutrient mineralization in the soil [32] Maithani et al. 1998). Cycling of N is altered by anthropogenic activity [33]. Avl. N are most vulnerable to surface change, where physical alterations such as removal of live vegetation and forest floor litter, exacerbate erosion, runoff, and the leaching of soluble N (NO_3^-) not taken up by plant roots [34]. The available P_2O_5 content was greatest found in RCC (20.23 Kg/ha) and least amount was recorded in PF 8.24 Kg/ha at surface. Low availability of P in PF attributed to soil pH, in Khasi pine the chemical composition of pine needle (modified leaves) and its sluggish decay rate [35]. The higher availability of P is could be due to regular application of FYM, poultry manure, recycling of crop biomass, the residual effect of DAP applied to RCC, and the release of plant nutrients on mineralization of organic manures that favoured the enhancement of a labile pool P in the soils and resulted increase in pH [36,37]. At high pH the availability of Al^{3+} , Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+} less soluble, and SOM form chelate, whereas at low pH they were combine and make unavailable to plants [38]. Neina, 2019). The available K_2O in the studied sites varies from medium to high. The lowest K_2O content in 0-15 cm soil depth in RP and highest in MF LUS, the considerable low content of K_2O was due to Potato is high K feeder crop, whenever highest amount in BMF was due to absence of anthropogenic activity, increases higher amount of SOC and plant biodiversity [39,40]. Differential build-up of available N, P and K content in diverse land use systems in Meghalaya have also been reported by [39]. The available N, P and K in different LUS decreased with increasing soil depth [39].

4.2 Impact of Diverse Land Uses on DTPA Cationic Micronutrients in Soil

On conversion of evergreen forests (Mixed-Forest, Pine-Forest) to upland agriculture (settled-agriculture and jhum-system) and plantation crop, Cu, Mn, and Zn contents

declined significantly. Lowland-Paddy and grassland (Broom-System) had comparable Fe, Mn, and Cu concentrations (except Zn). The DTPA extractable cationic micronutrients (ppm) *i.e.* Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn in all diverse land use systems in superficial soil depth were ranging from 20.62-111.95, 8.18-29.34, 0.51-4.27 and 0.07-3.08 ppm, respectively however increasing the depth status of micronutrients was decreases. Among micronutrients Zn was found in deficient to sufficient ranges in subsurface. Very low amount of Zn in lowland rice system could be the result of solubility of minerals, continuous removal of this element by crop, without its replenishment through fertilizers except some probable addition through recycling of crop residues [39]. There was substantial Fe and Mn build-up in all different land uses in all study sites. The maximum content of Fe and Mn in Mixed-Forest and Pine forest suggesting better recycling of these plant micronutrients system through leaf litter and weed biomass decomposition. DTPA extractable Cu also increased marginally in all the land uses. The highest amount available Cu content was recorded in UBS system. All the cationic micronutrients showed decreasing order from surface to subsurface soil depth. Considering the critical limits of DTPA extractable micronutrients (ppm) like as Fe (4.50), Mn (2.0), Cu (0.20) and Zn (0.060) in acid soils, the soils of all diverse land uses were sufficient in available Fe, Cu and Mn and deficient in available Zn. [41] found similar results in Dimapur and Wokh district of Nagaland in different land uses. The available Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn content of different land use soils was well within the range as reported by [42,43,41]. [44] also reported that DTPA extractable cationic micronutrients such as Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn content varied widely from 0.665 to 257.10, traces to 93.4, 17.1, and 34.20 ppm, respectively in diverse land uses in Meghalaya. The above study thus revealed the diverse land use systems are better alternative to the Rice-Potato, Rice-Cole cropping system in hill region of Meghalaya. All the land use systems maintained better fertility status of the soil as compared to Rice-Potato and Rice-Cole crop.

4.3 Impact of Land Uses on Soil Quality Index

The development of soil quality index in the locality of study site of diverse land use systems in East-Khasi hills located in Meghalaya plateau under humid subtropical hilly ecological unit is very important since there are certain

degradation signs indicating how their sustainability is being susceptible.

Understanding soil quality is very important to improving sustainable land use system and management practices [15] providing early warning signals of adverse conditions in soil quality change, identifying problematic areas of soil quality [45] and providing a valuable basis for the subsequent rational use and improvement of soil. The term soil quality was used on different perspectives in both agricultural and environmental point of views [46]. To develop soil quality, there is a complexity of the subject involves due to diversity of physic-chemical and biological attributes and their integrative relationship [12,13].

To develop soil quality index (SQI), suitable assessment methods and reasonable SQI are great importance [47]. Undisturbed adjacent mixed forest site represent a balanced soil physic-chemical and biological quality from stable ecosystem which can be used as standard for soil quality assessment [48,10]. The objectives of using agricultural land in order to build SQI should be taken into consideration while choosing the criteria [49].

Depending on how much of the variability in soil quality is represented by each SQ indicator, it is difficult to explain how changing land uses and subsequent intense farming affects soil quality across different time scales. SQ governed by cumulative responses of soil fertility attributes to management induced factors. So, these variations in SQI amongst different places, land uses and depths are often analyzed by engaging principle component analysis where fluctuations in values of soil quality indicators are measured at a time.

SQI of surface soil (0-15 cm) were found higher compare to subsurface soil (15-30 cm) in site. In the surface and subsurface soil of study area greatest SQI was observed in Pine forest system (94.68-98.99) but lowest in Rice-Potato (67.46-70.60) and Rice-Cole crop (68.36-71.87). In the subsurface soil of different LUS followed decreasing trends in different land uses. The higher SQI value was due to less anthropogenic activity such as no till practices, which allow to accumulation of leaf litter and diversity of weeds and other vegetation's in Pine system. The lowest SQI values in Rice-Potato and Rice-Cole crop could be induced tillage practices which enhances disruption of soil aggregates and

decomposition of SOM and decreases other fertility parameters. Our results similar to [50] they reported SQI rating was the highest for the least-disturbed soils and the lowest for most intensively cultivated land. They followed in the sequences Natural forestland>Grassland>cultivated low land>plantation land>cultivated upland terrace land uses in Dimapur, Nagaland. [10] reported in India, they were found that the soil deterioration index higher for orchard soils relative to undisturbed forest site designated that orchard soils were in the grave state of degradation in terms of chemical characteristics and the degree of decline of soil quality increased with the increase of orchard age. [12,13] also reported SQI in Arunachal Pradesh they were found that the highest SQI in forest soil relative to rice-fish farming system.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The conversion of mixed forest to cultivated land caused a decline in the parameters of soil quality, more severe in traditional agriculture (Jhum cultivation, Rice-Potato etc.) than natural mixed forest. This current study suggests that pine forest reduce the deterioration of soil fertility status, which enhances SQI in hill ecosystem of Meghalaya. SQI were found higher in Forest system than the cultivated system. Thus, finding of this study clearly showed that the proper selection of land uses according to the state of soil quality index for better soil sustainability such as Pine forest, pineapple system, upland rice monoculture, jhum system etc. Further higher soil quality was observed in Pine-Forest system.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The work was supported by CPGSAS, CAU (I), Meghalaya, Director, NERIWALM, Tezpur, Assam, Asst. Director, DSTL, Bhabua (Kaimur), Bihar for providing necessary facilities to conduct this research.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. UN. UN world population prospects. 2017 revision, Key Findings and Advance Tables. Working Paper no. ESA/P/WP/248. New York: United Nations; 2017.
2. Wang B, Xue S, Liu GB, Zhang GH, Li G, Ren ZP. Changes in soil nutrient and enzyme activities under different vegetations in the Loess Plateau area, Northwest China. CATENA. 2012;92: 186-95. DOI: 10.1016/j.catena.2011.12.004
3. Tellen VA, Yerima BPK. Effects of land use change on soil physicochemical properties in selected areas in the North West region of Cameroon. Environ Syst Res. 2018;7(1):s10.1186/s40068. DOI: 10.1186/s40068-018-0106-0
4. Dengiz O. Soil quality index for paddy fields based on standard scoring functions and weight allocation method. Archives agro. Soil Sci; 2019. DOI: 10.1080/03650340
5. Hinge G, Surampalli RY, Asce DM, Goyal MK, Asce AM. Effects of land use and soil management on soil quality in India's northeastern Himalayas. J Environ Eng. 2019;145(4):s10.1061/s1943-7870.0001507. DOI: 10.1061/(ASCE)EE.1943-7870.0001507
6. Mishra G, Marzaioli R, Giria K, Borah R, Dutta A. Soil quality assessment under shifting cultivation and forests in North Eastern Himalaya of India. Arch Agron Soil Sci. 2017:s10. DOI: 1080/s03650340
7. ICAR. Shifting cultivation North East India. Publication unit. New Delhi: Indian Council of Agricultural Research. 1983;68.
8. Karlen DL, Stott DE. A framework for evaluating physical and chemical indicators of soil quality. In: Doran JW, Coleman DC, Bezdicek DF, Stewart BA, editors. Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment. SSSA Special Publication no. 35. Madison, WI: Soil Science Society of America. 1994;53-72. DOI: 10.2136/sssaspecpub35.c4
9. Andrews SS, Karlen DL, Mitchell JP. A comparison of soil quality indexing methods for vegetable production systems in Northern California. Environmentalist. 2002;90(1):25-45. DOI: 10.1016/S0167-8809(01)00174-8
10. Hazarika S, Thakuria D, Ganeshamurthy AN, Sakthivel T. Soil quality as influenced by land use history of orchards in humid subtropics. CATENA. 2014;123:37-44. DOI: 10.1016/j.catena.2014.07.006
11. Parra-Gonzalez SD, Rodriguez-Valenzuela J. Determination of the soil quality index by

- principal component analysis in cocoa agroforestry system in the Orinoco Region, Colombia. 2017;10(3):1-8.
12. Ampi N. Development of soil physico-chemical quality index of ricefish farming system in Apatani Plateau. M.Sc. (ag) [thesis], submitted to Central Agricultural University. Imphal, Manipur; 2021.
 13. Das A. Assessment of soil biochemical quality indices of ricefish farming system in Apatani Plateau. M.Sc. (ag) [thesis], submitted to Central Agricultural University. Imphal, Manipur; 2021.
 14. Liu MY, Chang QR, Qi YB, Liu J, Chen T. Aggregation and soil organic carbon fractions under different land uses on the tableland of the Loess Plateau of China. *CATENA*. 2014;115:19-28. DOI: 10.1016/j.catena.2013.11.002
 15. Abdel-Fattah MK, Mohamed ES, Wagdi EM, Shahin SA, Aldosari AA, Lasaponara R et al. Quantitative evaluation of soil quality using principal component analysis: the case study of el-Fayoum depression Egypt. *Sustainability*. 2021;13(4). DOI: 10.3390/su13041824
 16. Davari M, Gholami L, Nabiollahi K, Homaei M, Jafari HJ. Deforestation and cultivation of sparse forest impacts on soil quality (case study: West Iran, Baneh). *Soil Till Res*. 2020;198:s10.1016/s104504. DOI: 10.1016/j.still.2019.104504
 17. Page AL, Miller RH, Keeney DR. Methods of soil analysis. Part 2—chemical and microbiological properties, 2nd (Ed). *Agron monograph*, 9: 961-1010. ASA: SSSA. Madison, WI: CSSA. 1982;539-94.
 18. Subbiah BV, Asija GL. A rapid procedure for the determination of available nitrogen in soils. *Curr Sci*. 1956;25:259-60.
 19. Bray RH, Kurtz LT. Determination of total, organic and available forms of phosphorus in soils. *Soil Sci*. 1945;59(1):39-46. DOI: 10.1097/00010694-194501000-00006
 20. Hanway JJ, Heidel H. Soil analysis methods as used in Iowa State College Soil Testing Laboratory. *Iowa Agric*. 1952;57:1-31.
 21. Lindsay WL, Norvell WA. Development of a DTPA test for zinc, iron, manganese, and copper. *Soil Sci Soc Am J*. 1978;42(3):421-8. DOI:10.2136/sssaj1978.03615995004200030009x
 22. Wanshngong RK, Thakuria D, Sangma CB, Ram V, Bora PK. Influence of hill slope on biological pools of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus in acidic alfisols of citrus orchard. *CATENA*. 2013;111:1-8. DOI: 10.1016/j.catena.2013.07.009
 23. Deb S, Tiwari BK, Lynrah MM. Technological innovations in shifting agricultural practices by three tribal farming communities of Meghalaya, Northeast India. *Trop Ecol*. 2013;54:133-48.
 24. Carter MR. Soil quality for sustainable land management. *Agron J*. 2002;94(1):38-47. DOI: 10.2134/agronj2002.3800
 25. Nabiollahi K, Taghizadeh-Mehrjardi R, Eskandari S. Assessing and monitoring the soil quality of forested and agricultural areas using soil-quality indices and digital soil-mapping in a semi-arid environment. *Arch Agron Soil Sci*. 2018;64(5):696-707. DOI: 10.1080/03650340.2017.1373188
 26. Venkatesh MS, Mishra AK, Satapathy KK, Patiram. Effect of burning on soil properties under Bun cultivation in Meghalaya. *J Hill Res*. 2001;14(1):21-5.
 27. Datta A, Basak N, Chaudhari SK, Sharma DK. Soil properties and organic carbon distribution under different land uses in reclaimed sodic soils of North-West India. *Geoderma Reg*. 2015;4:134-46. DOI: 10.1016/j.geodrs.2015.01.006
 28. Chanu PH. Land use effects on aggregation of acid soils under humid sub tropics. M.Sc. (ag) [thesis], submitted to Central Agricultural University. Imphal, Manipur; 2018.
 29. Prokop P, Kruczkowska B, Syiemlieh HJ, Bucala-Hrabia A. Impact of topography and sedentary swidden cultivation on soils in the hilly uplands of North-East India. *Land Degrad Dev*. 2018;29(8): 2760-70. DOI: 10.1002/ldr.3018
 30. Hombegowda HC, Jakhar P, Madhu M, Marwei Y. Thang bun: indigenous practice of in situ biochar preparation-cum-application for improved jhum cultivation in North East India. *Curr Sci*. 2021;120(7): 1-9.
 31. Wapongnungsang, Saplalrinliana H, Tripathi SK. Impact of low cost indigenous soil inputs on soil fertility in different fallow lands following shifting cultivation in Muallungthu, Mizoram. *J Indian Soc Soil Sci*. 2020;68(2):210-20. DOI: 10.5958/0974-0228.2020.00024.9
 32. Maithani K, Arunachalam A, Tripathi RS, Pandey HN. Nitrogen mineralization as influenced by climate, soil and vegetation in a subtropical humid forest in northeast

- India. Forest Ecol Manag. 1998;109(1-3):91-101.
DOI: 10.1016/S0378-1127(98)00246-1
33. Sharma AR, Jat ML, Saharawat YS, Singh VP, Singh R. Conservation agriculture for improving productivity and resource-use efficiency: prospects and research needs in Indian context. Indian J Agron. 2012;57:131-40.
34. McGrath D, Zhang C. Spatial distribution of soil organic carbon concentrations in grassland of Ireland. Appl Geochem. 2003;18(10):1629-39.
DOI: 10.1016/S0883-2927(03)00045-3
35. Tripathi OP, Pandey HN, Tripathi RS. Litter production, decomposition and physico-chemical properties of soil in 3 developed agroforestry systems of Meghalaya, Northeast India. Afr J Plant Sci. 2009;3(8):160-7.
36. Laxminarayana K. Microbial biomass in relation to soil properties under integrated farming systems of Meghalaya, India. Commun Soil Sci Plant Anal. 2010;41(3):332-45.
DOI: 10.1080/00103620903462332
37. Das A, Lal R, Patel DP, Idapuganti RG, Layek J, Ngachan SV et al. Effects of tillage and biomass on soil quality and productivity of lowland rice cultivation by small scale farmers in North Eastern India. Soil Till Res. 2014;143:50-8.
DOI: 10.1016/j.still.2014.05.012
38. Neina D. The role of soil pH in plant nutrition and soil remediation. Appl Environ Soil Sci. 2019;2019:1-9.
DOI: 10.1155/2019/5794869
39. Majumdar B, Kumar K, Venkatesh I, Patiram, Bhatt BP. Effect of different Agroforestry system on soil properties in acidic alfisols of Meghalaya. J Hill Res. 2004;17(1):1-5.
40. Vanlaldulati A. Soil fertility and productivity of Khasi Mandarin along the hill slope of Meghalaya. M.Sc. (ag) [thesis], submitted to Central Agricultural University. Imphal, Manipur; 2011.
41. Singh AK, Bordoloi LJ. Comparative study of soil fertility status under horticulture based land use systems in two different altitudes of Nagaland. J Indian Soc Soil Sci. 2014;62(1):75-9.
42. Gupta JP, Sharma MP, Bindroo RK. Characterization of healthy and unhealthy citrus orchard soils and plants of subtropical zone of Jammu region. J Indian Soc Soil Sci. 2004;52:473-5.
43. Sharma VK, Mahajan KK. Studies on nutrient status of mandarin orchards in Himachal Pradesh. Indian J Hortic. 1990;47:180-5.
44. Choudhury BU, Ansari MA, Chakraborty M, Meetei TT. Effect of land-use change along altitudinal gradients on soil micronutrients in the mountain ecosystem of Indian (Eastern) Himalaya. Natl. 2021:s10.
DOI:1038/s41598-021-93788-3
45. Jiang M, Xu L, Chen X, Zhu H, Fan H. Soil quality assessment based on a minimum data set: A case study of a county in the typical river delta wetlands. Sustainability. 2020;12(21):s10.3390/s12219033.
DOI: 10.3390/su12219033
46. Mukherjee A, Lal R. Comparison of soil quality index using three methods. PLOS ONE. 2014;9(8):e105981.
DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0105981
47. Ditzler CA, Tugel AJ. Soil quality field tools: experiences of USDA-NRCS soil quality institute. Agron J. 2002;94(1):33-8.
DOI: 10.2134/agronj2002.3300
48. Zornoza R, Mataix-Solera J, Guerrero C, Arcenegui V, Mataix-Beneyto J, Gómez I. Validating the effectiveness and sensitivity of two soil quality indices based on natural forest soils under Mediterranean conditions. Soil Biol Biochem. 2008;40(9):2079-87.
DOI: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.01.014
49. Andrews SS, Carroll CR. Designing a soil quality assessment tool for sustainable agroecosystem management. Ecol Appl. 2001;11(6):1573-85.
DOI: 10.1890/1051-0761(2001)011[1573:DASQAT]2.0.CO;2
50. Singh AK, Bordoloi LJ, Kumar M, Hazarika S, Parmar B. Land use impact on soil quality in eastern Himalayan region of India. Environ Monit Assess. 2014;186(4):2013-24.
DOI: 10.1007/s10661-013-3514-7

© 2023 Maurya et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/99169>