

Sacred Groves: A Pattern of Zagros Forests for Carbon Sequestration and Climate Change Reduction

Aioub Moradi

University of Kurdistan

Naghi Shabanian (✉ n.shabanian@uok.ac.ir)

University of Kurdistan <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5462-0374>

Research

Keywords: Zagros forests, Sacred groves, Silvopastoral lands, carbon sequestration

Posted Date: May 10th, 2021

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-270508/v2>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

51 ***1. Introduction***

52 Climate change and global warming due to rising greenhouse gas concentrations is one of the
53 major challenges in sustainable development. The increase of concerns about global warming and
54 climate change have led to special attention being paid to forests, soils, and their ability to carbon
55 sequestration sustainably [1, 2]. Vegetation and the soils covered by them are permanent pools and
56 play a significant role in sequestering atmospheric carbon, thus reducing the effects of climate
57 change [3]. The high capacity of forest ecosystems to decrease greenhouse gas emissions makes
58 carbon management a key component of future natural climate solutions [4-6]. Forests are good
59 criteria for controlling the carbon value of the atmosphere because they are the most important
60 carbon pools for carbon sequestration [7]. Forests reserve more than twice the value of carbon in
61 the atmosphere [8, 9], about 70% of global soil organic carbon and approximately
62 80 % of aboveground carbon [10, 11]. Therefore, these worth ecosystems are the most important
63 carbon pools among terrestrial ecosystems and play a sustainable and long-term role in reducing
64 climate change [12].

65 Disruptions are one of the factors that play a key role in the ecosystem carbon dynamics [13].
66 Natural and human-caused disruptions in forest ecosystems significantly affect ecosystem
67 performance [14, 15], and carbon balance [13]. One of the most desirable and cost-effective
68 approach for carbon sustainability in forests, as well as counter with disruptions such as
69 deforestation and degradation, is the conservation and development of protected forests, which has
70 been proposed globally [16]. Protected areas are the best strategy for biodiversity protection when
71 faced with degradation, fragmentation and ecosystem detriment [17, 18]. Sacred groves are tested
72 and proven procedure to preservation; as a result, it can be an important and vital part of protected
73 areas [17].

74 Zagros forests with an area of more than five million hectares are considered the natural
75 ecosystems of Iran and their economic value in terms of carbon sequestration is quite vital. Despite
76 severe and continuous traditional exploitation of the Zagros forests, some parts of forests which
77 are believed to be sacred religious areas and cemeteries have remained untouched (less-disturbed).
78 These areas are defined as sacred groves [17, 19]. In fact, sacred groves are forests that are less
79 disturbed and are of special spiritual importance to people and communities. The actual appearance
80 of the Zagros forests can be found in these sacred groves [20, 21]. In sacred groves of study area
81 about 250 plant species have been recorded [17].

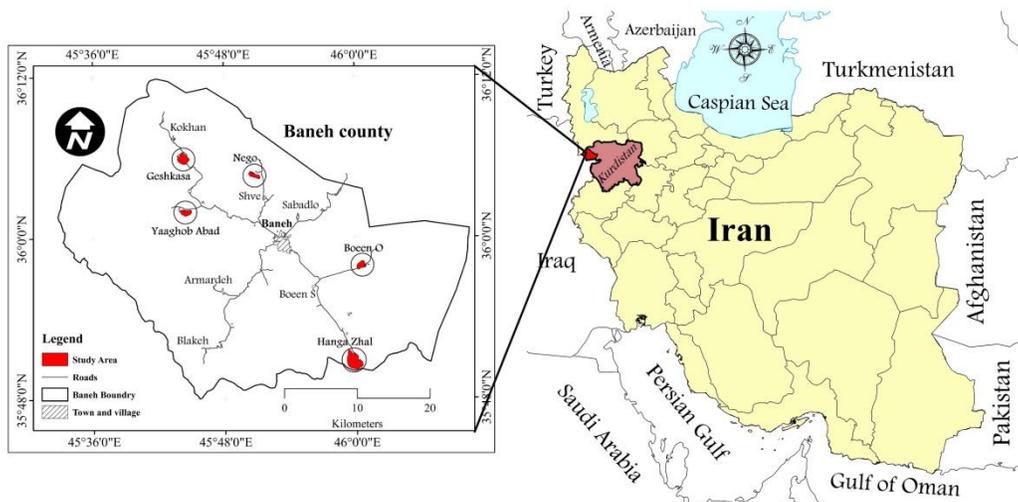
82 These areas (sacred groves) offer a valuable opportunity to researchers to obtain useful data on the
 83 real appearance of the Zagros forests through investigative research. With this information, these
 84 forests can be guided toward sustainability through medium- and long-term planning. Many
 85 studies offer strategies to minimize deforestation, prevent forest land use change, increase
 86 sequestration by increasing forest growth, and reduce carbon emissions to maintain or strengthen
 87 forest carbon stock [6]. Therefore, in this study, the amount of carbon content in sacred grove and
 88 silvopastoral lands were investigated to determine a model of the capacity of Zagros oak forests in
 89 carbon sequestration and climate change reduction. The aim of this study was to estimate the
 90 amount of carbon reserves in mentioned land-uses in order to obtain a systematic attitude towards
 91 management of these different land-use types and attain a suitable solution to counter the climate
 92 change crisis and ultimately sustainable environmental development.

93

94 **2. Materials and Methods**

95 ***Study site description***

96 The study area includes sacred groves and silvopastoral lands in Baneh County. This region is
 97 embedded in North West part of Iran (In the Zagros Mountains) which is located within 35° 48'
 98 02" – 36° 11' 40" north and 45° 32' 45" – 46° 10' 25" East (Fig.1). The climate is semi-humid and
 99 cold, with long and cold winters and moderate summers. The average elevation was 1550 m and
 100 total precipitation recorded was 600–800 mm. The average min. and max. Temperatures are –1.5
 101 and 26.4°C respectively.



102

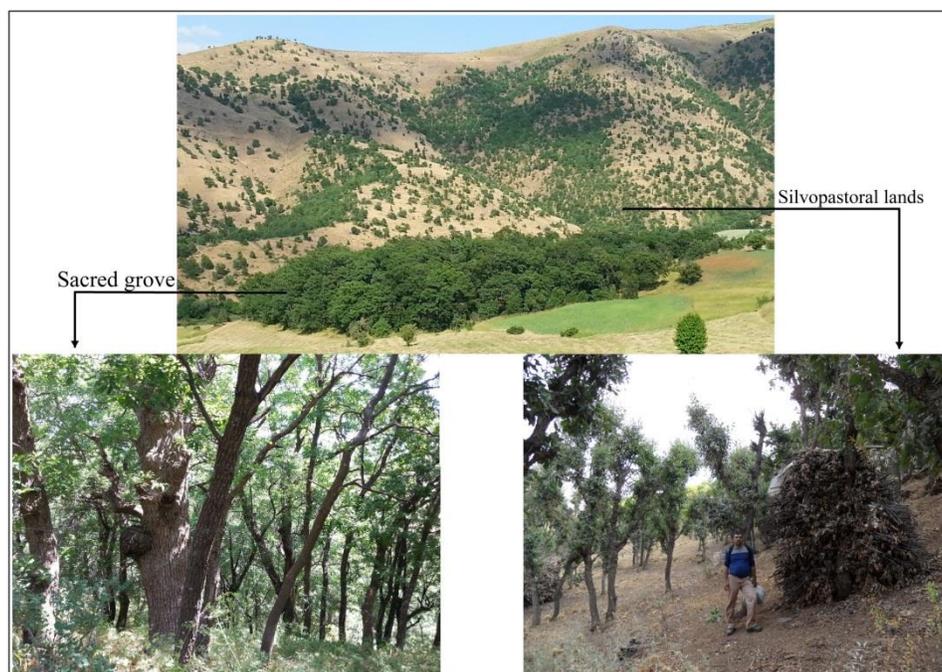
103

Fig. 1 Geographical location of the study area

104
105
106
107
108
109
110
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118

Dominant tree species are three kinds of oak, comprising *Quercus brantii* Lindel, *Quercus libani* Olive and *Quercus infectoria* Olive. Species of *Cerasus* sp., *Crataegus* spp., *Pistacia atlantica*, *Amygdalus* spp. and *Lonicera* sp. are the main companion woody species in these forests.

This study focused on 5 village's forests, include Hange Jal, Booien Olya, Nejo, Yaghoub Abad and Gashkese, as five sites (Fig.1). In each selected sites, those cemeteries that had an area of more than 1 hectare were selected as sacred groves. There are strict rules in the sacred groves that forbid the cutting of trees, hunting, animal grazing, collecting herbage, firewood or other plant products. Therefore this area includes less-disturbed forest stands. In fact, it can be said that these stands are a view of real forests of the study area (Fig. 2). In order to compare the carbon content of sacred groves with the exploited forests, the parts of the forests around these stands, that had the same physiographic conditions with the sacred groves, were selected as Silvopastoral lands. This land use is the forest that, Galazani system [22], livestock grazing and also some usages such as harvesting the wood, is done by forest residents (Fig. 2).

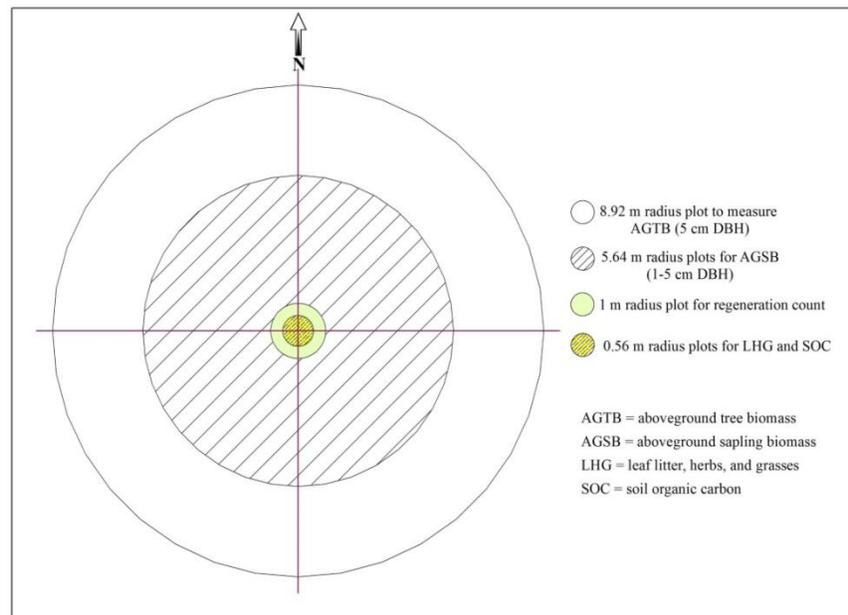


119
120
121

Fig 2 View of the two land uses studied (Sacred groves and Silvopastoral lands).

122 **Sampling design**

123 The nested plot was used in the sampling design [3, 23]. As shown in Figure 3, in concentric nested
124 circular plots, multiple sub plots are settled for specific aims: a large circular plot (250 m² with an
125 8.2 m radius) was established for measure the trees. Inside of large plot, a sub plot (100 m² with a
126 5.65 m radius) was used to sapling measurement. Also, a sub-plot (3.14 m² with a 1 m radius) was
127 set up to count regeneration and a small sub plot (0.56 m radius) was established for collecting leaf
128 litter, herbs, grass, and soil samples.



129

130

Fig. 3 Concentric nested circular plots

131

132 **Measurement of forest carbon stock**

133 Carbon pools measured in both land use include: Above-ground tree biomass (AGTB), Above-
134 ground sapling biomass (AGSB), Below-ground biomass (BB), Soil organic carbon (SOC), Leaf
135 litter, herbs, and grass (LHG) and Dead wood and fallen stumps (DWS). Therefore, the total carbon
136 content for each land use was measured using the following equation [23]:

137
$$TC = C (AGTB) + C (AGSB) + C (LHG) + C (BB) + C (DWS) + SOC \quad (1)$$

138

139 Where,

140

141 TC = total carbon stock for each land use [tC ha⁻¹]

142 $C (AGTB)$ = carbon content in aboveground tree biomass [tC ha⁻¹]
143 $C (AGSB)$ = carbon content in aboveground sapling biomass [[tC ha⁻¹]
144 $C (LHG)$ = carbon content in leaf litter, herb and grass [tC ha⁻¹]
145 $C (BB)$ = carbon content in belowground biomass [tC ha⁻¹]
146 $C (DWS)$ = carbon content in deadwood and stumps [tC ha⁻¹]
147 SOC = soil organic carbon [tC ha⁻¹]

148
149 Later, the total forest carbon stock was converted into carbon dioxide (CO₂) equivalent by
150 multiplying by 3.67 [24].

151 The methods for estimating carbon stock for each mentioned pools are explained in the following
152 sections.

153

154 ***Aboveground tree biomass (AGTB)***

155 In both land use studied, the diameter at breast height (DBH) and height of individual trees (≥ 5 cm
156 DBH) were measured. Then all measured trees were recorded and classified according to species.
157 The biomass equation suggested by Chave et al. 2005 and ICIMOD et al. 2010, was used to
158 calculate the aboveground tree biomass. This equation (2) is as follows:

$$159 \quad AGTB = 0.112 * (\rho D^2 H)^{0.916} \quad (2)$$

160 Where,

161 $AGTB$ = Above-ground tree biomass [Kg]

162 ρ = wood specific gravity [g cm⁻³]

163 D = Tree diameter at breast height [cm]

164 H = Tree height [m]

165 In both land use separately, the wood-specific density (ρ) for different tree species was determined
166 in the laboratory. After attained the biomass stock density in kg m⁻², this value was multiplied by
167 10 and converted to t ha⁻¹. Then, by multiplying the biomass content per 0.47, the carbon stock
168 was obtained [3, 23, 26].

169 ***Above-ground sapling biomass (AGSB)***

170 All saplings with a diameter 1-5 cm were measured in sub-plot with a 5.64 m radius. The following
171 formula was used to obtain the stems biomass of sapling:

173

$$172 \quad AGSB = \left(\frac{\pi}{4} * D^2 * H * f \right) * \rho \quad (3)$$

174 Where,

175 AGSB = Above-ground sapling biomass (stems biomass) [Kg]

176 D = Sapling diameter [cm]

177 H = Sapling height [m]

178 f = form quotient of Sapling (0.4)

179 ρ = wood specific gravity [g cm^{-3}]

180 The calculation of wood-specific density (ρ) as well as the conversion of kg m^{-2} to t h^{-1} was
181 performed as mentioned in equation 2. Biomass value was converted to carbon stock using the
182 carbon fraction of 0.47 [3, 23, 26].

183

184 ***Leaf litter, herbs, and grass biomass (LHG)***

185 The biomass of leaf litter, herbs, and grass (LHG) were determined in nested sub-plot of 0.56 m
186 radius. For this purpose, at first live components and all litter were gathered separately from these
187 small plots. Then, the weight of fresh samples was measured and recorded in the field. Finally, a
188 mixed sample (100 g) was placed in a marked bag to determine the oven dry weight in laboratory.
189 Following equation was used to given the amount of biomass [23, 25]:

190

$$191 \quad LHG = \frac{W_{field}}{A} * \frac{W_{subsample,dry}}{W_{subsample,wet}} * 10,000 \quad (4)$$

192 Where,

193 LHG = biomass of leaf litter, herb and grass [t ha^{-1}]

194 W_{field} = weight of the fresh field sample of leaf litter, herb and grass [g]

195 A = Sample plot area in which leaf litter, herbs, and grass were gathered [m^2]

196 $W_{subsample, dry}$ = weight of the oven-dry sample of leaf litter, herb and grass [g]

197 $W_{subsample, wet}$ = weight of the fresh sample of leaf litter, herb and grass [g]

198 At the end, LHG carbon content was obtained by multiplying with the default carbon fraction 0.47.

199

200 ***Belowground biomass (BB)***

201 Belowground biomass (BB) is difficult to measure, time consuming and has a lot of uncertainty.
202 The following formula (5) has been proposed for estimating belowground biomass by Cairns et al.
203 1997. This equation is based on the relationship between belowground and aboveground biomass
204 and can be used for a variety of species and climatic conditions. In this study, the belowground
205 biomass was calculated using this equation, which is as follows:

206

$$207 \quad BB = \exp[-1.085 + 0.9256 \times \ln(AGTB)] \quad (5)$$

208 Where,

209 BB = Belowground biomass [Kg]

210 AGTB = Above-ground tree biomass [Kg]

211 Finally, BB carbon content was calculated by multiplying with the default carbon fraction 0.47.

212

213 ***Dead wood and stumps (DWS)***

214 In the whole 250 m² plots, all stumps from logged trees, standing dead trees, fallen stems, and
215 fallen branches with a diameter at DBH and/or diameter ≥ 5 cm were measured. These dead parts
216 of trees are important carbon pools that must be taken into account. Therefore, the diameter, length
217 or height of each of the mentioned sections was recorded according to Instruction of ICIMOD et
218 al. 2010 and Pearson et al. 2007. The amount of biomass and carbon obtained from this section
219 was also calculated according to the mentioned instructions.

220 ***Soil organic carbon (SOC)***

221 At each land-use site, a five plate center (sub-plot of 0.56 m radius) was chosen for soil
222 sampling. Soil sampling was carried out separately at tow depths (0-15 and 10-30 cm). Then, five
223 well-mixed samples of soil for the first depth and five well-mixed samples of soil for the second
224 depth (about 2 kg) were prepared for each land use. Finally, 100 samples of prepared soil in plastic
225 bags were transferred to laboratory [28, 29]. To determine the percentage of soil organic carbon,

226 the Walkley and Black (1934) method was employed [30, 31]. After measuring the percentage of
227 organic carbon, the amount of soil organic carbon stock at each depth was calculated separately
228 for each land-use type and site through the following formula [3, 23]:

$$229 \quad \quad \quad SOC = \rho \times d \times \%C \quad (6)$$

230 Where,

231 SOC = soil organic carbon stock per unit area [$t \text{ ha}^{-1}$]

232 ρ = soil bulk density [$g \text{ cm}^{-3}$]

233 d = depth the soil sample was taken [cm]

234 $\% C$ = carbon concentration [%]

235

236 *Statistical analysis*

237 All analyses were conducted using SPSS software, version 23. The normality of the data and
238 residuals was checked. Then, after examining the homogeneity of variances, comparison of the
239 mean of the studied parameters in the two studied land use was performed by t-test (independent
240 samples t-test).

241

242 **3. Result**

243 In each of the two studied land use, 50 plots of 250 m^2 were measured. Table 1 gives a detailed
244 summary of statistics for biomass and carbon as well as the results of T-test in the two studied land
245 uses. The results showed that each of the studied variables in the two studied land use is
246 significantly different from each other ($P \leq 0.01$). The mean of each of these biomass or carbon
247 pools in silvopastoral is significantly lower than sacred groves.

248

Table 1 Summary of statistics for biomass and carbon at the studied land uses

Variables	Land use	Mean	Standard error	T-Test		
				T	df	Sig
AGTB	sacred groves	348.63 ^a	31.15	8.79	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	70.97 ^b	5.1			
BB	sacred groves	63.3 ^a	5.27	9.27	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	13.6 ^b	0.92			
AGSB	sacred groves	0.27 ^a	0.032	6.47	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	0.05 ^b	0.009			
Herbs and grass	sacred groves	1.03 ^a	0.12	3.97	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	0.42 ^b	0.09			
Leaf litter	sacred groves	11.55 ^a	0.82	7.70	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	4.17 ^b	0.49			
DWS	sacred groves	29.04 ^a	7.09	4.06	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	0.20 ^b	0.12			
TFBI	sacred groves	453.84 ^a	37.14	9.67	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	89.43 ^b	6.23			
TFC	sacred groves	213.3 ^a	17.45	9.67	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	42.03 ^b	2.93			
TSC	sacred groves	125.49 ^a	8.45	5.97	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	71.44 ^b	3.23			
TC	sacred groves	338.79 ^a	20.89	10.53	98	0.000
	silvopastoral	113.48 ^b	4.51			

250 Similar Roman letters beside means of any parameter indicates no difference at 5% level between attributes. TFBI: Total
 251 forest biomass; TFC: Total forest Carbon; TSC: Total soil organic carbon and TC: Total carbon

252

253 In the next sections, the pools of forest biomass and carbon stocks measured in the two land use
 254 are briefly reported.

255 ***Biomass content***

256 The mean of total biomass for both sacred groves and silvopastoral lands was estimated to be
 257 453.8 t ha⁻¹ and 89.4 t ha⁻¹, respectively. The results indicate that the common utilizations in the
 258 forests of the study area cause a significant reduction ($P \leq 0.01$) in the forest biomass value and
 259 respective carbon content. Although the total biomass content in the Silvopastoral is significantly
 260 less than the sacred groves, the amount of biomass in each of the pools in both land use was almost
 261 the same (table 2). In both land use, most of the biomass value is related to the AGTB and the least
 262 amount is related to the AGBS. The difference between the amounts of DWS biomass in the two
 263 land use is significant; so that its amount was more in the sacred groves (table 2). Another

264 important difference was that, the LHG biomass value in the sacred groves was significantly higher
 265 than the silvopastoral, but the proportion of LHG biomass in total biomass was higher in the
 266 silvopastoral lands.

267 **Table 2** Biomass value and its proportion at the studied land uses

Variables	Sacred groves		Silvopastoral	
	Biomass value (tha ⁻¹)	Proportion	Biomass value (tha ⁻¹)	Proportion
AGTB	348.63	76.82	70.97	79.38
BGB	63.30	13.95	13.61	15.22
ABSB	0.27	0.06	0.05	0.06
LHG	12.59	2.77	4.58	5.12
DWS	29.04	6.40	0.20	0.22
TFBI	453.83	100.00	89.41	100.00

268 TFBI: Total forest biomass

269

270 ***Carbon content***

271 As shown in table 1, the carbon content in each of the carbon pools in the two studied land uses
 272 were significantly different from each other. The average total carbon content was estimated to be
 273 338.79 tC ha⁻¹ and 113.46 tC ha⁻¹ respectively in the sacred grove and silvopastoral lands. Carbon
 274 proportion in carbon pools is not the same in two studied land uses, unlike the similar distribution
 275 of biomass content (table 3). The AGTB and soil had maximum share of the total forest carbon
 276 stock, while the ABSB contributed the lowest share in both land use. Average soil organic carbon
 277 was significantly lower (71.44 tC ha⁻¹) in silvopastoral lands, than in sacred groves (125.49 tC ha⁻¹)
 278 ¹). The important point was that, unexpectedly, in silvopastoral lands the soil carbon value (62.96%
 279 of total carbon) is higher than that of above-and belowground carbon (37.04% of total carbon)
 280 (Fig. 4).

281 The mean total sequestered carbon dioxide (CO₂) was 1243.36 tCO₂h⁻¹ in sacred grove and 416.4
 282 tCO₂h⁻¹ in silvopastoral lands. This is a significant reduction, i.e. the reduction of carbon dioxide
 283 absorption capacity in forests by incorrect operations.

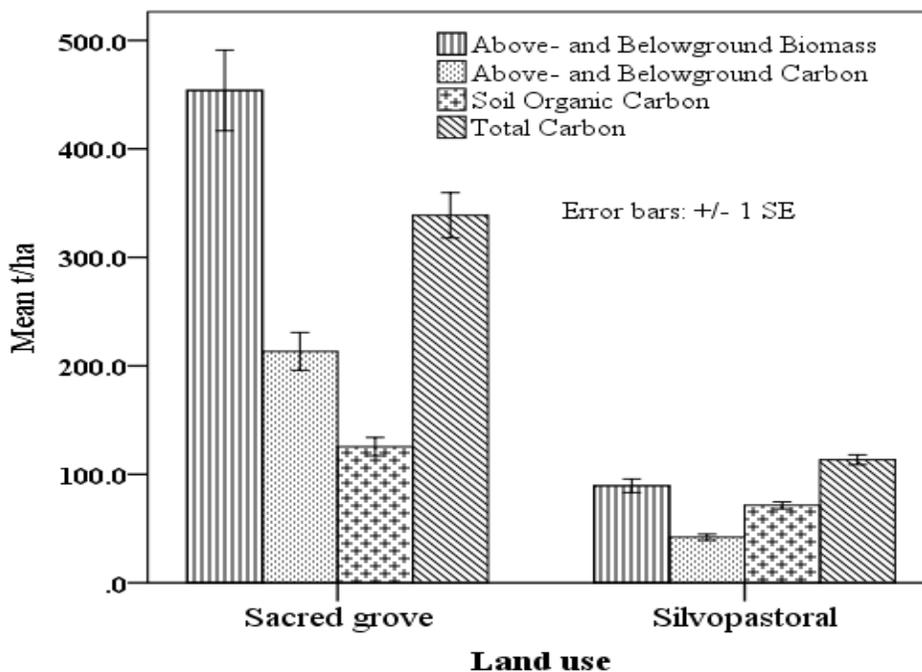
284

285 **Table 3** Carbon content and its proportion at the studied land uses

Variables	Sacred groves		Silvopastoral	
	Carbon content (tha ⁻¹)	Proportion	Carbon content (tha ⁻¹)	Proportion
AGTB	163.86	48.37	33.36	29.40
BGB	29.75	8.78	6.39	5.64
ABSB	0.13	0.04	0.02	0.02
LHG	5.92	1.75	2.15	1.90
DWS	13.65	4.03	0.09	0.08
TFC	213.30	62.96	42.02	37.04
TSC	125.49	37.04	71.44	62.96
TC	338.79	100.00	113.46	100.00

286 TFC: Total forest Carbon; TSC: Total soil organic carbon and TC: Total carbon

287



288 **Fig 4** Comparison of studied variables in two land use

289

291 **4. Discussion**

292 Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide has led to the global consequences of climate change.
293 Biological carbon sequestration through vegetation and soil is one of the cost-effective ways to
294 reduce this gas [32]. Forests are one of the most important elements of the global carbon cycle
295 [33]. Carbon deposits in the forest include plant biomass and carbon in the soil. In the present
296 study, for the first time, the amount of biomass and carbon storage in sacred groves in Zagros
297 forests were estimated and compared. Aboveground biomass as well as the amount of carbon in
298 all carbon pools in sacred groves was significantly higher than silvopastoral lands. There was no
299 human intervention in sacred groves and so in this land use, multi-storey tree cover, trees with
300 great height and diameter, dense canopy, abundant leaf litter, high deadwood, rich grass cover
301 under the canopy and species diversity led to very favorable conditions. However, grazing
302 traditionally occurs in silvopastoral lands. Because animal husbandry is carried out using
303 traditional methods, in addition to the grass cover of the forest floor, the branches and leaves of
304 the trees in these forests are used for grazing livestock through the pollarding system. In this land
305 use, the tree production and growth capability was reduced due to pollarding. The low foliage
306 production, forest floors bare of leaf litter, poor grass cover, high soil erosion and soil surface
307 compaction consequently lead to poor biomass and equilibrium of carbon inputs and storage which
308 were much lower than expected in the silvopastoral lands under study.

309 The amount of carbon stored in plants is strongly related to the amount of biomass [7]. The higher
310 the production capacity of above- and belowground biomass in different species and habitats, the
311 higher the carbon storage in the body of trees, leaf litter and soil.

312 When the density of the forest changes under the influence of human intervention, the amount of
313 carbon per unit area also changes [16]. Therefore, the significant difference between biomass and

314 carbon in the two studied uses was due to human intervention. These mismanaged interventions
315 significantly reduced the amount of biomass and carbon associated with it.

316 Various studies have shown that carbon is stored in different parts of the forest ecosystem, mostly
317 in wood [7, 34]. In this study, in the above- and belowground biomass section, the highest carbon
318 percentage was in the AGTB section, but in the sacred groves it was significantly higher than
319 silvopastoral lands. Another important point is the percentage of each carbon pool in the total
320 carbon stored. In sacred groves, the percentage of total carbon in above- and belowground was
321 62.96% while the percentage of soil carbon was 37.04%. In total contrast, in silvopastoral lands,
322 the percentage of soil carbon was greater (62.96) than the percentage of total carbon above- and
323 below-ground (37.04). This indicates a decrease in tree density, seedlings and regeneration and
324 much destruction due to improper use of silvopastoral lands.

325 The amount of soil carbon in sacred groves was approximately 1.8 times that of silvopastoral lands.
326 The change in the amount of soil carbon sequestration depends on the amount of carbon entering
327 the soil through plant debris and the amount of carbon loss through decomposition [35]. Many
328 researchers [1, 35-37], have pointed to the relationship between soil organic carbon sequestration
329 and vegetation percentage, leaf litter and crop residues, land use and management. The significant
330 difference of soil carbon in the two land uses studied in this study was also due to the difference
331 in the return of organic matter to the soil and its small amount in silvopastoral lands. The results
332 of this study indicate that sacred groves with high biodiversity are part of the Zagros forests. In
333 fact, if the forests of the Zagros were less degraded or properly managed, they would be in a similar
334 situation to sacred groves today. If this were the case, these forests would have a greater impact
335 on carbon sequestration and climate change. Sacred grove use currently absorbs 826.96 tons of
336 carbon dioxide per hectare more than silvopastoral lands and this is a sign of high degradation in

337 the forests of the study area. Appropriate management would prevent further degradation and make
338 use of the good potential of these forests to reduce atmospheric gases through carbon sequestration.

339

340 *5. Conclusions*

341 Forest ecosystems have the greatest potential for atmospheric carbon sequestration. Improper
342 human intervention in forest ecosystems accelerates the process of global warming. Accelerating
343 global warming is the most important factor in future climate change. According to the results
344 obtained in this study, forest ecosystems that are protected against human intervention play a
345 significant role in long-term carbon storage. Any interference with the natural conditions of the
346 ecosystem has a significant negative impact on carbon reserves. Therefore, by selecting
347 appropriate measures, local communities should be empowered to reduce their dependence on low
348 incomes obtained from deforestation and conversion. In addition to carbon storage, sacred groves
349 are the most important centers for biodiversity conservation as more formal methods for protected
350 areas have often failed. The number of sacred groves in the forests of the North Zagros is
351 significant. According to the above, the Zagros forests in western Iran have essential carbon
352 reserves and biodiversity that are of great environmental importance. Taking into consideration
353 the vast and significant area of the Zagros forests in western Iran, the role of this natural and
354 valuable ecosystem in dealing with recent climate change becomes more apparent.

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362 **Abbreviations**

363 AGTB: Above-ground tree biomass; AGSB: Above-ground sapling biomass; BB: Below-ground
364 biomass; SOC: Soil organic carbon; LHG: Leaf litter, herbs, and grass; DWS: Dead wood and
365 fallen stumps; TC: Total carbon stock; DBH: Diameter at breast height; ρ : wood-specific density.

366 **Availability of data and materials**

367 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding
368 author on reasonable request.

369 **Competing interests**

370 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

371 **Funding**

372 This study was a Postdoctoral project in university of Kurdistan (Iran) and supported by a grant
373 from this university.

374 **Author contributions statement**

375 AM designed the research, gathered and analyzed the data under scientific advice of Dr. N Sh.
376 AM wrote the manuscript and N Sh. thoroughly reviewed and edited the manuscript. **Compliance**

377 **with ethical standards**

378 **Acknowledgements**

379 Not applicable

380

381 **References**

- 382 1. PahlavanYali Z, Zarrinkafsh M, Moeini A. Quantitative Estimation of Soil Carbon Sequestration
383 in Three Land Use Types (Orchard, Paddy Rice and Forest) in a Part of Ramsar Lands, Northern
384 Iran. *J Water Soil*. 2016;30(3):758–768.
- 385 2. Johnsen KH, Wear D, Oren R, Teskey RO, Sanchez F, Will R, Butnor J, Markewicz D, et al.
386 Meeting globalpolicy commitments: Carbon sequestration and southern pine forests. *JOF*.
387 2001;99(4):14-2.
- 388 3. Karki S, Joshi NR, Udas E, Adhikari MD, Sherpa S, Kotru R, Karky BS, Chettri N, Ning W.
389 Assessment of Forest Carbon Stock and Carbon Sequestration Rates at the ICIMOD Knowledge
390 Park in Godavari. *ICIMOD*. 2016;41p.
- 391 4. Fargione JE, Bassett S, Boucher T, Bridgham SD, Conant RT, Cook-Patton SC, Ellis PW, Falcucci

- 392 A, Fourqorean JW, Gopalakrishna T, et al. Natural climate solutions for the United States. *Sci.*
393 *Adv.* 2018;4:1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aat1869>
- 394 5. Griscom BW, Adams J, Ellis PW, Houghton RA, Lomax G, Miteva DA, Schlesinger WH, Shoch
395 D, Siikamäki JV, Smith P, Woodbury P, et al. Natural climate solutions. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.*
396 *S. A.* 2017;114:11645–11650. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1710465114>
- 397 6. Ontl TA, Janowiak MK, Swanston CW, Daley J, Handler S, Cornett, M, Hagenbuch S, Handrick
398 C, Mccarthy L, Patch N. Forest Management for Carbon Sequestration and Climate Adaptation. *J.*
399 *For.* 2020;118: 86–101. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jofore/fvz062>
- 400 7. Wegiel A, Polowy, K. Aboveground Carbon Content and Storage in Mature Scots Pine Stands of
401 Different Densities. *Forests.* 2020;11(2) 240. <https://doi:10.3390/f11020240>
- 402 8. Zhang M, Du H, Zhou G, Li X, Mao F, Dong L, Zheng J, Liu H, Huang Z, He S. Estimating Forest
403 Aboveground Carbon Storage in Hang-Jia-Hu Using Landsat TM/OLI Data and Random Forest
404 Model. *Forests.* 2019;10(11):1004. <https://doi.org/10.3390/f10111004>
- 405 9. Pan Y, Birdsey RA, Fang J, Houghton R, Kauppi PE, Kurz WA, Phillips OL, Shvidenko A, Lewis
406 SL, et al. A Large and Persistent Carbon Sink in the World’s Forests. *Science.* 2011;333:988–993.
- 407 10. Santini NS, Adame MF, Nolan RH, Miquelajauregui Y, Piñero D, Mastretta-Yanes A, Cuervo-
408 Robayo ÁP, Eamus D. Storage of organic carbon in the soils of Mexican temperate forests. *For.*
409 *Ecol. Manag.* 2019;446:115–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2019.05.029>
- 410 11. Lin B, Ge J. Valued forest carbon sinks: How much emissions abatement costs could be reduced in
411 China. *J. Clean. Prod.* 2019;224:455–464. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.03.221>
- 412 12. Labrecque S, Fournier R, Luther J, Piercey D. A comparison of four methods to map biomass from
413 Landsat-TM and inventory data in western Newfoundland. *For. Ecol. Manag.* 2006;226:129–144.
414 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2006.01.030>
- 415 13. Rebane S, Jõgiste K, Kiviste A, Stanturf JA, Metslaid M. Patterns of Carbon Sequestration in a
416 Young Forest Ecosystem after Clear-Cutting. *Forests.* 2020;11(2):126.
417 <https://doi.org/10.3390/f11020126>
- 418 14. Köster K, Köster E, Orumaa A, Parro K, Jõgiste K, Berninger F, Pumpanen J, Metslaid M. How
419 Time since Forest Fire Affects Stand Structure, Soil Physical-Chemical Properties and Soil CO₂
420 Efflux in Hemiboreal Scots Pine Forest Fire Chronosequence? *Forests.* 2016;7(9):201.
421 <https://doi.org/10.3390/f7090201>

- 422 15. Parro K, Koster K, Jogiste K, Seglins K, Sims A, Stanturf JA, Metslaid M. Impact of post-fire
423 management on soil respiration, carbon and nitrogen content in a managed hemiboreal forest. J.
424 Environ. Manag. 2019;233:371–377. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2018.12.050>
- 425 16. Fragoso-López PI, Rodríguez-Laguna R, Otazo-Sánchez EM, González-Ramírez CA, Valdéz-
426 Lazalde JR, Cortés-Blobaum HJ, Razo-Zárate R. Carbon Sequestration in Protected Areas: A Case
427 Study of an *Abies religiosa* (H.B.K.) Schlecht. et Cham Forest. Forests. 2017;8(11):429.
428 <https://doi.org/10.3390/f8110429>
- 429 17. Plieninger T, Quintas-Soriano C, Torralba M, Mohammadi Samani K, Shakeri Z. Social dynamics
430 of values, taboos and perceived threats around sacred groves in Kurdistan, Iran. People
431 Nat. 2020;2:1237– 1250. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pan3.10158>
- 432 18. Watson J, Dudley N, Segan D, Hockings, M. The performance and potential of protected
433 areas. Nature. 2014;515:67–73. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13947>
- 434 19. Pungetti G, Oviedo G, Hooke D. Sacred species and sites: Advances in biocultural conservation.
435 Cambridge University Press. 2012;472p.
- 436 20. Jazirehi MH, Ebrahimi Rostaghi M. Silviculture in Zagros. University of Tehran Press. 2013;560p.
- 437 21. Shakeri Z, Silvicultural and Ecological Effect of Galazani on Oak Trees in Baneh Forest (Kurdistan
438 Province NW Iran). M.Sc. thesis in Forestry, Tehran University. 2007;65p.
- 439 22. Valipour A, Plieninger T, Shakeri Z, Ghazanfari H, Namiranian M, Lexer MJ. Traditional
440 silvopastoral management and its effects on forest stand structure in northern Zagros, Iran. Forest
441 Ecol Manag. 2014;327:221–230. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2014.05.004>
- 442 23. ICIMOD, ANSAB, FECOFUN. Forest carbon measurement guidelines. Kathmandu, Nepal:
443 ICIMOD. 2010;67p.
- 444 24. Pearson TR, Brown SL, Birdsey RA. Measurement guidelines for the sequestration of forest
445 carbon. US: Northern Research Station, Department of Agriculture. 2007.
446 http://www.nrs.fs.fed.us/pubs/gtr/gtr_nrs18.pdf (accessed 27 May 2010)
- 447 25. Chave J, Andalo C, Brown S, Cairns MA, Chambers JQ, Eamus D. Tree allometry and improved
448 estimation of carbon stocks. Oecologia. 2005;87-99. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-005-0100-x>
- 449 26. Sumarga E, Nurudin N, Suwandhi I. Land-Cover and Elevation-Based Mapping of Aboveground
450 Carbon in a Tropical Mixed-Shrub Forest Area in West Java, Indonesia. Forests. 2020;11(6):636

- 451 <https://doi.org/10.3390/f11060636>
- 452 27. Cairns MA, Brown S, Helmer EH, Baumgardner GA. Root biomass allocation in the world's upland
453 forests. *Oecologia*. 1997;111(1):1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442005020>
- 454 28. Gao Y, Schumann M, Chen H, Wu N, Luo, P. Impacts of grazing intensity on soil carbon and
455 nitrogen in an alpine meadow on the eastern Tibetan Plateau. *J FOOD AGRIC ENVIRON*.
456 2009;7(2):749–754.
- 457 29. Paul KI, Polglase PJ, Nyakuengama JG, Khanna PK. Change in soil carbon following afforestation.
458 *For. Ecol. Manag.* 2002;168:241–257. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1127\(01\)00740-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1127(01)00740-X)
- 459 30. Noso MD, Jobbagy EG, Paruelo JM. Carbon sequestration in semi-arid rangelands: Comparison
460 of *Pinus ponderosa* plantations and grazing exclusion in NW Patagonia. *J Arid Environ*.
461 2006;67:142–156. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2005.12.008>
- 462 31. Amanuel W, Yimer F, Karlun E. Soil organic carbon variation in relation to land use changes: The
463 case of Birr watershed, upper Blue Nile River Basin, Ethiopia. *Ecol. Environ.* 2018;42(16).
464 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41610-018-0076-1>
- 465 32. Johnsen KH, Wear D, Oren R, Teskey RO, Sanchez F, Will R, Butnor J, Markewicz D, Richter D,
466 Rials T, Allen HL, Seiler J, Ellsworth D, Maier C, Samuelson L, Katul D, Philougherty G. Meeting
467 global policy commitments : Carbon sequestration and southern pine forests. *Journal of Forestry*.
468 2001;99(4).
- 469 33. Aris D. Calibration of LAI-2000 to estimate leaf area index and assessment of its relationship with
470 stand productivity in six native and introduced tree species in Costa Rica. *For. Ecol. Manag.*
471 2007;247(1):185-193.
- 472 34. Dewar RC, Cannell MG. Carbon sequestration in the trees, products and soils of forest plantations:
473 an analysis using UK examples, *Tree Physiol.* 1992;11(1):49–71
474 <https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/11.1.49>
- 475 35. Rice CW. Carbon Cycle in Soils - Dynamics and Management. *Encyclopedia of Soils in the*
476 *Environment*. 2004;4:164–170. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-12-348530-4/00183-1>
- 477 36. Singh G, Bala N, Chaudhuri K, Meena R. Carbon Sequestration Potential of Common Access
478 Resources in Arid and Semi-arid Regions of Northwestern India. *Indian For.* 2003;129: 859–864.
- 479 37. Salehi A, Noormohammadi E. Effect of grazed and surface scrafication on soil properties and

480 regeneration in central Zagros forests (Case study: Aleshtar city forests). *J For Wood Prod.*
481 2012;65:315–325.

482 38. Varamesh S. Comparison of Carbon Sequestration in Broad Leaved and Needle Leaved Species in
483 Urban Forest (Case study: Chitgar park of Tehran). M.Sc. thesis in Forestry, Tarbiat Modares
484 University. 2009;130p

Figures

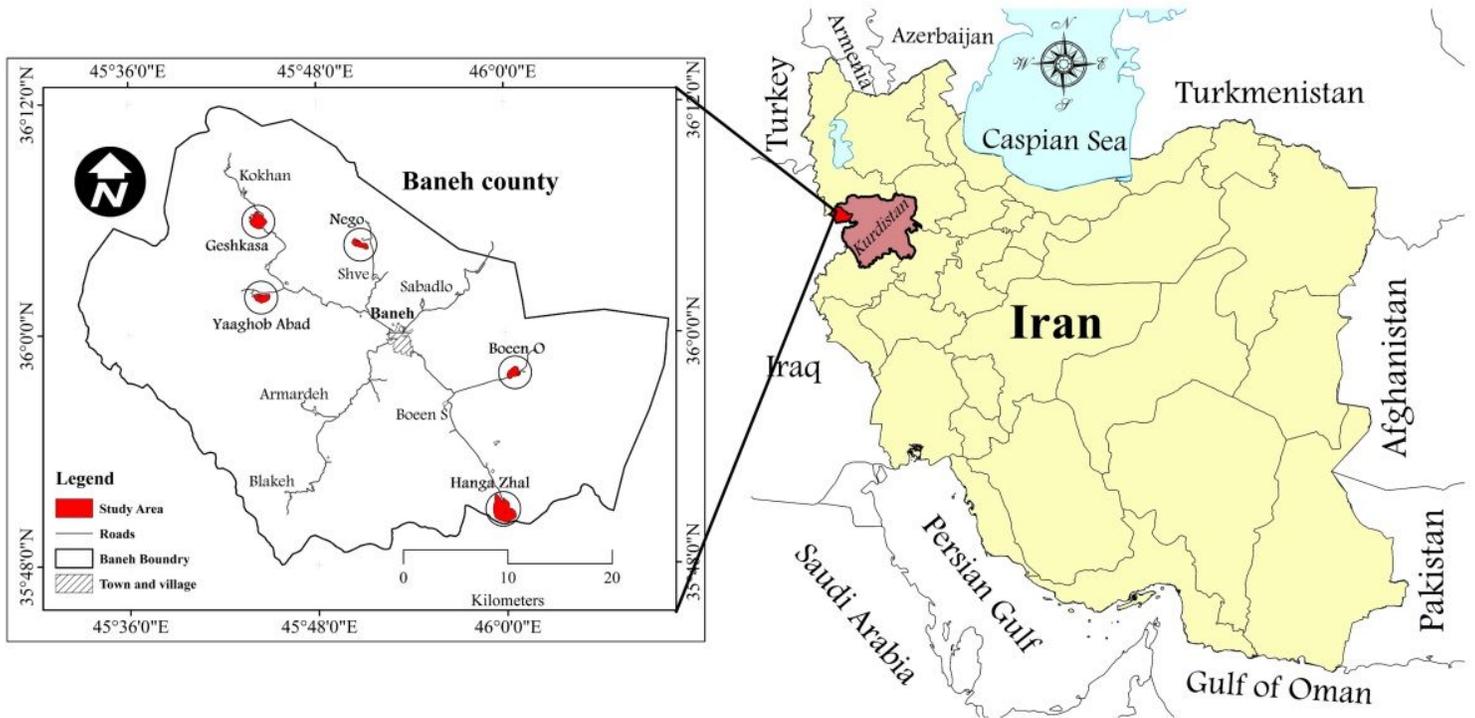


Figure 1

Geographical location of the study area Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

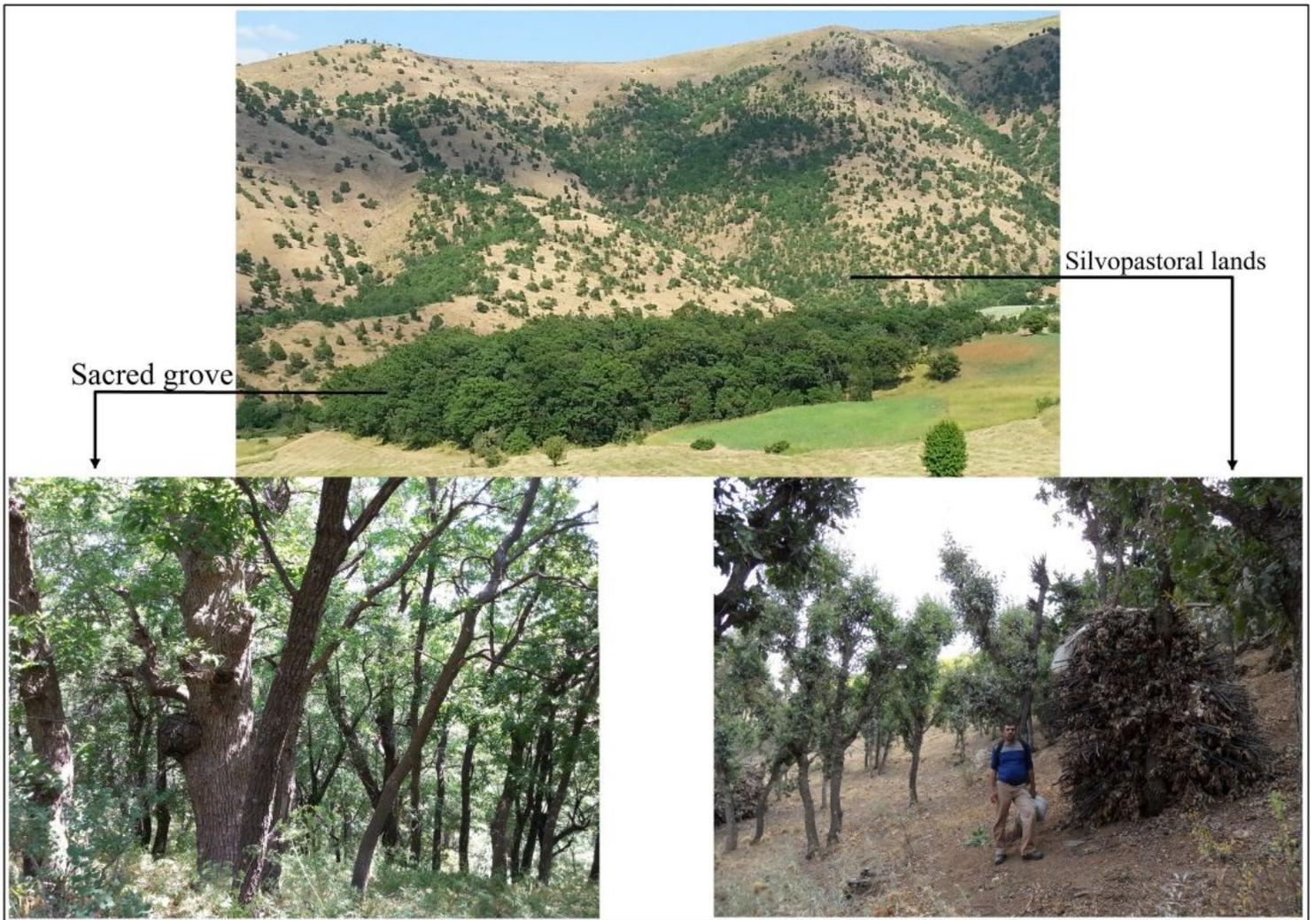


Figure 2

View of the two land uses studied (Sacred groves and Silvopastoral lands).

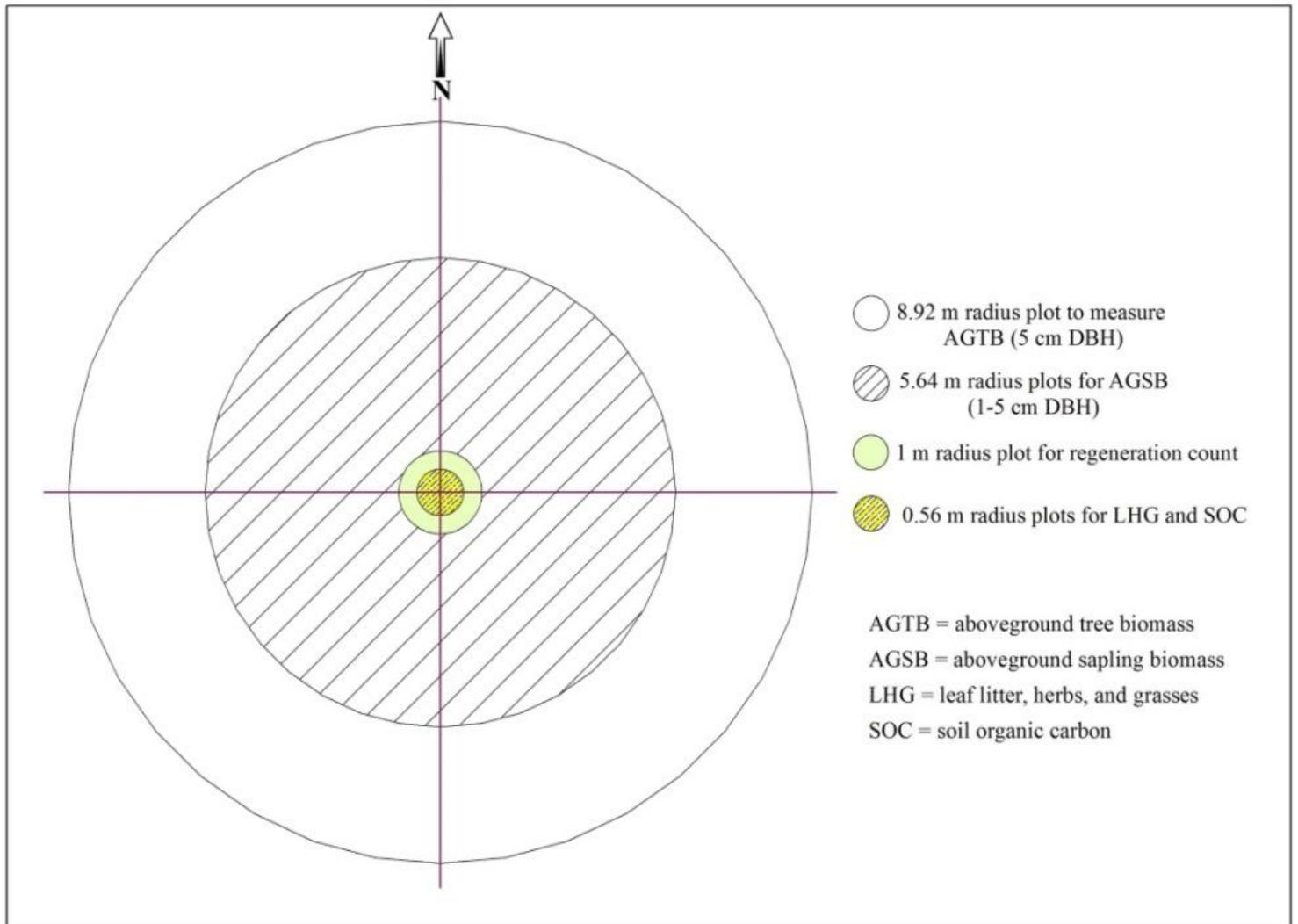


Figure 3

Concentric nested circular plots

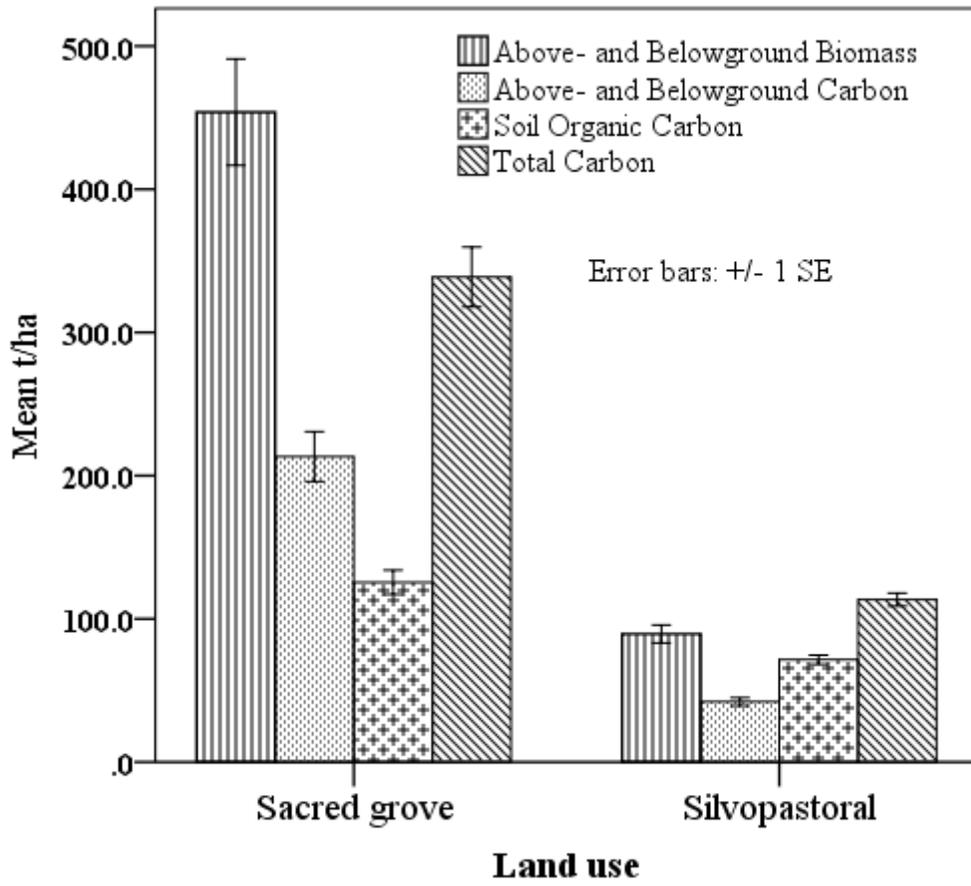


Figure 4

Comparison of studied variables in two land use