
1 **Response of soil nutrients and erodibility to slope aspect in the northern**
2 **agro-pastoral ecotone, China**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Soil erosion, considered a major environmental and social problem, leads to the
20 loss of soil nutrients and the degradation of soil structure, impacts plant growth.
21 However, data on the effects of land use changes caused by vegetation restoration on
22 soil nutrients and erodibility at different slope aspects is limited. This study was
23 conducted to detect the response of soil nutrients and erodibility of different slope
24 aspects in a typical watershed of the northern agro-pastoral ecotone in China. The
25 following indexes were used to determine the improvement of soil nutrients and
26 erodibility through a weighted summation method: comprehensive soil nutrient index
27 and comprehensive soil erodibility index. The results showed that the vegetation types
28 with the highest comprehensive soil quality index (CSQI) on the western, northern,
29 southern, and eastern slopes were *Pinus sylvestris* and *Astragalus melilotoides* (1.45),
30 *Caragana korshinskii* and *Capillipedium parviflorum* (2.35), *Astragalus melilotoides*
31 (4.78), and *Caragana korshinskii* and *Lespedeza bicolor* (5.00), respectively. Slope
32 aspect had a significant effect on understory vegetation characteristics, soil nutrients,
33 and soil erodibility. Understory vegetation and soil characteristics explained
34 50.86–74.56% of the total variance in soil nutrients and erodibility of slope aspect.

35 Mean weight diameter and total phosphorus were the main factors affecting CSQI on
36 different slope aspects. Our study suggested the combinations of species, such as *C.*
37 *korshinskii* and *L. bicolor*, were the best species to include on any slope aspect in
38 regard to improving soil nutrients and soil erodibility.

39 **Keywords:** Slope aspect; Soil nutrients; Soil erodibility; Soil erosion; Vegetation
40 restoration; Land use

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Soil erosion, considered a major environmental and social problem, leads to the
43 loss of soil nutrients and the degradation of soil structure, influences the functional
44 capacity of soils on a global scale (Singh and Panda, 2017; Wen et al., 2021).
45 Vegetation restoration is an important method of ecological restoration that aims to
46 control soil erosion and prevent soil degradation (Schmiedel et al., 2017; Zhang et al.,
47 2021). Vegetation restoration can improve the soil structure and nutrients, which in
48 turn promotes the restoration of soil quality and function (Guo et al., 2021; Li et al.,
49 2017). Changes in land use due to vegetation restoration play an important role in
50 improving the environment and ecosystem function, as well as improving soil quality
51 and soil nutrient cycling (Akiyama and Kawamura, 2007; Singh and Gupta, 2018).

53 Previous studies have shown that the plants selected for vegetation restoration
54 projects drive land use change and alter soil properties, thus affecting soil erodibility
55 (Wang et al., 2019b, a; Zhang et al., 2019). Many studies have also elucidated the
56 influences of land use change on soil nutrients and have confirmed that revegetation is
57 an effective way to enhance soil nutrients (Huang et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020; Yang et
58 al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2020). Most studies have only focused on one aspect; thus, they
59 lack comprehensive consideration and evaluation of the impact of land use changes
60 caused by vegetation restoration on soil nutrients and erodibility. However, it is not
61 clear which plants selected for restoration are the most effective in enhancing soil
62 nutrients and reducing soil erodibility. The lack of a comprehensive understanding
63 prevents us from gaining the best ecological benefits from vegetation restoration.
64 Therefore, studies must be conducted on the response of soil nutrients and erodibility
65 to different vegetation restoration types.

66 Soil erodibility is the sensitivity of the soil surface to erosion processes (Batista
67 et al., 2023; Bryan et al., 1989). It is a necessary parameter for establishing soil loss
68 equations and erosion models. There is currently no soil erosion model that can
69 accurately predict soil erosion, although there are many related models (de Vente et al.,

70 2013, 2008). At present, the soil erodibility K-factor, as defined in the general soil
71 loss equation (USLE), is the most widely used measure (Wischmeier and Smith,
72 1978). In addition to K, other soil indexes have been adopted, including saturated
73 hydraulic conductivity (SHC), soil disintegration rate (SDR), mean weight diameter
74 (MWD), soil structural stability index (SSSI), clay ratio (CR), and soil organic carbon
75 cementing agent index (SCAI), to quantify soil erodibility (Dong et al., 2022a; Guo et
76 al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). Soil organic carbon, nitrogen, and
77 phosphorus as well as their stoichiometry is also essential for assessing soil quality as
78 well as ecosystem productivity and functionality (Borchard et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020;
79 Masciandaro and Ceccanti, 1999; Schloter et al., 2003). A single index cannot fully
80 reflect all soil properties; therefore, it is necessary to develop a comprehensive soil
81 index using several related indicators.

82 In addition to soil properties, topographic factors also significantly affect soil
83 nutrients and erodibility (Bangroo et al., 2017; Nabiollahi et al., 2018; Qin et al., 2016;
84 Zhang et al., 2018). Slope aspect can affect the growth of plants due to a combination
85 of factors, such as light, temperature, wind speed, and precipitation, which can cause
86 significant changes in the ecological relationship between plants and the environment
87 (Li et al., 2018; Tamene et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). This is especially true for
88 harsh climates such as cold, dry alpine regions in the north, in which plants are more
89 sensitive to environmental changes. However, the optimal vegetation restoration type
90 has primarily been studied by slope gradient and slope position (Dong et al., 2022a;
91 Guo et al., 2021; Wen et al., 2021). There is a lack of systematic evaluation of the
92 effects of land use changes caused by vegetation restoration on soil nutrients and
93 erodibility on different slope aspects. Therefore, the classification of slope aspect
94 needs to be further refined to elucidate the response of different slope aspects to
95 changes in soil nutrients and erodibility caused by revegetation.

96 The ecologically fragile northern agro-pastoral zone in China is located in an
97 erosion zone affected by both wind and water; soil erosion in this zone is considered
98 very serious (Guo et al., 2019). Recently, the Chinese government has planned and
99 carried out a series of ecological restoration projects in this region, including the
100 Beijing-Tianjin Wind and Sand Source Control Project, the Beijing-Hebei Water
101 Protection Forest Project, and the Sebei Forest Plantation Afforestation Project. These
102 ecological restoration projects have effectively reduced land erosion and
103 desertification, and have significantly delayed the onslaught of wind and sand (Wang

104 et al., 2021b; Zeng et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2017). However, the method used for
105 afforestation, which mainly consists of plantations, is affected by differences in water,
106 heat, wind, and sand in the different habitats, making it difficult to achieve vegetation
107 restoration in some ecologically fragile areas, and the selection of suitable tree species
108 is still equivocal.

109 Based on the abovementioned scientific gaps, we hypothesize that both slope
110 aspect and land use types can significantly alter soil structure and properties to
111 influence soil nutrients and erodibility under vegetation restoration. We further
112 hypothesize that the western slope may have the lowest comprehensive soil quality
113 index compared to other slope aspects. Therefore, we selected four slope aspects
114 (west, north, south, and east) that have four different land use types (degraded land,
115 grasslands, shrublands and woodlands) in a typical watershed of the northern
116 agro-pastoral ecotone with three specific purposes: 1) to determine the impact of
117 different vegetation types on different slope aspects on soil nutrient improvement and
118 soil erodibility enhancement; 2) to determine the key influencing factors affecting soil
119 nutrients and erodibility of the four slope aspects; and 3) to provide optimal
120 revegetation models for improving soil nutrients and reducing soil erodibility on
121 different slope aspects.

122 **2. Materials and Methods**

123 **2.1. Study area**

124 This study was conducted in the Yangcaogou Watershed (41°4'~41°8' N,
125 114°58'~115°2' E; Fig.1), Chongli District, Zhangjiakou City, Heibei Province, China.
126 The watershed is located in a typical ecological transition zone of the agro-pastoral
127 ecotone in northern China (Wu et al., 2023). The study site spans an area of 10.6 km²
128 with an altitude ranging from 1084 to 1575 m. It belongs to a typical temperate
129 continental monsoon semi-arid climate with an annual average temperature of 3.5 °C.
130 The average annual rainfall is 401.6 mm. The rainy season occurs from June to
131 September (Chang et al., 2021; Guo et al., 2019). The main soil type is classified as
132 chestnut soil in both the Chinese Soil Taxonomy and the World Reference Base for
133 Soil Resources (Schad, 2017). Most of the study area consists of Proterozoic soil rock
134 formations. Owing to irrational human reclamation and grazing, there is very serious
135 soil and gully erosion. Over the past decade, due to the implementation of the
136 Beijing–Tianjin Sandstorm Source Control Project, soil erosion and desertification
137 has been effectively mitigated (Wang et al., 2020b). However, native plant

138 populations have been diminished and instead the area is planted with trees, shrubs,
139 and herbs.

140 **2.2. Selection of sites and determination of slope aspect**

141 The study was conducted during the 2021 growing season. A comprehensive
142 field survey was conducted on the dominant plant species and soil properties of each
143 of the following land use types: degraded land, grasslands, shrublands, and woodlands
144 in the Yangcaogou watershed. Grasslands, shrublands, and woodlands were restored
145 from degraded land over the past 12 years. The degraded land (loss of soil material
146 from wind and water erosion, degradation of physical, chemical and biological
147 properties of soil) was previously degraded cropland. All land use types were
148 vegetated and restored in the form of engineering measures such as fish scale pits
149 (Wang et al., 2014b) and parallel ditches (Barua and Alam, 2013).

150 In addition to the degraded land, the other three land use types were all sampled
151 along complete slope aspects at the E, W, N, and S slopes. It includes 28 sample sites
152 (20 m × 20 m) of a degraded land, two grasslands, two shrublands and two woodlands
153 on each slope aspect. Three sampling quadrats (1 m × 1 m) were set up in each
154 sample site to investigate and record the species, height, richness, coverage,
155 aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, and litter biomass of herbs. Height was
156 measured as the average height of herbs in the sample. Biomass coverage was
157 determined following the visual method (Proulx and Mazumder, 1998). Richness was
158 calculated by measuring the number of individuals of each herb in the quadrat and
159 calculating the percentage of its occurrence (Dou et al., 2023). Belowground biomass
160 and soil samples were collected with a 9 cm diameter soil drill. The measured land
161 use types, major plant species, and understory vegetation characteristics at each
162 selected field site are listed in Table S1.

163 Following the methods described by (Yimer et al., 2006), study sites were
164 selected that included the four land use types on each of the four slope aspects: east,
165 west, north, and south. Eastern, western, northern, and southern slopes are also known
166 as semi-sunny, semi-shady, shady, and sunny slopes (Che et al., 2022; Chen et al.,
167 2021b). In this region, four unrestored degraded land were selected as representatives
168 from the western slope. The slope gradients and positions were similar for all selected
169 sample sites (Fig. 1).

170 **2.3. Soil sampling and analysis**

171 Three quadrants were selected at each site to investigate vegetation and collect
172 soil samples. For each sampling point, a steel cutting ring (100 cm³) was used to
173 obtain 75 soil samples (25 sites × three sampling points). The saturated hydraulic
174 conductivity of the soil were evaluated using the constant head permeability test
175 (Chandler and Chappell, 2008). The mean weight diameter was measured by screens
176 with different pore sizes (0.25, 0.50, 1.00, 2.50 and 5.00 mm) (Campo et al., 2008).
177 After air-drying via dry screening, 50 g of the soil samples were placed on the sieve of
178 a soil aggregate analyzer (TTF-100 model, China), then completely immersed in
179 water, and shaken up and down 30 times for 1 minute (Wang et al., 2014a). After
180 shaking, samples were removed from the settling cylinder, and the remaining
181 aggregates on each sieve were put into an aluminum box for drying. Finally, the
182 samples were weighed and the dried aggregates were recorded.

183 Soil characteristics of different vegetation types at different slope aspects are
184 listed in Table S2. Topsoil samples were collected from 0–10 cm using a cutting ring.
185 Samples were brought back to the lab to oven-dried at 105°C for 24 hours. Then, the
186 soil bulk density (SBD) (Lardy et al., 2022; Moreira et al., 2020) and soil capillary
187 porosity (SCP) (Singh and Pollard, 1958) were measured. In addition, 225 mixed soil
188 samples (25 sites × three quadrats/site × three samples/quadrat) were collected as soil
189 samples. Among them, the particle size distribution of clay content (Cl), silt content
190 (Si), sand content (Sa) was determined by a Microtrac S3500 laser particle sizer
191 (Malvern 3000, UK). Total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorus (TP) were determined
192 by the dichromate oxidation (Bremner, 1996) and HClO₄-H₂SO₄ methods (Kisand,
193 2005), respectively. Soil pH (Cornfield, 1954) was determined using a pH meter at a
194 2.5 soil:1 water ratio.

195 **2.4 Calculation of soil indexes**

196 Saturated hydraulic conductivity of the soil (K_s) (Campo et al., 2008), mean
197 weight diameter (MWD) (Ortas and Lal, 2012), soil disintegration rate (SDR) (Guo et
198 al., 2021), soil structure stability index (SSSI) (Nichols and Toro, 2011), soil organic
199 carbon cementing agent index (SCAI) (Dong et al., 2022a) and K factor (Jiang et al.,
200 2020; Li et al., 2012) were used to express the soil erodibility. These indexes were
201 calculated using equations (1) - (5):

$$202 \quad K_s = \frac{QL}{Aht} \quad (1)$$

203 where Q is the outflow volume (ml), A is the soil column section (mm²), t is the time

204 (min), h is the head difference (mm), and L is the height of the soil column (mm).

$$205 \quad MWD = \sum_{i=1}^n (w_i/m_t)d_i \quad (2)$$

206 Where w_i is the mass of the i -th level of aggregates or other soil material (g), m_t is
207 the sample mass, and d_i is the mean diameter of the i -th level of aggregates or other
208 soil material (mm).

$$209 \quad SDR = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{t_2 - t_1} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

210 Where M_1 and M_2 are the weight of the soil before (t_1) and after (t_2) disintegration,
211 respectively.

$$212 \quad SSSI = 100\% \times \frac{SOMC}{Cl+Si} \quad (4)$$

$$213 \quad K = \left\{ 0.2 + 0.3 \exp \left[-0.0256Sa \left(1 - \frac{Si}{100} \right) \right] \right\} \left(\frac{Si}{Cl+Si} \right)^{0.3} \times \left(1 - \frac{0.25C}{C + \exp(3.72 - 2.95C)} \right) \left(1.0 - \frac{0.7SN1}{SN1 + \exp(-5.51 + 22.9SN1)} \right) \quad (5)$$

214
215 Where SOMC is the content of soil organic matter (Kar et al., 2023), $C = 0.583 \times$
216 SOMC; Cl and Si represent the clay and silt content (%), respectively; $SN1 =$
217 $1 - Sa/100$; K represents the soil loss rate per unit area under rainfall erosivity
218 conditions for a specified soil on a standard plot (Jiang et al., 2020; Renard et al.,
219 1997). A previous study indicates the rationality and validity of estimating K in the
220 Zhangjiakou region using this model (Wang et al., 2020a).

221 In order to further evaluate soil nutrients and erodibility, comprehensive soil
222 nutrient and erodibility index were calculated using equations 6 and 7, respectively:

$$223 \quad CSNI = \sum_i^n K_{ni} \cdot C_{ni} \quad (6)$$

$$224 \quad CSEI = \sum_i^n K_{ei} \cdot C_{ei} \quad (7)$$

225 Where K_{ni} and C_{ni} are the weight and score of soil nutrient index respectively, K_{ei} and
226 C_{ei} are the weight and score of soil erodibility index respectively, and n is the number
227 of indexes.

228 The weight of each soil nutrient index and soil erodibility index was determined
229 using a principal component analysis (PCA) (Pandey et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018).
230 The scores of SHC, MWD, SSSI, SOC, TN, and TP scores were calculated using a
231 "reverse S" function, which was calculated using equations 8.

$$232 \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & , x \geq b \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & , a < x < b \\ 0 & , x \leq a \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

233 The SDR and K factor scores were calculated by "S" function, as shown in
234 equations 9.

$$235 \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & , x \leq b \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & , a > x > b \\ 0 & , x \geq a \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

236 Comprehensive soil quality index (CSQI) is used to express soil quality, which
237 takes into account both soil nutrients and erodibility (De Laurentiis et al., 2019; Dong
238 et al., 2022b). The CSQI was calculated as follows (Eq. 10):

$$239 \quad CSQI = \frac{CSNI}{CSEI} \quad (10)$$

240 where CSQI (> 0), CSNI (0-1) and CSEI (0-1) are the comprehensive soil quality,
241 nutrient, and erodibility indexes, respectively.

242 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

243 SPSS Ver. 20 software were used for data processing and statistical analysis, and
244 ArcGIS 10.4.1 and Origin 2021 were used for graphing. A one-way analysis of
245 variance (ANOVA) was used to compare soil nutrient and erodibility indexes of
246 different slope aspects and different land use types. The effects of land use types,
247 slope aspects and their interaction on soil nutrients and erodibility indexes were tested
248 using a two-way ANOVA. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine the
249 correlation between soil nutrient, erodibility, and quality indexes and their influencing
250 factors. The contributions of understory vegetation and soil characteristics to total
251 variance in soil nutrients and erodibility indicators were determined using a
252 redundancy analysis (RDA) (Capblancq et al., 2018; Peres-Neto et al., 2006). A
253 random forest algorithm based on R software was used to analyze the importance of
254 impact factors from different slope aspects (Schonlau and Zou, 2020; Vincenzi et al.,
255 2011). The importance index was determined as the average accuracy reduction.
256 When the importance index is higher, it means that the corresponding factor holds
257 more weight (Chen et al., 2021a; Hao et al., 2015).

258 **3. Results**

259 **3.1. Changes in the characteristics of understory vegetation on different slope**

260 **aspects**

261 Slope aspect significantly influenced some of the characteristics of understory
262 vegetation such as aboveground biomass (AGB) and belowground biomass (BGB).
263 All measured characteristics of understory vegetation on the western slope were lower
264 than that of other three slope aspects. AGB and BGB was significantly lower for the
265 western slope than the eastern slope (Fig. 2). AGB and BGB on the eastern slope were
266 significantly higher than those on the western slope by 63.40% and 78.40%,
267 respectively (Fig. 2d, e). The measured plant characteristics from the eastern and
268 western slopes were not significantly different from those on the northern and
269 southern slopes. There were significant differences among the four land use types for
270 all characteristics measured for the western slope (Table S1). BH, R, and AGB of
271 understory vegetation were significantly higher for the woodland than for the other
272 three land use types (Fig. 2). Overall, shrubland had the highest litter biomass on each
273 slope aspect, while degraded land on the western slope had the lowest.

274 **3.2. Changes in soil nutrients on different slope aspects**

275 Slope aspect significantly affected soil nutrients. Soil organic carbon (SOC),
276 total nitrogen (TN), and total phosphorus (TP) were significantly lower in soil
277 collected from the western slope than the eastern slope (Fig. 2). SOC of the eastern
278 slope was 0.96–1.38 times greater than that of other slopes, respectively (Fig. 2g). TN
279 was highest on the eastern slope and was 0.39 g kg⁻¹ and 0.28 g kg⁻¹ greater than that
280 on the western and northern slopes, respectively (Fig. 2h). Similarly, the TP of the
281 eastern slope was significantly greater than that of the southern and eastern slopes by
282 59.60% and 17.37%, respectively (Fig. 2i). When all slope aspects were considered,
283 comprehensive soil nutrient index (CSNI) was significantly lower on the western
284 slope than on the other three slope aspects. The highest CSNI was found for both
285 southern slope (0.81) and eastern slope (0.86) (Fig. 3). For a given slope aspect, land
286 use types also significantly influenced soil nutrients (Fig. S1). For example, on the
287 western slope, the SOC of forested land was significantly higher than other restored
288 land uses by 11.81–150.84% depending on the comparison. SOC, TN, and TP of
289 degraded land were significantly lower than that of other land use types. CSNI was
290 influenced by land use type, slope aspect, and their interactions (Table 1). Compared
291 to degraded land, CSNI was significantly higher for all three land uses, with the
292 greatest increase in CSNI for shrubland (0.75), followed by woodland and grassland
293 (Fig. 4).

294 3.3. Changes in soil erodibility under vegetation restoration

295 The effect of slope aspect on soil erodibility indicators was significant (Table 1
296 and 2). Among the four slope aspects, SHC of the soil collected from the eastern slope
297 was the greatest, and was significantly greater than that of the western and northern
298 slopes by 311.16% and 187.10%, respectively. MWD was highest on the eastern slope
299 (3.65 mm), followed by the southern and northern slopes. MWD among the four
300 slopes was significantly different. SSSI of the western slope was the lowest (0.41 g
301 kg⁻¹), and it was significantly lower than the other three slope aspects. In contrast, the
302 highest SCAI was found on the western slope, and it was significantly higher than the
303 other slope aspects by 46.10%–59.70%, respectively. When all slope aspects were
304 considered, the southern (0.26) and eastern (0.20) slopes had the highest
305 comprehensive soil erodibility index (CSEI) reduction capacity (Fig. 3). For any
306 given slope aspect, land use types also greatly influenced soil erodibility indicators
307 (Table 2). On the western slope, MWD was significantly increased by 0.67 mm–1.59
308 mm. On the northern slope, the SHC of woodland was significantly higher than that of
309 shrubland (by 117.67%) and grassland (by 94.24%), respectively. On the southern
310 slope, the K in the grassland land use type was significantly lower than that in
311 woodland and shrubland. On the eastern slope, soil disintegration rates of the three
312 restored land uses were significantly different, with the highest SDR in the woodlands.
313 CSEI was influenced by land use type, slope aspect, and their interactions (Table 1).
314 The CSEI of all three restored land uses was significantly lower by (63.01–64.70%)
315 compared to the degraded land (Fig. 4).

316 3.4. Changes in comprehensive soil quality index under vegetation restoration

317 When all slope aspects are considered, there were significant differences in
318 comprehensive soil quality index (CSQI), with the eastern slope (2.46) having the
319 greatest capacity to increase CSQI (Fig. 3). Compared to degraded land, the CSQI of
320 grassland, shrubland and woodland increased significantly by 2.51, 2.65, and 2.44,
321 respectively (Fig. 4). CSQI was influenced by land use type, slope aspect, and their
322 interactions (Table 1).

323 The differences in CSQI of different vegetation types were compared to
324 determine the optimal vegetation restoration type for different slope aspects. On the
325 western slope, the WGCP grassland (*Capillipedium parviflorum*) and WWPS
326 woodland (*Pinus sylvestris* and *Astragalus melilotoides*) had relatively high CSQIs.
327 They were significantly higher than that of other vegetation types (Fig. 5a). Therefore,

328 these two plant communities may be selected for restoration practices on the western
329 slope. On the northern slope, the CSQI of the shrubland (NSCK) was significantly
330 higher and second highest in grassland (NGBI). The combination of *Caragana*
331 *korshinskii* and *Capillipedium parviflorum* (NSCK) could also be selected as taxa for
332 restoration vegetation (Fig. 5b). On the southern slope, the CSQI of grassland (SGAM)
333 was significantly higher than that of other vegetation types (Fig. 5c). The SGAM was
334 dominated by the herb *Astragalus melilotoides*, which had the highest CSQI. *A.*
335 *melilotoides* could be selected for improving soil quality on the southern slope. On the
336 eastern slope, the CSQI of the shrubland (ESCK) was relatively higher than that of
337 other sites (Fig. 5d). The ESCK was dominated by *Caragana korshinskii* and
338 *Lespedeza bicolor*, which had the highest CSQI. Therefore, these species should be
339 selected for improving soil quality on the eastern slope.

340 **3.5. Key factors and their contributions on different slope aspects**

341 The RDA followed by Monte Carlo permutation tests revealed that the variations
342 in the nine measured soil quality indicators were significantly influenced by
343 understory vegetation and soil characteristics on the four slope aspects ($P < 0.01$, Fig.
344 6). On the western slope, 62.7% of the total variance can be explained by understory
345 vegetation and soil characteristics (Fig. 6a), with understory vegetation and soil
346 characteristics explaining 43.11% and 19.59% of the total variance, respectively. For
347 the northern slope, the understory vegetation and soil characteristics contributed
348 50.86% of the total variance of soil quality (Fig. 6b), of which understory vegetation
349 and soil characteristics accounted 33.28% and 17.58% of the total variance,
350 respectively. On the southern slope, the total variance in soil quality of 54.23% could
351 be explained by understory vegetation and soil characteristics, of which the
352 combination of soil and roots contributed 44.56% and 9.67% of total variance,
353 respectively (Fig. 6c). However, on the eastern slope, the understory vegetation and
354 soil characteristics contributed 74.56% of the total variance of soil quality (Fig. 6d),
355 of which understory vegetation and soil characteristics accounted for 56.81% and
356 17.59% of the total variance, respectively.

357 The random forest analysis highlighted the importance of 21 modeling factors to
358 determine the restoration characteristics of understory vegetation and the physical and
359 chemical characteristics of topsoil on different slope aspects. MWD, TP, saturated
360 hydraulic conductivity (SHC), and soil disintegration rate (SDR) were the main
361 factors influencing understory vegetation and soil properties on different slope aspects.

362 The mean accuracy reduction was calculated using the random forest method. Using
363 this calculation, we obtained an MWD of 13.40, TP of 13.30, SHC of 12.60, and SDR
364 of 8.20 (Fig. S2).

365 **4. Discussion**

366 **4.1. Effects of slope aspect on understory vegetation characteristics**

367 Although slope aspect, one of the most important topographic factors, may
368 impacts vegetation characteristics due to differences in sunlight, moisture,
369 temperature, and soil, our results showed that most of the characteristics of understory
370 vegetation had no significant differences based on the different slope aspects. This
371 may be due to the fact that the understory plants were shaded by the taller trees and
372 shrubs (Niinemets, 2010). Aboveground biomass was greater on the eastern and
373 southern slopes than on the northern and western slopes. Vegetation density was
374 lowest on the western slope. These findings indicated that aboveground biomass is
375 closely related to sunshine hours. Sunshine hours affect the balance of heat and water
376 (Chen et al., 2021b; Shi et al., 2021). This contributed to the low aboveground
377 biomass of the western slope. Similarly, belowground biomass declined from the
378 eastern, southern, northern, and western slopes. This may be due to the difference in
379 the aboveground biomass of the four slope aspects. Aboveground biomass impacts
380 belowground biomass (Sun et al., 2022), and the belowground biomass was
381 significantly lower on the western slope than on the eastern slope.

382 **4.2. Effects of slope aspect on soil nutrients**

383 Our results show that the conditions related to slope aspect have significant
384 effects on single soil nutrient indicators and the comprehensive soil nutrient index
385 (Figs. 2, 5). In the same area, soil nutrients can vary depending on the slope aspect (Li
386 et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2010). On different slope aspects, TN, TP, and the
387 comprehensive soil nutrient index of surface soil were highest on the eastern and
388 southern slopes, while the soil organic carbon content was highest on the northern
389 slope. Plants need to absorb a large amount of fast-acting nitrogen and phosphorus
390 during vegetative growth, and the nutrients required for plant growth are converted
391 from organic matter in the soil. The lowest SOC, TN, TP, and the comprehensive soil
392 nutrient index on the western slope are due to the fact that it was located in the
393 wind–water erosion zone of the northern agro-pastoral ecotone, and the topsoil has
394 been lost due to long-term wind erosion.

395 The effect of different slope aspect conditions on soil pH was limited. This is

396 because plant root systems and sediments were not abundant in the case of vegetation
397 restoration of just 12a (Bai et al., 2020). The organic acid content was low when
398 combined with organic matter during decomposition and vegetation restoration;
399 therefore, it was insufficient to lower the pH of the surface soil (Seddaiu et al., 2013).

400 **4.3. Effects of slope aspect on soil erodibility**

401 Our results show that slope aspect has a significant effect on single soil
402 erodibility indexes as well as comprehensive soil erodibility index. In general, soil
403 erodibility decreases from the western slope to the eastern slope (Table 2), a pattern
404 that may be related to the geographical location, altitude, temperature, and semi-arid
405 climate of the region. Due to special location, the western and northern slopes are
406 susceptible to year-round gales from the northwestern interior and Siberia, resulting in
407 varying environmental conditions. However, the soil water content of the northern
408 slope (shaded slope) is higher than that of the western slope, which may be more
409 favorable for vegetation restoration on the northern slope (Liu et al., 2020); the
410 western slope may be more vulnerable to erosion. Wind speed and soil moisture are
411 key factors controlling the process of vegetation restoration (Hupet and Vanclooster,
412 2002; Meng et al., 2018), and these factors further influence soil erodibility (Sun et al.,
413 2016).

414 **4.4. Relationship between soil nutrients and soil erodibility**

415 The comprehensive soil nutrient index was significantly positively correlated
416 with saturated hydraulic conductivity, mean weight diameter, and soil structure
417 stability index (Fig. 7), while the comprehensive soil nutrient index was highly
418 significantly negatively correlated with the comprehensive soil erodibility index, with
419 an explanation of 88% (Table S1). Many previous studies have reported similar
420 results (Dong et al., 2022a; Zhu et al., 2018). In this study, higher saturated hydraulic
421 conductivity, mean weight diameter, and soil structure stability index and lower soil
422 disintegration rate, K, and SOC cementing agent index indicate better soil structure
423 and lower soil erodibility. These characteristics can significantly reduce runoff and
424 sediment loss, which can result in soil nutrient accumulation (Pan and Shangguan,
425 2006; Sun et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2021). Therefore, revegetation increases soil
426 nutrients and reduces soil erodibility, which further change vegetation and soil
427 characteristics. In addition, these factors could reduce soil nutrient loss and further
428 promote soil nutrient accumulation by reducing soil erodibility.

429 The comprehensive soil erodibility index was highly significantly negatively

430 correlated with SOC, TN, and TP (Fig. 7). Previous studies have shown that soil
431 organic matter and SOC are closely related to soil erodibility (Wang et al., 2019b).
432 SOC acts as a cement for soil aggregation, which improves soil structural stability
433 through the formation of aggregates, thus reducing soil erodibility. Soil nitrogen
434 indirectly affects soil erodibility by promoting plant growth and development,
435 increasing the accumulation of SOC in plants. In addition, nitrogen enrichment
436 increased soil macroparticles and mean weight diameter, which directly affected soil
437 erodibility. Similar to nitrogen, phosphorus is one of the essential elements for plant
438 growth and development, and the phosphorus content of soil determines the
439 development of soil microorganisms and root systems, which will further influence
440 the input of soil organic carbon and the formation of soil aggregates.

441 **4.5. Key factors impacting soil and vegetation related to slope aspect**

442 The results derived from the random forest method showed that mean weight
443 diameter and TP were the main influencing factors. The main adhesion agents for the
444 formation of aggregates included clay content, SOC and cementation. The mean
445 weight diameter was significantly and positively correlated with soil organic carbon
446 and clay content. The magnitude of mean weight diameter affects soil structural
447 stability and root establishment, which varies due to environmental factors on
448 different slope aspects. Soil phosphorus is an important element necessary for plant
449 growth and development, and rapid growth requires more soil phosphorus, so there
450 were some differences between different land use types on different slope aspects. The
451 difference in TP between slope aspect affected the amount of inorganic phosphorus
452 available for uptake by plants, and the lower phosphorus content limited plant growth.
453 By analyzing the main factors influencing surface soil quality in different slope
454 aspects, timely application of phosphorus fertilizer in vegetation restoration projects
455 could help accelerate the process of afforestation.

456 **4.6. Optimal land use type and plant species based on slope aspect**

457 Our study has shown that vegetation restoration can be an effective measure to
458 improve soil nutrients and reduce soil erodibility. Moreover, the restored land use
459 types and plant species to improve soil quality differed significantly depending on the
460 slope aspect. Therefore, according to the differences in water, heat, wind, and sand on
461 different slope aspects, the selection of land use and its corresponding vegetation
462 types should be carefully considered. Our findings both agree with and differ from
463 previous studies (Colgan et al., 2010; Dong et al., 2022a; Wang et al., 2021a). Studies

464 that found contrasting results are likely due to the environmental conditions (e.g.
465 climate, rainfall, topographic conditions, seed bank, soil texture) of the different
466 slopes aspects. It is noteworthy that herbaceous vegetation on the western slope is
467 prone to severe shallow nutrient loss and soil erosion because of strong wind
468 conditions and sandy soil (Guo et al., 2020). Therefore, the use of herbaceous
469 vegetation should be carefully considered as the primary restoration vegetation
470 species. Fortunately, our proposal (*Caragana korshinskii* and *Lespedeza bicolor*)
471 satisfied this requirement. In addition, wind also contributes to soil erosion in this
472 region; however, limited research has been conducted on wind erosion and combined
473 erosion by wind and water. Future studies should be conducted on combined erosion
474 by wind and water study to better characterize soil erosion.

475 **5. Conclusions**

476 We found that some understory vegetation characteristics and soil properties
477 varied significantly with slope aspect. Soil nutrients and erodibility reflected by soil
478 organic carbon, total nitrogen, total phosphorus, saturated hydraulic conductivity, soil
479 disintegration rate, mean weight diameter, soil structure stability index, soil erodibility
480 factor, and soil organic carbon cementing agent index, respectively, were also
481 influenced by slope aspect and land use. Furthermore, comprehensive soil nutrient,
482 erodibility, and quality indexes also varied significantly with slope aspect, land use,
483 and predominant plant species. Slope aspect strongly modified the relationship
484 between comprehensive soil nutrient, erodibility, and quality indexes as well as
485 understory vegetation characteristics and soil properties. Our study found that
486 *Caragana korshinskii* and *Lespedeza bicolor* were the best taxa to include on any
487 slope aspect to improve soil nutrients and prevent soil erosion. This study provides
488 insight into the rational planning of vegetation restoration measures on all slope
489 aspects in the northern agro-pastoral ecotone in semi-arid areas. Future work will
490 focus on land degradation associated with soil erosion from water and storms in the
491 region.

492 **Date Availability**

493 Data will be made available on request.

494 **Author contributions.**

495 Yuxin Wu: Writing-original draft. Guodong Jia: Project administration, Funding
496 acquisition, Writing-review and editing. Xinxiao Yu: Project administration, Funding
497 acquisition, Writing-review and editing. Honghong Rao: Methodology and Formal

498 analysis. Xiuwen Peng: Investigation. Yusong Wang, Yushi Wang, and Xu Wang:
499 Investigation.

500 **Competing interests.**

501 The author declares that the publication of this scientific paper has no conflict of
502 interest.

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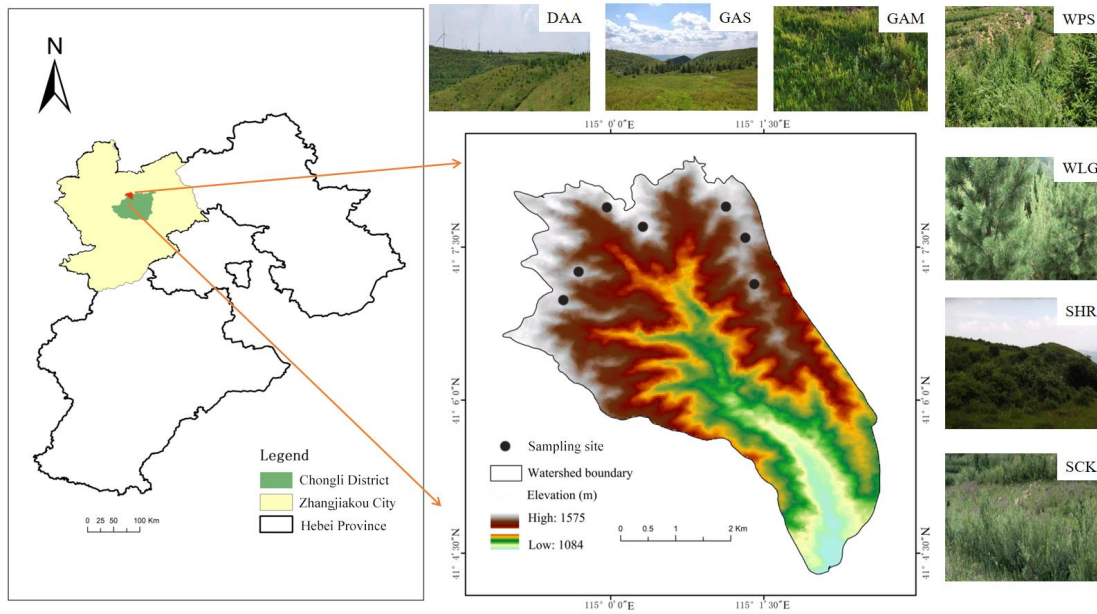
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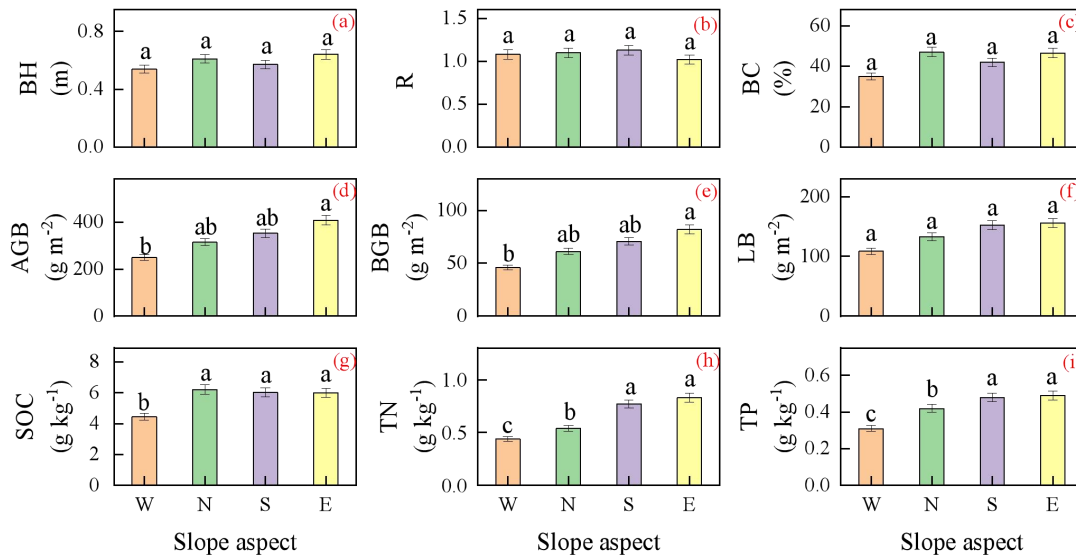
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834

835 **Fig. 1.** Location map of the sampling points in the study area. The first letter: D, G, S
 836 and W represent degraded land, grassland, shrubland and woodland. The sampling
 837 sites from west to east were: DAA, degraded land; GAS, *Artemisia sacrorum*; GAM,
 838 *Astragalus melilotoides*; WPS, *Pinus sylvestris*; WLG, *Larix gmelinii*; SHR,
 839 *Hippophae rhamnoides*; SCK, *Caragana korshinskii*.

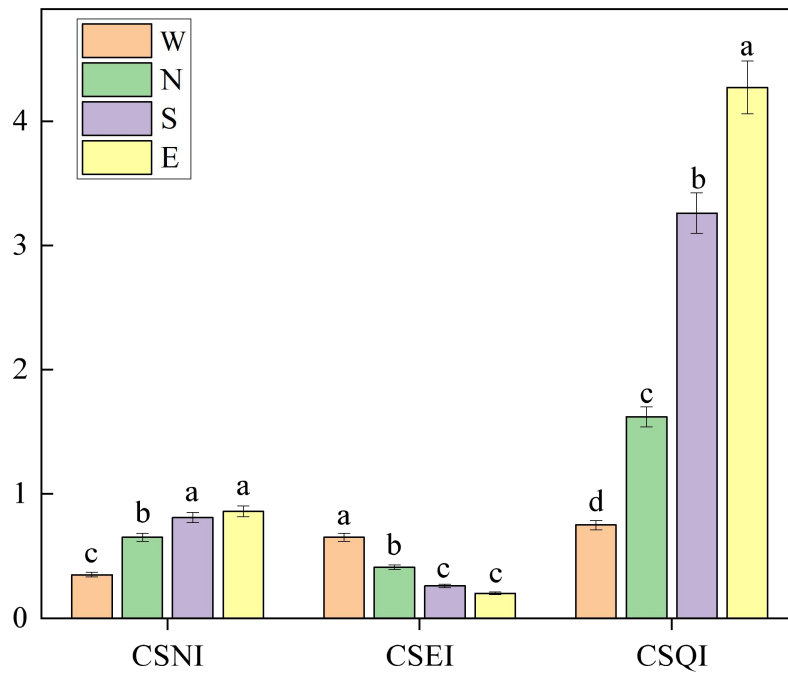
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841

842 **Fig. 2.** Variation of understory vegetation characteristics and soil nutrients with slope
 843 aspects. BH, biomass height; R, richness; BC, biomass coverage; AGB, aboveground
 844 biomass; BGB, belowground biomass; LB, litter biomass; SOC, soil organic carbon;
 845 TN, total nitrogen; TP, total phosphorus; W, west; N, north; S, south; E, east. Different
 846 letters indicate significant differences among different seasons at $P < 0.05$ level.

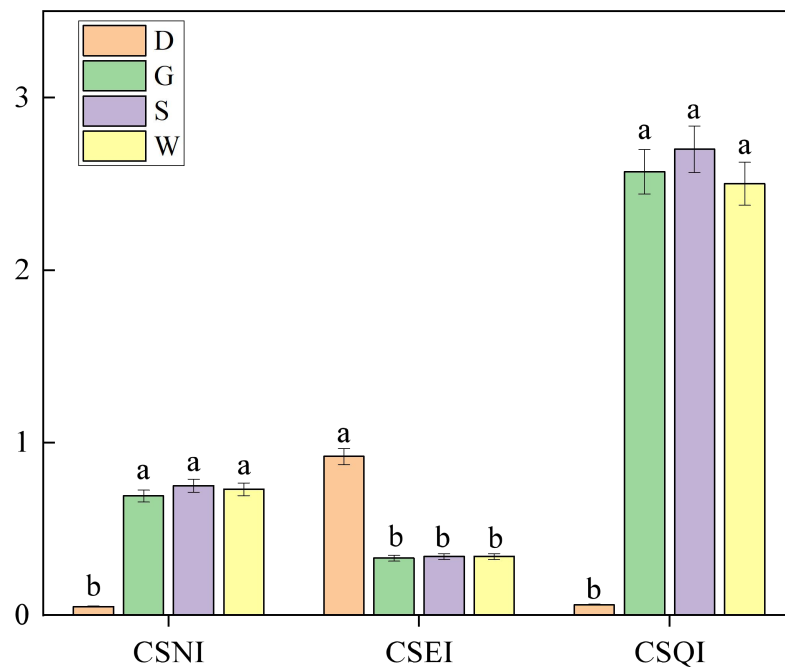
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848

849 **Fig.3.** Variation of comprehensive soil nutrient, erodibility and quality index with
 850 slope aspects. CSNI, comprehensive soil nutrient index; CSEI, comprehensive soil
 851 erodibility index; CSQI, comprehensive soil quality index. Different letters indicate
 852 significant differences among different slope aspects at $P<0.05$ level.

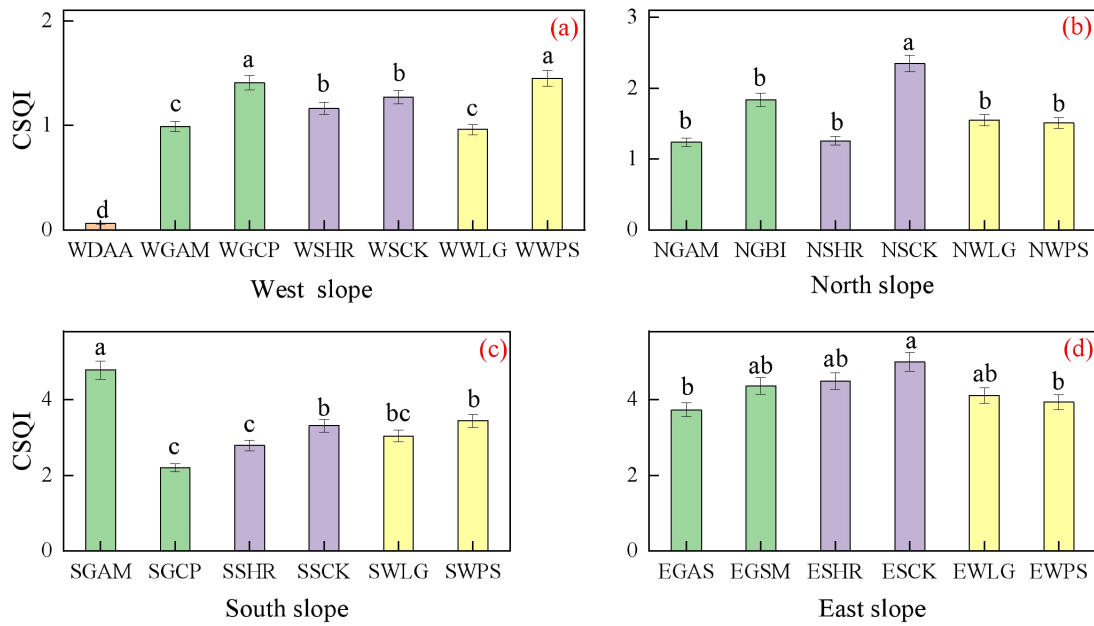
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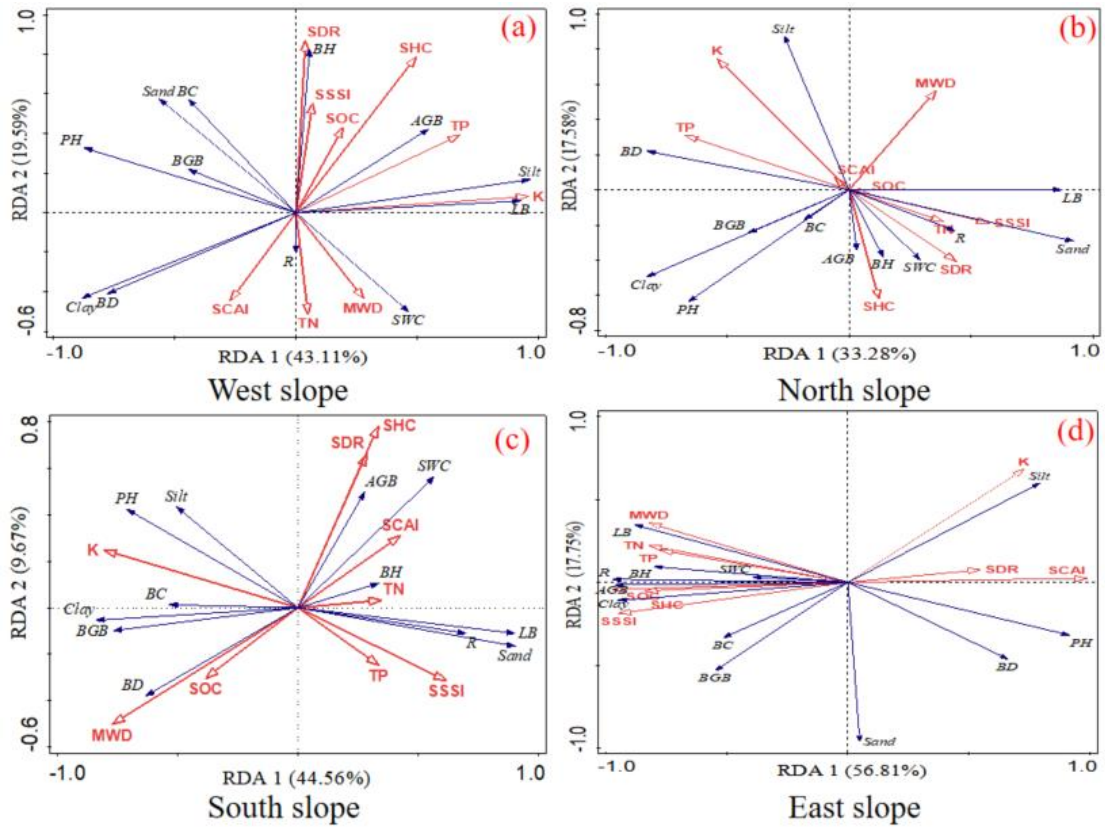
855 **Fig. 4.** Variation of comprehensive soil nutrient, erodibility and quality index with
 856 land use. Different letters indicate significant differences among different land use
 857 types at $P<0.05$ level.

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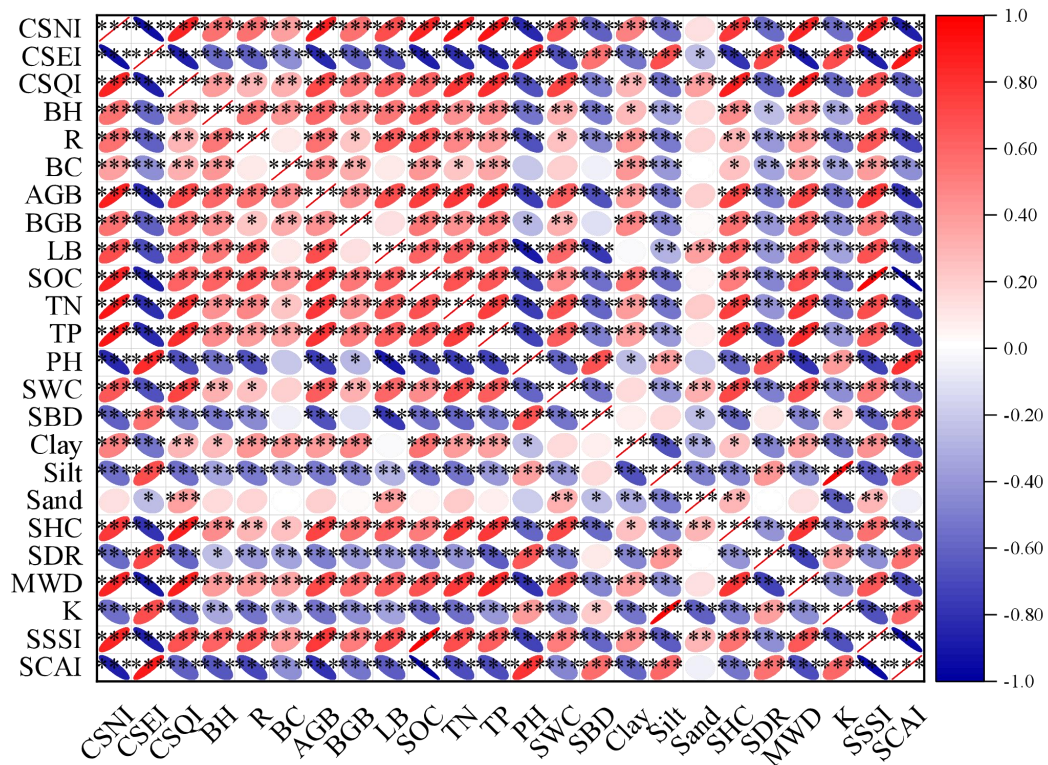
859

860 **Fig. 5.** Variation in comprehensive soil quality index with vegetation types along
 861 slope aspects. WDAA, *Artemisia annua*; WGAM, NGAM and SGAM, *Astragalus*
 862 *melilotoides*; NGBI, *Bothriochloa ischaemum*; EGSM, *Artemisia sacrorum*,
 863 *Astragalus melilotoides*; WGCP, NGCP and SGCP, *Capillipedium parviflorum*;
 864 WSHR, NSHR, SSHR and ESHR, *Hippophae rhamnoides*; WSCK, NSCK, SSCK
 865 and ESCK, *Caragana korshinskii*; WWLG, NSWG, SSWG and ESWG, *Larix*
 866 *gmelinii*; WWPS, NWPS, SWPS and EWPS, *Pinus sylvestris*. Different letters
 867 indicate significant differences among different seasons at $P < 0.05$ level.



868

869 **Fig. 6.** Results of redundancy analysis (RDA) among soil quality parameters and
 870 characteristics of vegetation and soil on four slope aspects. BH: biome height; R:
 871 richness; BC: biome coverage; AGB: aboveground biomass; BGB: belowground
 872 biomass; LB: litter biomass; Sand: sand content; Silt: silt content; Clay: clay content;
 873 SWC: soil water content; SBD: soil bulk density; SOC: soil organic carbon; TN: total
 874 nitrogen; TP: total phosphorus; SHC, saturated hydraulic conductivity; SDR, soil
 875 disintegration rate; MWD, mean weight diameter; K, soil erodibility factor; SSSI, soil
 876 structure stability index; SCAI, SOC cementing agent index.



877
878

879 **Fig. 7.** Correlation analysis of CSNI, CSEI and CSQI with vegetation and soil
880 characteristics. Red indicates a positive correlation, blue indicates a negative
881 correlation, and the color depth indicates Pearson coefficients * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$
882 and *** $p < 0.001$, $n = 84$. CSNI, comprehensive soil nutrient index; CSEI,
883 comprehensive soil erodibility index; CSQI, comprehensive soil quality index.

884

885 **Table 1**

886 The two-way ANOVA result for soil nutrient and erodibility. SOC: soil organic carbon;
887 TN: total nitrogen; TP: total phosphorus; CSNI: comprehensive soil nutrient index;
888 SHC: saturated hydraulic conductivity; SDR: soil disintegration rate; MWD: mean
889 weight diameter; K: soil erodibility factor; SSSI: soil structure stability index; SCAI:
890 SOC cementing agent index; CSEI: comprehensive soil erodibility index; CSQI:
891 comprehensive soil quality index.

soil variables	Land use type		Slope aspect		Land use ×Slope aspect	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Soil nutrient						
SOC	1200.37	0.000	50.985	0.000	5.818	0.000

TN	520.016	0.000	79.681	0.000	24.354	0.000
TP	382.353	0.000	6.718	0.000	6.764	0.000
CSNI	832.059	0.000	46.447	0.000	6.851	0.000
Soil erodibility						
SHC	824.538	0.000	54.173	0.000	52.672	0.000
SDR	799.513	0.000	6.632	0.001	3.956	0.000
MWD	1667.15	0.000	180.654	0.000	10.673	0.001
K	859.009	0.000	14.423	0.000	23.822	0.000
SSSI	517.098	0.000	41.05	0.000	26.717	0.000
SCAI	693.653	0.000	15.553	0.000	6.623	0.000
CSEI	1120.468	0.000	38.983	0.000	6.369	0.000
Soil quality						
CSQI	642.05	0.000	103.399	0.000	35.679	0.000

892

893 **Table 2**

894 Soil erodibility indicators of different land use types at different slope aspect (mean
895 \pm SD). SHC, saturated hydraulic conductivity; SDR, soil disintegration rate; MWD,
896 mean weight diameter; K, soil erodibility factor; SSSI, soil structure stability index;
897 SCAI, SOC cementing agent index. Different capital letters indicate significant
898 differences between slope aspects ($p < 0.05$), different lowercase letters indicate
899 significant differences between the land use types ($p < 0.05$).

Slope aspect	Land use	SHC mm min ⁻¹	SDR g min ⁻¹	MWD mm	K t·hm ² ·h·hm ⁻² MJ ⁻¹ ·mm ⁻¹	SSSI g kg ⁻¹	SCAI mm kg ⁻¹ g ⁻¹
	Degraded land	0.13±0.02cC	1.64±0.19aA	0.79±0.02dD	0.33±0.01aA	0.25±0.01dB	20.23±0.81aA
W	grassland	0.28±0.04bC	0.29±0.04cA	1.83±0.06bD	0.26±0.01dA	0.51±0.06bB	9.09±0.97bA
	shrubland	0.32±0.07bC	0.82±0.53bA	2.38±0.32aD	0.32±0.01bA	0.46±0.04cB	9.03±0.80bA
	Woodland	0.53±0.06aC	1.58±0.07aA	1.46±0.15cD	0.27±0.01cA	0.61±0.05aB	7.53±0.70cA
N	grassland	0.28±0.03bB	0.26±0.02cB	2.32±0.47bC	0.31±0.01aAB	0.50±0.06aA	8.30±0.94aB

	shrubland	0.31±0.04bB	0.73±0.44bB	2.84±0.12aC	0.29±0.04aAB	0.58±0.08aA	8.14±0.95aB
	Woodland	0.60±0.07aB	1.26±0.17aB	1.76±0.29cC	0.29±0.01aAB	0.57±0.03aA	7.90±0.39aB
	grassland	0.93±0.11bA	0.24±0.01cBC	3.28±0.04aB	0.25±0.01cB	0.51±0.10bA	9.16±1.74aB
S	shrubland	1.31±0.20aA	0.40±0.11bBC	3.32±0.06aB	0.31±0.01aB	0.53±0.03bA	8.27±0.40abB
	Woodland	1.45±0.14aA	1.17±0.06aBC	3.25±0.07aB	0.28±0.01bB	0.67±0.10aA	6.94±1.00bB
	grassland	1.55±0.18aA	0.24±0.01cC	4.06±0.14aA	0.29±0.01aB	0.59±0.02bA	7.28±0.29bB
E	shrubland	1.71±0.06aA	0.31±0.07bC	3.46±0.09bA	0.26±0.02bB	0.61±0.05bA	8.18±0.89aB
	Woodland	1.73±0.12aA	0.38±0.03aC	3.42±0.10bA	0.28±0.01bB	0.71±0.05aA	6.41±0.44cB

900