



1 **Rubber plant root properties induce contrasting soil aggregate stability**
2 **through cohesive force and reduced land degradation risk in southern China**

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20 Abstract

21 In southern China, Hainan Island faces land degradation risks due to poor soil physical
22 properties, such as a high proportion of microaggregates (< 0.25 mm), low soil organic matter
23 (SOM) content, and frequent uneven rainfall. The cohesive force between soil particles, which is
24 influenced by plant root properties and root-derived SOM, is essential for improving soil aggregate
25 stability and mitigating land degradation. However, the mechanisms by which rubber root
26 properties and root-derived SOM affect soil aggregate stability through cohesive forces in tropical
27 regions remain unclear. This study compared rubber plants of varying ages to assess the effects of
28 root properties and root-derived SOM on soil aggregate stability and cohesive forces. Older rubber
29 plants (> 11 -years-old) showed greater root diameters (RD) (0.81 – 0.91 mm), higher root length
30 (RL) densities (1.83 – 2.70 cm³), and increased proportions of fine (0.2 – 0.5 mm) and medium
31 (0.5 – 1 mm) roots, leading to higher SOM due to lower lignin and higher cellulose contents. Older
32 plants exhibited higher soil cohesion, with significant correlations among root characteristics,
33 SOM, and cohesive force, whereas the random forest (RF) model identified aggregates (> 0.25
34 mm), root properties, SOM, and cohesive force as the key factors influencing mean weight
35 diameter (MWD) and geometric mean diameter (GMD). Furthermore, partial least squares-path
36 models (PLS-PM) showed that the RL density (RLD) directly influenced SOM (path coefficient
37 0.70) and root-free cohesive force (RFCF) (path coefficient 0.30), which in turn affected the MWD,
38 with additional direct RLD effects on the SOM (path coefficient 0.45) and MWD (path coefficient
39 0.64) in the surface soil. Cohesive force in rubber plants of different ages increased
40 macroaggregates (> 0.25 mm) and decreased microaggregates (< 0.25 mm), with topsoil average
41 MWD following the order: CK (0.98 mm) $<$ 5Y_RF (1.26 mm) $<$ MF (1.31 mm) $<$ 11Y_RF (1.36

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chemical
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It is an
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factor.



42 mm) < 27Y_RF (1.48 mm) < 20Y_RF (1.51 mm). Rubber plant root properties enhance soil
43 aggregate stability and reduce the land degradation risk in tropical regions.

44 **Keywords:** Rubber plant root traits; soil organic matter; cohesive force; aggregate stability; land
45 degradation

46 *Why high proportion of Mi lead to land degradation? (Comments)*
47 *Same in the abstract*

47 1. Introduction

48 Land degradation is a serious global issue that increases as a consequence of growing
49 population and climate change, currently impacting > 75% of land and projected to affect > 90%
50 by 2050 (Perović et al., 2021; Prăvălie et al., 2021; Thomas et al., 2023). Land degradation in
51 tropical regions, such as Hainan Island, southern China, is primarily caused by poor soil physical
52 properties (high proportion of microaggregates (< 0.25 mm) and low soil organic matter (SOM))
53 along with the uneven and high frequency of rainfall events during the summer season (May–
54 October) and current global climate change, leading to severe land degradation in the form of water
55 erosion (Shao et al., 2024; Zhu et al., 2022). In addition, zonal ferro-alumina lateritic soils
56 (ferralsols) on Hainan Island, classified as having low resilience and sensitivity according to the
57 tropical soil resilience-sensitivity matrix, are particularly prone to soil erosion (Li et al., 2022).
58 Consequently, the current soil erosion area on Hainan Island has increased 4.8-fold compared to
59 that in 2000, according to a third national soil erosion remote-sensing survey (Yu et al., 2016). Soil
60 aggregates are fundamental to soil function, and their stability influences carbon cycling, nutrient
61 storage, soil fertility, infiltration rate, and resistance to soil degradation (Hok et al., 2021; Rabot et
62 al., 2018; Yudina and Kuzyakov, 2023). Therefore, it is imperative to enhance soil aggregate
63 stability by implementing suitable management practices that protect the integrity of the
64 environment and ensure sustainable agricultural productivity.

*Please
rewrite.*



65 Natural rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis* Willd. ex A. Juss) plantations have recently expanded
66 rapidly across mainland Southeast Asia (Xu et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2024). Rubber plants are
67 recognized for their effectiveness in improving soil aggregate stability through their root properties
68 and in mitigating soil erosion (Kurmi et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021). Plant roots influence soil
69 aggregate size distribution by positively affecting fine roots length (FRL), which closely interacts
70 with soil particles, and negatively affecting coarse roots length (CRL), which disintegrate into
71 larger particles (Ali et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2017). Plant morphological root
72 traits, such as root diameter (RD) and root length (RL) density (RLD), and their chemical
73 composition, including lignin and cellulose content, have been shown to alter carbon deposits in
74 soil pools and their sequestration (Poirier et al., 2018b; Rossi et al., 2020). Nevertheless, various
75 studies have suggested that soil particles and roots have a restricted contact area with plant root-
76 derived SOM, which is a dominant factor in soil particle fluctuation through the soil cohesive force,
77 particularly after the plant roots have died (Ali et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2017). Variations in soil
78 particles and root-derived SOM further adjust soil cohesion.

79 Soil cohesive forces, such as those from SOM and plant root morphological and chemical
80 properties (Wang et al., 2018a; Wang et al., 2020), are effective in stabilizing slope soils to restrain
81 soil and water runoff by enhancing soil-particle interactions, facilitating flocculation between soil
82 particles, and minimizing soil erosion (Smith et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018a). Among these factors,
83 SOM plays a complex role and is generally beneficial for improving particle flocculation. However,
84 SOM can also allow the dispersion of aggregates owing to an excess charge on SOM coupled with
85 negative charges from soil particles (He et al., 2021; Melo et al., 2021). The addition of plants and
86 their roots allows for additional soil organic carbon (SOC) accumulation in the soil (Rossi et al.,
87 2020). Roots can also bind soil particles via cohesive forces, thus increasing aggregate stability



88 (Forster et al., 2022; Poirier et al., 2018a; Wang et al., 2020). Dominant root traits influence soil
89 particles through cohesive forces, and their subsequent effects on soil aggregate stability remain
90 unknown.

91 To date, few studies on rubber plant roots have focused on soil aggregation in the tropical
92 region of Hainan Island (Sun et al., 2021; Zou et al., 2021), and there is a complete lack of
93 information regarding the mechanisms related to rubber plant root morphological and chemical
94 properties, root-derived SOM, and cohesive forces in aggregate formation. We hypothesized that
95 rubber plantations of different stand ages would promote soil cohesive forces through root
96 properties and SOM among soil particles, thereby improving aggregate stability. The aims of this
97 study were to: 1) investigate the impact of stand-age rubber plant root traits and root-derived SOM
98 on aggregate properties, and 2) explore the interconnections between root morphological and
99 chemical characteristics, SOM, cohesive forces, and soil aggregate stability. The findings of this
100 research will help improve management practices in the tropical regions of Hainan Island and
101 reduce land degradation problems by improving aggregate stability and overall environmental
102 quality.

103

104 **2. Materials and methods**

105 *2.1. Experimental site overview*

106 The study was conducted on Hainan Island in Danzhou (19°4'3''–19°12'42''N, and 109°47'
107 6''–110°1'2''E, 182–255 m above sea level). In the study area, the annual averages for temperature,
108 precipitation, and solar radiation are 23.5°C, 1831 mm, and 4579 MJ·m⁻²·yr⁻¹, respectively.
109 November–April of the following year is the dry season, whereas May–October is the rainy season.
110 Rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) and areca (*Areca catechu* L.) are the two primary commercial crops



111 in the experimental region. According to the USA Soil Taxonomy System, the soil is classified as
112 a laterite ferralsol (Schad, 2023). The soil in the rubber plantation was composed of 43.71% sand,
113 8.28% silt, and 48.01% clay. The basic physical and chemical characteristics of the samples are
114 listed in Table. 1.

115 2.2. Experimental design

116 Rubber plantations with four different stand ages were selected from the field. The
117 treatments included five-year-old rubber forests (5Y_RF), with 2018 rubber trees (clone PR-107)
118 planted at the recommended density (3×7 m, 480 plants \cdot ha $^{-1}$) and crown density 30 %; 11-year-
119 old rubber forests (11Y_RF), with 2012 rubber trees (clone PR-107) planted at the recommended
120 density (3×7 m, 431 plants \cdot ha $^{-1}$) and crown density 90 %; 20-year-old rubber forests (20Y_RF),
121 with 2003 rubber trees (clone PR-107) planted at the recommended density (3×7 m, 346
122 plants \cdot ha $^{-1}$) and crown density 90 %; 27-year-old rubber forests (27Y_RF), with 1996 rubber trees
123 (clone PR-107) planted at the recommended density (3×7 m, 300 plants \cdot ha $^{-1}$) and crown density
124 90 %; and mixed forest (MF) and control (no forest plants) (CK). The MF comprised cinnamon
125 (*Cinnamomum Verum*) trees (planted in 2014) along with 20-year-old rubber plants. We established
126 a randomized complete block design with three replicates. We selected 18 plots (30×30 m)
127 separated by a transitional zone. Rubber plants with different stand ages were selected based on
128 similar topographies (slope and gradient) and management practices. Rubber plantation canopy
129 heights were approximately 20 m. The rubber plant rotation duration was approximately 40 yr, and
130 the first latex tapplings in this region occurred when the trees were five- or six-years-old. Chemical
131 fertilizers were applied at the initial rubber plantation development stage according to local
132 conventional farming practices. Additional details regarding the rubber plantations at the
133 experimental site can be found in the study by Sun et al. (2021).



134 *2.3. Root morphological and chemical composition analysis*

135 In January 2024, three replications per depth per forest plot of soil samples with roots were
136 taken at soil depths of 0–20 and 20–40 cm, using cutting rings (200 cm³). Using the methodology
137 outlined by Chen et al. (2021), the following root features were measured: RD, root mass density
138 (RMD), RLD, and root surface area density (RSD). The cutting ring cores were placed in nylon
139 bags and taken to the laboratory, where they were submerged in water for an hour before being
140 manually washed using 0.55-mm sieves to collect the roots. The roots were scanned using an
141 Epson Perfection V800 photo scanner (© 2024 Epson America, Inc), and WinRHIZO Pro Version
142 2009c software was used to assess the RD and RL. By dividing the entire RL and root surface area
143 by the cutting-ring volume (cm³), respectively, the RLD and RSD were calculated. The roots were
144 oven-dried at 50°C, and the RMD was calculated by dividing the dry root mass by the cutting-ring
145 volume. Furthermore, using data from the WinRHIZO analyzer, the root system was classified into
146 four types based on RD: RD < 0.2 mm (very fine roots (VFRL)), RD 0.2–0.5 mm (fine roots
147 (FRL)), RD 0.5–1 mm (medium roots (MRL)), and RD > 1 mm (CRL).

148 Chemical composition (cellulose and lignin) analysis of the roots was performed on three
149 subsamples of the root classes (RD < 0.5, 0.5–1, and > 1 mm). Briefly, 1 mg of 65 °C oven-dried
150 root powder (< 0.5 mm) was mixed with 5 ml acetic acid and heated for 25 min, followed by three
151 deionized water washings and supernatant discarding. Subsequently, 10 ml of sulfuric acid (10%)
152 and 10 ml of potassium dichromic (0.1 mol L⁻¹) solutions were added, vortexed, and heated in a
153 100 °C water bath for 10 min. After cooling, 5 ml KI solution (20%) and 1 ml starch (0.5%) were
154 added, shaken for 10 min, and then titrated with 0.2 mol L⁻¹ sodium thiosulfate to determine
155 cellulose and lignin contents (Zhang et al., 2014).

156



157 2.4. *Soil cohesive force determination*

158 Soil samples of approximately 2000 g were collected from depths of 0–20 and 20–40 cm
159 during root collection. Soil samples were air-dried and divided into two parts. One part was ground
160 to 100 μm for SOM determination using the oxidation method described by Walkley and Black
161 (1934). The second part was dry-sieved to retain aggregates < 5 mm, and visible roots were
162 removed. These soil samples were stored for subsequent analysis of the remolded soil root-free
163 cohesion force (RFCF), which was determined according to the method described by Huang et al.
164 (2022). Briefly, four subsamples of intact root–soil composite cores were collected from each
165 depth in three replicated plots using cutting rings (diameter = 10 cm, height = 6.37 cm)
166 simultaneously during the root collection described in Section 2.3. These intact cores were used to
167 determine soil cohesive forces. Soil cohesive force (c) was measured by assessing soil shear
168 strength (τ) and vertical load (σ) applied to the shear surface, and c was calculated using the
169 relationship between τ , σ , and c as described in Equation 1. In addition, soil (< 5 mm) without
170 visible roots was remolded into cutting rings (diameter = 10 cm, height = 6.37 cm) according to
171 the soil bulk density (Table. 1) at each soil depth in the rubber plots to measure the soil RFCF. In
172 total, 48 core soil samples per treatment were used for soil cohesive force analysis. Both the
173 remolded root-free and root–soil composite core samples were saturated with deionized water.
174 After saturation, four subsamples from each depth and treatment were tested using an LH-DS-4
175 direct shear tester (Nanjing Technology Co., Ltd.), which has a shear strain accuracy of 0.01 mm
176 and a shear stress accuracy of 0.01 N. The shear tester comprised a shear box, a sensor, a vertical
177 compression device, and a displacement measurement system with specifications of 61.8 mm in
178 diameter and a height of 20 mm. For the direct shear tests, four predetermined vertical loads (25,
179 50, 75, and 100 kPa) were applied. The shear rate of displacement was set at 0.8 mm⁻¹ min, and the

How
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soils were sheared until failure, indicated by reaching the peak τ value on the computer. The relationship between the peak τ values and vertical loads (σ) was established according to Mohr–Coulomb’s law, and soil cohesion (c) was calculated as described in Equation 1.

$$\tau = c + \sigma \tan \varphi \quad (1)$$

where τ is the soil shear strength (kPa), σ is the vertical load applied to the shear surface (kPa), c is the soil cohesive force (kPa), and φ is the soil internal friction angle ($^{\circ}$).

2.5. Soil aggregate analysis

Soil samples from depths of 0–20 and 20–40 cm were collected in each treatment simultaneously with root sample collection. The soil was allowed to air dry and then gently ruptured along its natural cracks before it was passed through an 8 mm mesh sieve to determine the soil aggregate size distribution and stability. We used a wet sieving method to separate aggregates < 8 mm into four size groups: large macroaggregates (LMA) (> 2 mm); macroaggregates (MA) (2–0.25 mm); microaggregates (MIA) (0.25–0.053 mm); and small microaggregates (SMA) (< 0.053 mm). Briefly, three replicates of 100 g of soil were immersed in deionized water for 10 min in a beaker before being transferred to a series of sieves with decreasing mesh sizes (2, 0.25, and 0.053 mm) and gently shaken in water with a 4-cm vertical vibration amplitude for 10 min. Subsequently, the soil that remained after each sieve was washed and transferred to a beaker, and all aggregate sizes (> 2, 2–0.25, and 0.25–0.053 mm) were oven-dried for 48 hours at 60 $^{\circ}$ C before being weighed. The mass of aggregates < 0.053 mm was determined by subtracting the total soil mass from the total mass of other aggregate sizes (Elliott, 1986). Equations 2 and 3 were used to compute the geometric mean diameter (GMD) and mean weight diameter (MWD, mm), respectively (Kemper and Rosenau, 2018).



$$MWD = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i^* X_i \quad (2)$$

where X_i denotes the mean diameter of aggregate fraction i , and W_i denotes the mass proportion of aggregate fraction i .

$$GMD = \exp \left[\sum_{i=1}^n W_i * \ln (X_i) \right] \quad (3)$$

where W_i represents the aggregate fraction mass proportion i , and X_i represents the mean diameter of aggregate fraction i .

2.6. Statistical analysis

Prior to data analysis, Shapiro–Wilk ($P > 0.05$) and Levene's tests ($P > 0.05$) (Razali and Wah, 2011) were used to evaluate the normality and homogeneity of variances using SPSS 25 (IBM Corp., Chicago, USA). Origin 2021 software was used to assess each index, and Tukey's pairwise test was used to determine statistical significance at $P < 0.05$, 0.01 , and 0.001 . Pearson's correlations among root characteristics, SOM, soil aggregate parameters, and soil cohesive force were assessed using Origin software (OriginLab Corp.), and key factors were predicted using a random forest (RF) model constructed using the R software RandomForest package (v4.3.1) (Team, 2017). The partial least squares-path models (PLS-PM) were performed in R software (v4.3.1) using the "plspm" package to elucidate the pathway through which plant root characteristics, SOM, and soil cohesive forces influence soil aggregate stability. Figures were created using Origin 2021 (OriginLab Corp.).



223 3 Results

224 3.1. Root distribution and chemical composition

225 Significant differences in root morphological traits were observed among rubber
 226 plantations of different stand ages (Fig. 1). The RD varied notably with the age of the rubber plant
 227 (Fig. 1a). The largest RD was found in 27Y_RF, followed by the MF at depths of 0–20 cm and
 228 20–40 cm, respectively. Specifically, the largest RD for 27Y_RF was 0.84 mm and 0.91 mm at
 229 depths of 0–20 cm and 20–40 cm, respectively. By contrast, the smallest RD, found in five-year-
 230 old rubber plantations (5Y_RF), ranged from 0.42 to 0.45 mm across both depths, respectively.
 231 The differences in RD among rubber plants of varying stand ages depended on soil depth, with the
 232 most pronounced differences observed at a depth of 0–20 cm. Moreover, significant variations in
 233 RLD were observed between rubber plantations of different stand ages, as shown in Fig. 1b.
 234 27Y_RF exhibited the highest RLD, ranging from 1.83 to 2.81 cm^3/cm^3 , followed by MF (2.01–
 235 2.06 cm^3/cm^3) and 20Y_RF (1.93–2.70 cm^3/cm^3) at both depths. The RLD differences among rubber
 236 plants of various stand ages were influenced by soil depth, with the most noticeable differences
 237 occurring at a depth of 0–20 cm. In addition, the RSD and RMD were significantly different among
 238 rubber plantations of different stand ages (Fig. 1c, and 1d). Furthermore, RD distribution,
 239 represented as a percentage of RL within each RD class, also differed among rubber plantations of
 240 various stand ages (Fig. 2). In the 5Y_RF, 11Y_RF, and MF plantations, VFRL (< 0.2 mm)
 241 predominated at both soil depths. Conversely, in the 20Y_RF and 27Y_RF plantations, the roots
 242 were uniformly distributed across the soil depths, with a relatively high percentage of MRL (0.5–
 243 1 mm).

244 The root chemical composition varied among rubber plantations of different stand ages and
 245 RD classes (Fig. 3). The cellulose contents in stand-age rubber plants were significantly different
 246 (Fig. 3a). The 20Y_RF roots had higher cellulose content than those of the 27Y_RF, followed by



the 11Y_RF. Similarly, the cellulose content differed among the RD classes. For example, cellulose in the 5Y_RF was less than that in other stand-age rubber plants for FRL (< 0.5 mm). Moreover, there were significant differences in lignin content among the stand-age rubber plants and between the RD classes (Fig. 3b). For example, the lignin contents in the 20Y_RF were less than that in the 5Y_RF for RL < 0.5 mm. Cellulose and lignin contents are indicators of root contribution to SOM. Thus, the lower lignin and higher cellulose content in the 20Y_RF resulted in the highest SOM content ranging from 21.16 to 23.37 g/kg, followed by that in the 11Y_RF ranging from 20.56 to 22.68 g/kg, and the 27Y_RF ranging from 21.04 to 21.78 g/kg within soil depth (Fig. 3c).

3.2. Soil cohesive force under different stand-age rubber plantations

There was a significant difference in the RFCF among rubber plantations of different stand ages (Fig. 4a). The CK (without plants) RFCF was 17.92 and 20.25 kPa at depths of 0–20 and 20–40 cm, respectively, and the RFCF matrix significantly increased with the introduction of rubber plantations of different stand ages. For example, at 0–10 cm soil depth, compared to the CK, the ability of rubber plants to improve the soil cohesive force followed the order MF $>$ 27Y_RF $>$ 20Y_RF $>$ 11Y_RF $>$ 5Y_RF. For the 20Y_RF, the increases in RFCFs relative to the CK were 169.73 and 156 % at 0–20 and 20–40 cm, respectively. Generally, older rubber plants ($>$ 11-years-old) yielded a greater RFCF than younger rubber plants.

The root–soil composite cohesive force exhibited different patterns among rubber plantations of different stand ages compared to that of the RFCF (Fig. 4b). The root–soil composite cohesive force showed significant differences among rubber plantations of different stand ages and with that in the CK at 0–20 cm depths, whereas the root–soil composite force was significantly greater with plants than with that in the CK at 20–40 cm depth. However, there were no significant



270 differences in the root–soil composite cohesive forces among the different plantations within the
271 20–40 cm soil depth. This is likely because rubber plants of different stand ages (20Y_RF, 27Y_RF,
272 and MF) had greater root–soil interactions, likely due to thicker RD, higher RLD, higher
273 percentage of MRL, and higher SOM at a depth of 0–20 cm. Overall, both cohesive forces were
274 significantly correlated with RLD, VFRL, FRL, and SOM (Fig. 6). These results indicate that
275 rubber plantations of different stand ages have a greater ability to improve soil cohesive forces.

276 3.3. Soil aggregate properties under different stand-age rubber plantations

277 Soil aggregate properties exhibited different patterns among the various rubber plant
278 treatments (Fig. 5). Soil aggregates sizes were predominantly 2–0.25 mm, followed by > 2 mm,
279 and 0.25–0.053 mm, and aggregate sizes > 0.0053 mm were less dominant in all rubber plantations
280 of different stand ages compared to that in the CK at the respective soil depths (Fig. 5a–f). In the
281 CK, the percentages of aggregates 2–0.025 mm were 23.76 and 26.84 % at depths of 0–20 and 20–
282 40 cm, respectively. Compared to the CK, rubber plantations of different stand ages showed a
283 significant increase in 2–0.25 mm aggregates at both soil depths. However, the proportion of
284 aggregates > 2 mm, significantly increased in rubber plantations of different stand ages compared
285 to that in the CK at respective soil depths, in the order 20Y_RF > 11Y_RF > 27Y_RF > MF >
286 5Y_RF. Simultaneously, the proportion of aggregates < 0.053 mm was significantly reduced in
287 rubber plantations of different stand ages compared with the CK. As a result of the increase in
288 macroaggregates (> 2 mm) and the decrease in microaggregates (< 0.053 mm) following rubber
289 plantation treatments of varying stand ages, aggregate stability (measured by MWD and GMD)
290 improved to varying extents, in the following order: 20Y_RF > 27Y_RF > 11Y_RF > MF >
291 5Y_RF > CK.

292



3.4 Relationship among root traits, SOM, cohesive force, and soil aggregate stability

The Pearson correlation analysis indicated that the soil RFCF was positively and strongly associated with MWD and GMD with a correlation coefficient of 0.81 and 0.91 (0–20 cm), and 0.81 and 0.89 (20–40 cm), whereas the soil RFCF was significantly negatively correlated with small microaggregates (< 0.053 mm) ($r = -0.74$ and -0.79) for both depths (Fig. 6). A similar trend was observed for the root–soil composite cohesive force. Generally, a large cohesive force was consistent with high RLD, high proportions of FRL and MRL, and high SOM, particularly in older rubber plants, and was responsible for its capacity to maintain higher aggregate stability.

The RF model further identified the importance of various soil factors in predicting soil aggregate stability (MWD and GMD) at both soil depths (Fig. 7). At both depths, LMA (> 2 mm) and MA (2–0.25 mm) were the most influential factors, contributing significantly to soil stability, followed by SOM and FRL (FRL_0.2–0.5 mm). Root properties and soil cohesive forces also play substantial roles, particularly at deeper soil depths (20–40 cm), where cohesive forces become more prominent. Root traits are essential for enhancing soil aggregate stability, and their impact varies with depth, underscoring the complex interactions between roots and soil structure in ecosystem functions. In addition, the PLS-PM explicated the indirect and direct impact of root properties, SOM, and cohesive forces on soil aggregate stability (Fig. 8). Among the factors measured in the surface soil (0–20 cm), RLD (path coefficient 0.64, $P < 0.05$) directly influenced SOM (path coefficient 0.45, $P < 0.05$) and the MWD. In addition, RLD had a strong direct effect on SOM (path coefficient 0.70, $P < 0.05$). Furthermore, RLD directly altered RFCF (path coefficient 0.30, $P < 0.05$), which further affected the MWD. In contrast, RLD directly influenced the root soil composite cohesive force (RSCCF), however, the RSCCF did not directly influence the MWD. A similar trend was observed in the deep soil (20–40 cm).



316 **4 Discussion**

317 *4.1. Stand-age rubber plant root influence on soil cohesive forces*

318 Rubber plantations of different stand ages exhibited different root morphological traits.
319 Our results demonstrated that the plant roots of rubber plantations aged < 11-years-old were
320 influenced by soil properties at 0–20 and 20–40 cm depths, as indicated by a sharp decline in RD
321 and RLD (Fig. 1), and restricted root growth due to an increase in soil bulk density and a decrease
322 in macropores. Similarly, Sun et al. (2021) observed that at the same research site, older rubber
323 plants (13-years-old) exhibited a preference for growing in macropores compared to younger
324 plants (four-years-old), which was attributed to their superior root properties and lower soil bulk
325 density. In contrast, the 27Y_RF and MF were minimally influenced by soil properties due to the
326 high percentage of FRL and MRL, which likely enlarged medium soil pores and facilitated
327 penetration through capillary soil pores (< 30 μm) (Ali et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2021; He et al.,
328 2022). Older rubber plants possess a higher proportion of FRL and MRL and produce a greater
329 amount of root exudates, which likely function as lubricants to facilitate root growth in compacted
330 soils with a higher bulk density (Chen et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2023). In our study, older rubber
331 plants demonstrated a higher root penetration ability than younger plants, which likely modified
332 the soil cohesive forces.

333 Our results indicate that rubber plant roots of different stand ages were more effective in
334 enhancing soil cohesive forces in tropical regions than in the CK (no rubber plants) (Fig. 4). Many
335 studies have shown that plant roots positively affect soil detachment rates during rainfall events,
336 which can be attributed to an increase in soil cohesive forces (Huang et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2021).
337 Our findings further validate the hypothesis that rubber plantations of different stand ages produce
338 different soil cohesive forces, which are associated with their root characteristics and contributions



339 to SOM. The variation in the enhancement of root–soil composite cohesive forces among rubber
 340 plantations of different stand ages was due to their distinct root properties. Younger rubber plants
 341 (< 20Y_RF) were more effective at increasing soil cohesion in the topsoil (0–20 cm), whereas
 342 older plants improved soil cohesion in both the topsoil and deeper layers compared to that in the
 343 CK (Fig. 4) because of their higher root tensile strength, soil shear strength, and greater RD and
 344 RLD. However, the RD and RLD of younger plants were significantly reduced in the subsoil,
 345 thereby diminishing their impact on soil cohesion. In contrast, older rubber plants enhance soil
 346 cohesive forces because of their extensive root contact area with the soil and the high density of
 347 their crisscrossing FRL and MRL networks, which effectively bind and wrap soil particles (Huang
 348 et al., 2022; Vannoppen et al., 2015, 2017). In the current study, RLD and a substantial proportion
 349 of FRL and MRL in older rubber plants enhanced root–soil contact and strengthened the soil at
 350 both depths (Figs. 1, and 2).

351 The influence of roots on the cohesive force of root-free soils can be ascribed to their
 352 indirect contribution to SOM. Soils from older rubber plantations exhibited high SOM content
 353 (Fig. 3c), which enhanced clay particle cohesion by reducing the surface tension of water within
 354 the clay–organic matter matrix (Wuddivira et al., 2009). RD and chemical composition (cellulose)
 355 altered carbon sequestration in various soil pools, enhancing carbon accumulation in the coarse
 356 silt fraction (20–50 μm), while decreasing carbon accumulation in particulate organic matter (Liao
 357 et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2014). Similarly, roots with higher cellulose/lignin ratios facilitate the
 358 accessibility of substrates to polymer-hydrolyzing enzymes, thereby accelerating the degradation
 359 of plant organic matter (Barto et al., 2010; Halder et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2014). In addition,
 360 root exudates facilitate root penetration into compacted soil layers and increase the distribution
 361 frequency of SOM in deeper soil horizons (Oleghe et al., 2017). In general, older rubber plants



362 exhibited a greater RLD, higher percentage of FRL and MRL, and increased SOM than younger
363 rubber plants, which led to a higher RFCF.

364 *4.2. Aggregate stability responses to soil cohesive forces under different stand-age rubber*
365 *plantations*

366 Our study provides comprehensive insights into soil aggregate stability across rubber
367 plantations at different stages of stand maturity. Soil cohesive forces driven by plant root traits are
368 key factors in enhancing soil aggregate stability. The soil cohesive force increased aggregate
369 stability (MWD and GMD) at the same soil depth (Fig. 5). The results also indicated that cohesive
370 forces not only governed macroaggregate stability but also played a role in microaggregate
371 formation. The MWD increased across rubber plantations of different stand ages because of the
372 significant enhancement in soil cohesive forces. Rubber plants older than 11 years exhibited the
373 highest aggregate stability at the same soil depth, which was consistent with the trend observed in
374 their RFCF (Fig. 4). High soil cohesion has also been documented to limit soil dispersion rates and
375 mitigate gully erosion (Wuddivira et al., 2013). Although the soil RFCCF was highest in older
376 rubber plantations, the highest SOM content likely played a positive role in stabilizing soil particles
377 (Kamau et al., 2020). SOM had a positive effect on soil particles as its dispersive properties became
378 evident only once the soil aggregates were broken down. High SOM content also weakens the
379 electrostatic repulsive forces by influencing the overlap of oppositely charged electric double
380 layers (Ali et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2020). In addition, the higher MWD observed in rubber
381 plantations older than 11 years, compared to those in the 5Y_RF and CK, indicated that the MWD
382 of older rubber plants was not adversely affected by the excessive release of SOC from the
383 mechanical breakdown of macroaggregates.

384 These findings highlight the importance of understanding the specific mechanisms by
385 which soil cohesive forces contribute to aggregate stability. In this study, the soil aggregate portion



386 (< 0.25 mm) was comparatively higher in the rubber plantations than in the control in this study.
387 Rubber plant roots and SOM positively enhanced cohesion between soil particles (Fig. 5a-f). The
388 soil cohesive force regulates soil aggregate stability using the following approaches: First, smaller
389 aggregates, due to their higher surface area to volume ratio with water, can create surface tension
390 between particles, indirectly creating a cohesive force, helping to hold them together (Wang et al.,
391 2023). Second, soil particles, particularly clay and organic matter, often carry electrical charges
392 that can lead to electrostatic attraction, further stabilizing the soil particles (Kaiser and Asefaw
393 Berhe, 2014; Wuddivira et al., 2009). Similarly, SOM has a positive effect on clays because the
394 dispersive effect of SOM is not expressed until the aggregates are broken (Melo et al., 2021). High
395 SOM also weakens the electrostatic repulsive force in ultisols through its additional impact on the
396 overlap of oppositely charged electric double layers (Ali et al., 2023; He et al., 2021; Yu et al.,
397 2020). Third, the water in the small pores between the soil particles creates a capillary force that
398 contributes to the soil cohesive force, which agglomerates the small particles (Deviren Saygin et
399 al., 2021). In general, stand-age rubber plantations positively improved soil aggregate stability
400 compared to the control through soil cohesion. In young rubber plantations, legumes such as kudzu
401 should be planted. Furthermore, the development of a forest rubber understory economy can
402 significantly enhance soil health by increasing biodiversity, with diverse plant roots improving soil
403 structure, promoting microbial activity, preventing erosion, and contributing to organic matter
404 through leaf litter and root biomass, thereby improving soil fertility. Future research should focus
405 on evaluating the mechanisms by which various understory plants in rubber plantations reduce soil
406 erosion.

407

408



409 5. Conclusion

410 In this study, we explored the potential mechanisms of different stand-age rubber plant root
411 morphological properties, root-derived SOM, and root chemical compositions on soil aggregate
412 stability improvement through soil cohesive forces. Our findings indicate that natural rubber
413 plantations of different stand ages exhibit distinct root distribution patterns, with 27-year-old
414 rubber forests (27Y_RF) and MF showing greater RLD and higher percentages of FRL and MRL
415 RD classes than those of younger plantations. The higher percentages of FRL and MRL in older
416 rubber plants (> 11-years-old), along with their high SOM content, contributed to a stronger soil
417 cohesive force than that observed in younger rubber plants and the control plots. The higher SOM
418 content in older rubber plants was driven by the higher cellulose content and lower lignin
419 percentages in their FRL and MRL. Consequently, rubber plants older than 11 years increased the
420 soil cohesive force (with and without roots) compared to younger rubber plants and the control,
421 thereby enhancing aggregate stability and reducing soil particle dispersion. These findings have
422 significant practical implications and may assist in the development of management policies aimed
423 at restoring the soil quality of degraded land in the tropical regions of Hainan Island. They
424 emphasize the importance of selecting rubber plants with optimal root characteristics to enhance
425 aggregate stability through soil cohesive force, thereby sustaining long-term agricultural
426 productivity and maintaining environmental quality.

427 Credit authorship contribution statement

428 **Waqar Ali:** Writing - original draft, visualization, Investigation, Data curation, formal analysis.
429 **Amani Milinga:** Investigation, Data curation. **Tao Luo:** visualization, formal analysis,
430 **Mohammad Nauman Khan:** Writing – review & editing. **Asad Shah:** Writing – review &
431 editing. **Khurram Shehzad:** Investigation, formal analysis. **Qiu Yang:** Investigation, Funding



432 acquisition, review & editing. **Huai Yang:** Writing – review & editing, **Wenxing Long:**
433 Investigation, Data curation. **Wenjie Liu:** Validation, Supervision, Resources, Conceptualization,
434 Funding acquisition.

435 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

436 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
437 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

438 **Data availability**

439 Data will be made available on request.

440 **Acknowledgment**

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618

619 **Table captions**

620 **Table. 1.** Basic physical and chemical characteristics of the experimental site.

Treatments	Soil depth (cm)	pH	BD (g/cm ³)	TOP (%)	SMC (%)	SOM (g/kg)	AN (mg/kg)	AP (mg/kg)	AK (mg/kg)
CK	0 -20	4.17	1.52	26.37	17.46	12.34	11.92	1.69	24.42
	20 - 40	4.21	1.56	23.26	15.25	11.36	11.45	1.56	18.15
5Y_RF	0 -20	4.37	1.39	28.39	19.25	20.98	11.63	2.79	34.62
	20 - 40	4.13	1.52	23.01	17.63	16.30	10.67	1.73	17.97
11Y_RF	0 -20	3.89	1.43	24.81	21.67	22.68	11.84	2.31	25.23
	20 - 40	4.02	1.51	23.1	20.77	20.56	10.42	1.7	16.44
20Y_RF	0 -20	4.08	1.36	24.98	21.41	23.37	10.67	2.33	29.02
	20 - 40	4.22	1.43	20.31	20.2	21.16	10.39	1.99	23.12
27Y_RF	0 -20	4.08	1.32	25.05	23.68	21.78	11.77	2.39	25.83
	20 - 40	4.26	1.41	25.24	19.9	21.04	10.17	1.84	18.92
MF	0 -20	4.42	1.31	29.52	22.76	21.20	13.47	1.81	36.15
	20 - 40	4.35	1.39	26.58	20.11	20.29	12.84	1.33	19.94

621 Note: BD: Bulk density; TOP: Total porosity; SMC: Soil moisture content; SOM: Soil organic matter; AN: Available nitrogen; AP:
622 Available phosphorus; AK: Available potassium.

623 **Figure captions**

624 **Figure. 1** Different stand-age rubber plantation root morphological properties with soil depths.

625 **Figure. 2** Root diameter distribution of rubber plants at different stand ages represented by the



626 root length percentage across four class diameters.

627 **Figure. 3.** Different stand-age rubber plantation root chemical compositions and soil organic
 628 matter (SOM) distributions.

629 **Figure. 4.** Soil cohesive force distribution under different stand-age rubber plantations. (a) Root
 630 free cohesive force, (b) Root–soil composite cohesive force.

631 **Figure. 5.** Different stand-age rubber plantation aggregate size distributions and soil aggregate
 632 stabilities (MWD and GWD) with soil depths.

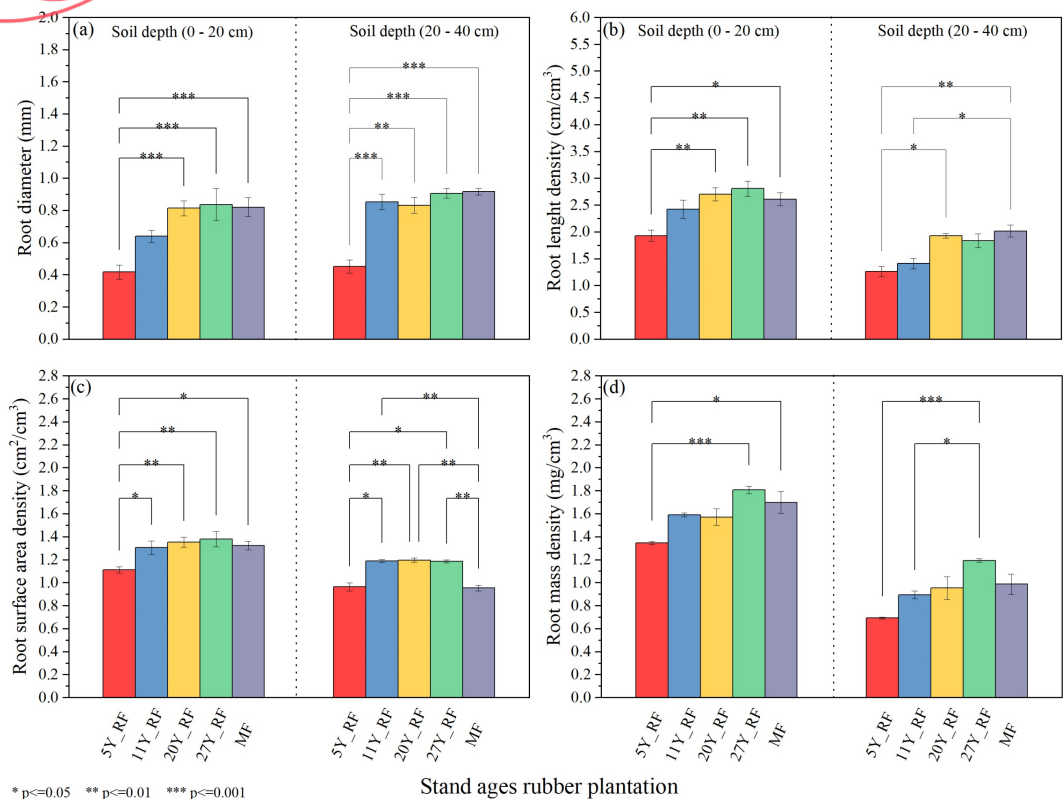
633 **Figure. 6.** Pearson correlations ($P < 0.05$) for all root traits, aggregate stabilities, soil organic
 634 matter, and soil cohesive forces. RD: root diameter; RLD: root length density; RSD: root surface
 635 area density; RMD: root mass density; VFRL: very fine root length; FRL: fine root length; MRL:
 636 medium root length; CRL: coarse root length; SOM: soil organic matter; RFCF: root-free cohesive
 637 force; RSCCF: root–soil composite cohesive force; LMA: large macroaggregates (> 2 mm); MA:
 638 macroaggregates (2–0.25 mm); MIA: microaggregates (0.25–0.053 mm); SMA: small
 639 microaggregates (< 0.053 mm); GMD: geometric mean diameter; MWD: mean weight diameter.
 640 The dark brown color indicates a positive correlation, and the pine green color indicates a negative
 641 correlation.

642 **Figure. 7.** Random forest model ($P < 0.05$) to identify the key predictors of mean weight diameter
 643 (MWD) and geometric mean diameter (GMD). RD: root diameter; RLD: root length density; RSD:
 644 root surface area density; RMD: root mass density; VFRL: very fine root length; FRL: fine root
 645 length; MRL: medium root length; CRL: coarse root length; SOM: soil organic matter; RFCF root-
 646 free cohesive force; RSCCF: root–soil composite cohesive force; LMA: large macroaggregates ($>$
 647 2 mm); MA: macroaggregates (2–0.25 mm); MIA: microaggregates (0.25– 0.053 mm); SMA:
 648 small microaggregates (< 0.053 mm).



Figure. 8. Partial least squares-path models (PLS-PM) ($P < 0.05$) indicating the indirect and direct impact of root properties, soil organic matter, and cohesive forces on soil aggregate stability at 0–20 cm (a, and b) and 20–40 cm (c, and d). The numbers near the arrows are standardized path coefficients. The blue line indicates the positive direction and the red line indicates the negative direction. RD: root diameter; RLD: root length density; SOM: soil organic matter; RFCF: root-free cohesive force; RSCCF: root–soil composite cohesive force; MWD: mean weight diameter.

Figure. 1.



* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

Stand ages rubber plantation

Figure. 2.

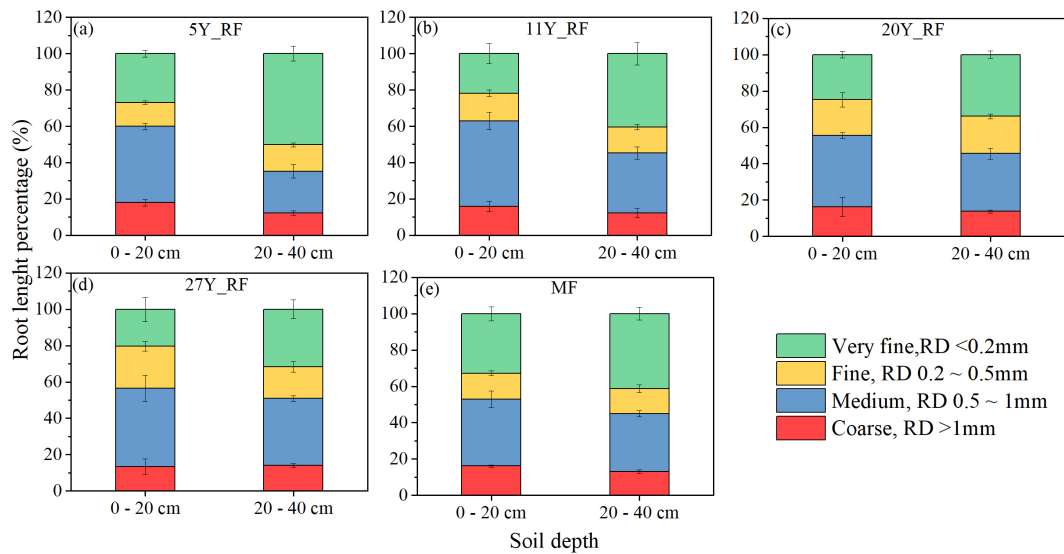


Figure. 3.

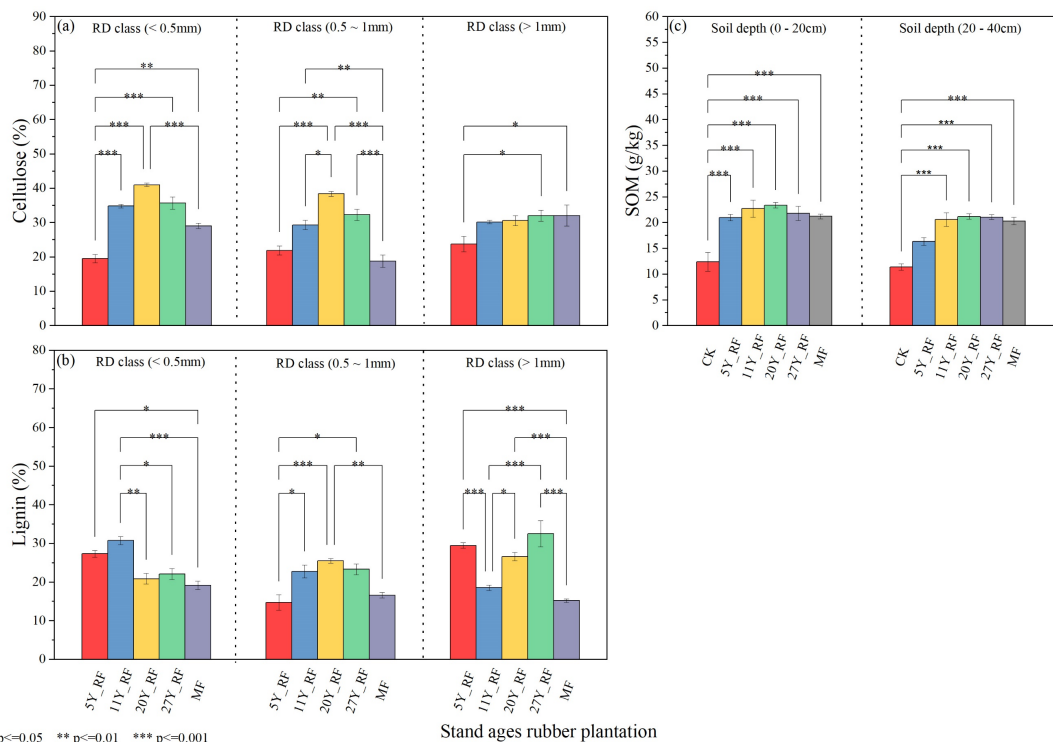
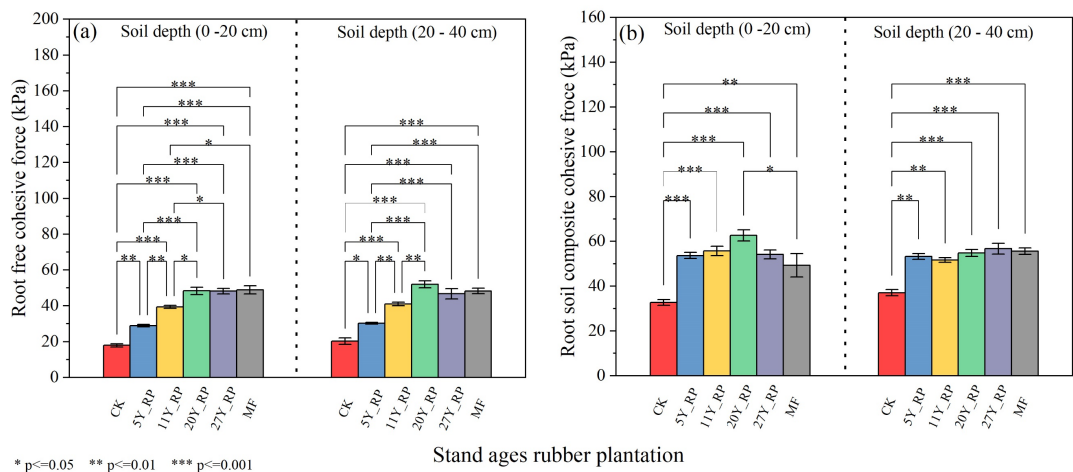


Figure. 4.



* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

Stand ages rubber plantation

Figure. 5.

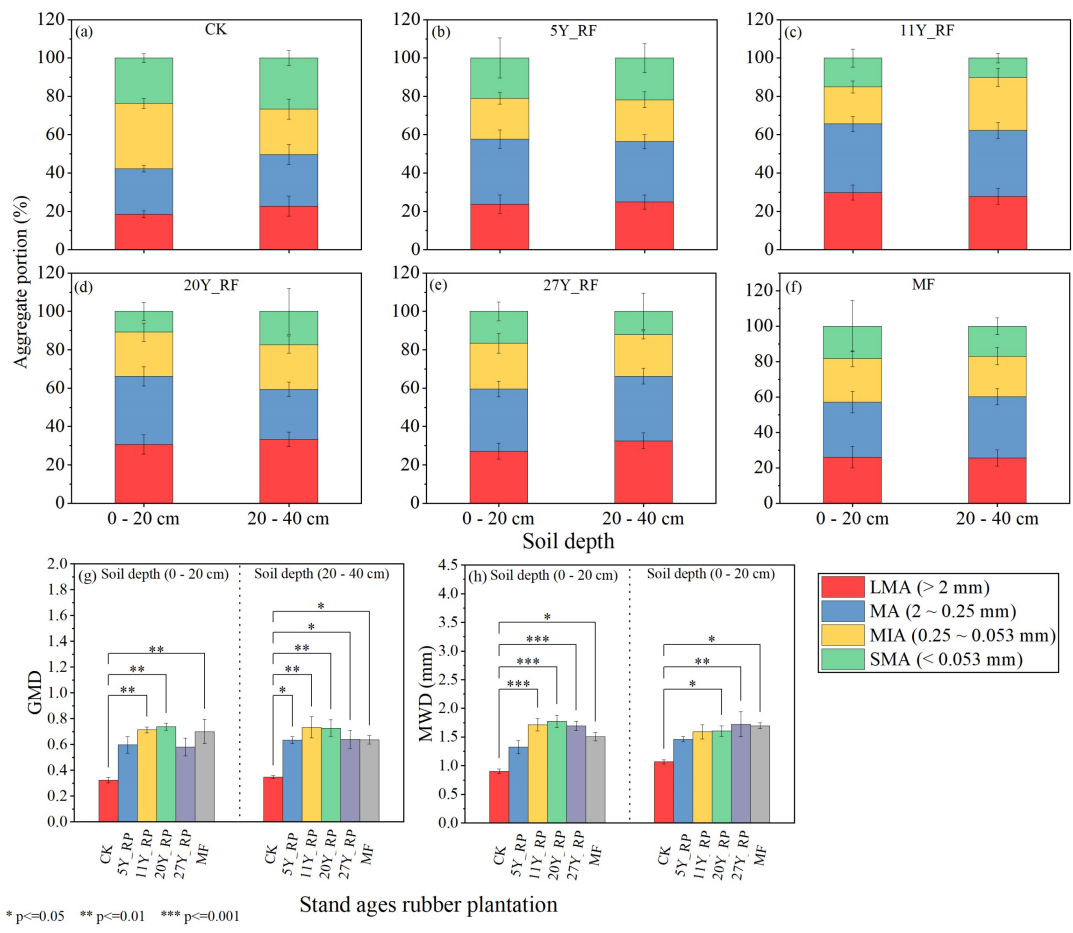
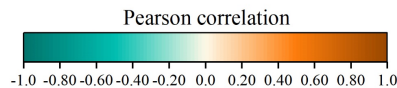
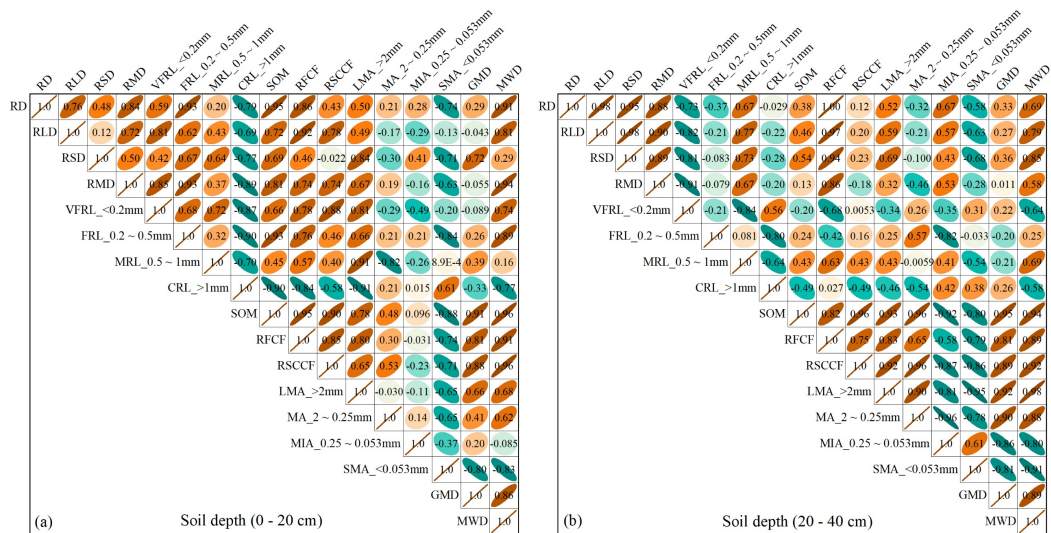


Figure. 6.



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701 **Figure. 7.**

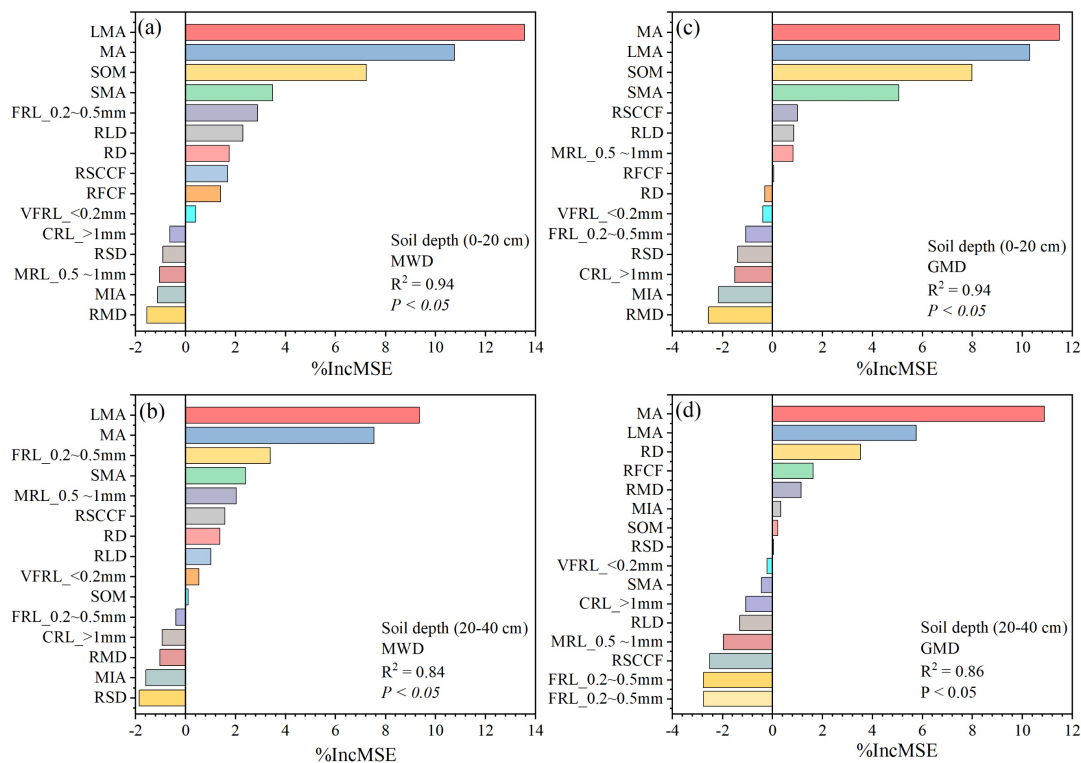
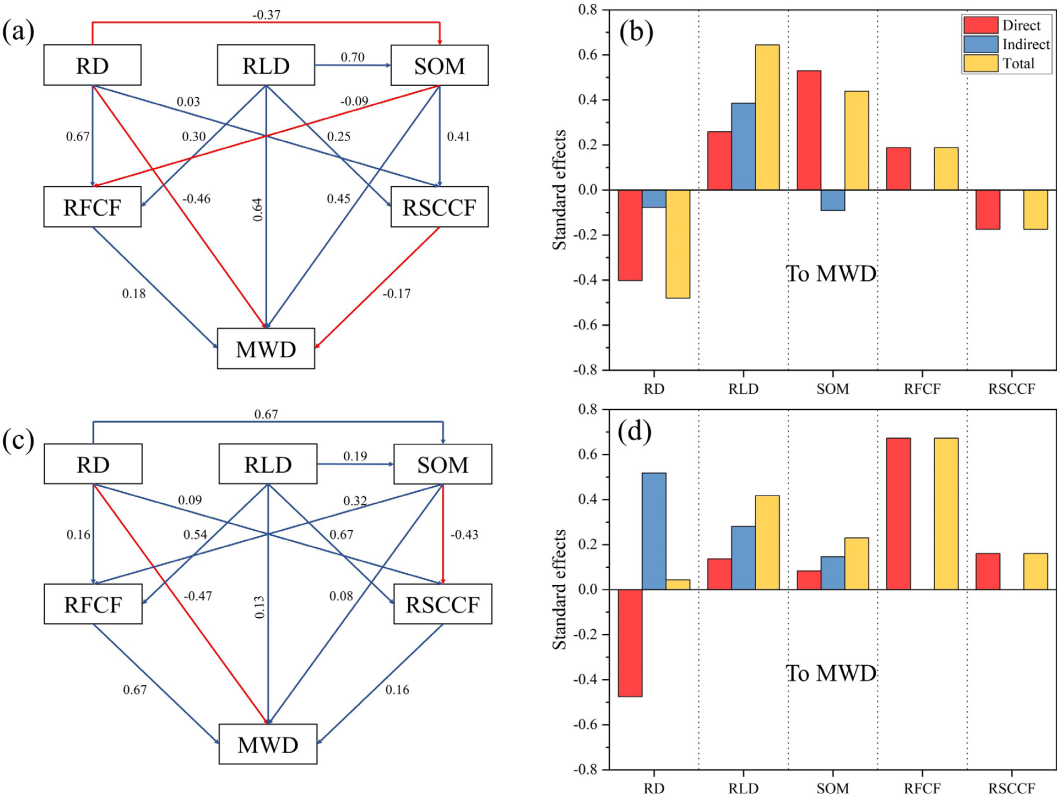


Figure. 8.



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