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## Does Forest Conversion to Tree Plantations Affect Properties of Subsoil Horizons? Findings from Mainland Southeast Asia (Lao PDR, Yunnan-China)

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1        **Does forest conversion to tree plantations affect properties of**  
2        **subsoil horizons? Findings from mainland Southeast Asia (Lao**  
3        **PDR, Yunnan-China)**

4  
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20

21 **Author contributions:** CH designed the experiment and analysis data; XS carried out the  
22 data collection and sample analyses; SS provided information about location of the different  
23 land cover; AP, CH and XS analyzed interpreted the results. The manuscript was drafted by  
24 all the co-authors.

25

## 26 **ABSTRACT**

27 While forest conversion to tree plantations in northern Laos is ongoing since the 1990s, its  
28 impact on soil properties is yet to be assessed. Our objectives were (i) to assess changes in  
29 soil properties, including subsoil horizons down to 160 cm, in <14-year-old teak and 21-year-  
30 old rubber tree plantations compared to paired forest soils, in Luang Namtha province, Laos;  
31 (ii) review the recently published studies on the impact of tree plantations in neighboring  
32 Xishuangbanna, China; and (iii) to provide, based on (i) and (ii) broad recommendations for  
33 sustainable soil management in areas of northern Laos converted to tree plantations.

34 We analyzed selected chemical and physical properties of soil collected at 6 depths, from  
35 surface to a depth of 160 cm, along hillslopes, at the locations of 4 paired sites. All layers (0-  
36 160 cm) were very acidic pH ( $\leq 4.3$ ) and depleted in exchangeable cations. Compared to their  
37 levels in the surface layer (0-10 cm), organic carbon content ( $21 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ) and specific pore  
38 volume ( $0.68 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) decreased by 62% and 44%, respectively at 40 cm, and by 81% and  
39 53%, respectively at 110 cm. Forest conversion to tree plantations induced a decrease in pore  
40 volume and carbon content in the topsoil, but the subsoil remained unaffected. In rubber tree  
41 plantations, the nitrogen content dropped in all layers, including subsoil. In teak tree  
42 plantations, pH and phosphorus content increased in the deepest layers. Studies from

43 Xishuangbanna reported comparable degradations, also limited to the upper layers, following  
44 conversion to rubber tree plantations. Some isolated studies mentioned some apparent  
45 improvements of soil properties, related to textural differences.

46 Overall, the only significant subsoil degradation consisted in N depletion (0-160 cm) under  
47 rubber plantations. Even though the impact of forest conversion on soil properties, up to two  
48 decades following tree plantation, appeared limited to the uppermost soil layers, the observed  
49 alteration of soil porosity may have an impact on runoff and erosion, inducing irreversible  
50 degradation of soil functions and productive potential. The subtle nature of such changes  
51 hampers adequate perception of their actual importance by farmers and stakeholders who  
52 likely have the false impression that soils are unaffected by forest conversion to tree  
53 plantations. Consequently, an enforcement of soil conservation practices is recommended  
54 when establishing commercial tree plantations on the naturally nutrient-depleted and low  
55 porosity Acrisols of this region.

56

57 **Key words:** Acrisols, soil compaction, soil organic carbon, land use change, rubber tree  
58 plantation, teak tree plantation

59

60 Highlights

61 Our data come from an under-researched region and include subsoil (40-160 cm)

62 Only rubber plantations induced subsoil degradation (N depletion to 160 cm depth)

63 Degradation was mainly located in the top layer (0-20 cm)

64 Degradation consisted in increased bulk density and decreased carbon content.

65 Degradation may appear wrongly marginal in low fertility forested soils

66

67 **1. Introduction**

68 The forests of Northern Laos are hotspots of biodiversity of both global and local importance.  
69 In this landlocked country, a conjunction of factors including (i) a sparse population of  
70 shifting cultivation farmers, (ii) a rugged terrain, hampering the development of transport  
71 infrastructures and trade with the neighboring countries, and (iii) biodiversity legislation  
72 ((Ministry of Natural Resources and the Environment (MoNRE), 2016), contributed to the  
73 conservation of such natural environment (Lestrelin et al. 2012). Nevertheless, since the  
74 1980s deforestation, land conversion, extractive activities, hydropower, and forest  
75 encroachment have impacted this environment; the pace of changes increased in the 1990s  
76 with the introduction of commercial plantations of teak (*Tectona grandis*) and rubber tree  
77 (*Hevea brasiliensis*). The characteristics of rubber tree expansion have been largely  
78 documented (Lu, 2017; Sayavong et al., 2020; Shi, 2008; Vongvisouk and Dwyer, 2016;  
79 Xiao et al., 2020). Tree plantations of Northern Laos were mostly established on sloping  
80 forested land, prone to soil erosion, due to shortage of lowlands already used for rice and  
81 vegetable cultivation (Brady, 1990; Singer and Munns, 1996). While such sloping land often  
82 bears conspicuous signs of erosion (gullies, landslides, etc.), more concealed forms of soil  
83 degradation (soil compaction, acidification, carbon loss, nutrient depletion, etc.) may also  
84 occur. The extent and rate of soil degradation (whether transient or irreversible) resulting  
85 from forest conversion to tree plantation appears highly context-dependent, influenced by  
86 baseline soil properties (i.e. as observed under forests), slope, climate, management practices,  
87 etc. (Vongsiharath, 2005). A comparative study by Sang et al. (2013) found that soil fertility  
88 of 17-year *Acacia mangium* plantations in Vietnam was similar to that of secondary forest  
89 and pasture. Ramesh et al. (2013) reported that, in uplands of Northeast India, 26-year-old *A.*  
90 *nepalensis* and *M. oblonga* plantations improved soil fertility. On the other hand, in the  
91 uplands of Luang Prabang province, Laos, severe soil erosion was observed in teak tree

92 plantations without understory ([Lacombe et al., 2018](#)). Soil fertility loss was also observed in  
93 Hainan (China), following 41 years of continuous rubber tree plantation ([Cheng et al., 2007](#)).

94 While forest conversion to tree plantations in Luang Namtha may have lifted local  
95 populations out from poverty and improved both local and national economies, its  
96 environmental impact, particularly on soil resources, was not yet assessed when we  
97 undertook this survey. Such appraisal is increasingly needed as the rapid economic  
98 development of Laos will likely come at the cost of further deforestation, following a pattern  
99 similar to what previously happened a few decades ago in neighboring Xishuangbanna,  
100 southern China.

101 Xishuangbanna and northern Laos share common physiographic features including  
102 comparable geomorphology, climate, flora and fauna. The forested area of this Chinese  
103 province dwindled with promotion of extensive rubber tree plantations by the Government of  
104 China in the late 1950s ([Li et al., 2007](#)). With increasing pressure on the soil resources of  
105 Xishuangbanna, research focusing on soil properties in rubber tree plantations gained  
106 momentum: in the past 6 years, 16 papers focusing on different aspects of soils in forest and  
107 tree plantations of this region appeared in international peer reviewed journals, including  
108 research on soil physical degradation ([Liu et al., 2018](#); [Nespoulos et al., 2019](#); [Zhu et al.,](#)  
109 [2018](#)), soil organic carbon ([Li et al., 2015](#); [Liu et al., 2017](#); [Sun et al., 2017](#); [Yang et al.,](#)  
110 [2016](#)), soil respiration ([Goldberg et al., 2017](#); [Wu et al., 2016](#); [Zhao et al., 2018](#)), spatial  
111 variability of soil characteristics ([de Blécourt et al., 2017](#); [Xia et al., 2016](#)), soil improvement  
112 using intercrops ([Chen, et al., 2019](#); [Li et al., 2020](#); [Liu C.-A. et al., 2018](#); [Liu C. et al., 2018](#)).  
113 It seemed interesting to take stock of all these results in order to verify whether there are  
114 general rules of evolution and whether they correspond to what can be observed in Laos.

115 In Northern Laos, given the potentially devastating environmental effects of wide-scale,  
116 poorly planned and managed conversion to tree plantations, both in terms of biodiversity  
117 (Bremer and Farley, 2010; Li et al., 2007), soil (Liao et al., 2012; Yuen et al, 2013) and water  
118 resources (Ziegler 2009), it appears essential to support an informed decision-making process  
119 through the provision of environmental data. In this perspective, our study aimed to: (i)  
120 measure selected soil and soil characteristics in forested areas (F), 12- to 14-year-old teak (T)  
121 and 21-year rubber plantations (R) of plots located in Luang Namtha province with a special  
122 attention to the subsoil layers; (ii) review recent literature on the impact of tree plantations in  
123 neighboring Xishuangbanna, China, in an attempt to identify regional trends and finally, (iii)  
124 provide broad outlines of recommendations for future development of tree plantations and  
125 agricultural practices in Northern Laos.

126

## 127 **2. Materials and methods**

### 128 2.1. Site description

129 The study sites were located in Luang Namtha province, Northern Lao PDR, which borders  
130 Yunnan province (China) (Fig. S1). Luang Namtha is a predominately mountainous area with  
131 an average elevation > 500 m a.s.l., and dominant sloping land. Average annual rainfall and  
132 temperature of the past 20 years were 1,450 mm and 23°C, respectively (Fig. S2). The main  
133 land uses on the sloping areas were firstly mixed secondary deciduous forest (F) and secondly  
134 tree plantations that mainly consist of rubber trees (R) and teak trees (T); in the lowlands the  
135 main crop was paddy rice (Fig. S1).

136 We initially sought paired plots (forest v.s. tree plantations) within micro-watersheds in order  
137 to minimize differences in the underlying pedo-climatic conditions of each pair. We  
138 succeeded to find only three sites (A, B, C) for which the three land uses (F, R, T) were



139 located within the same watershed, at distances <5 km from each other, although with  
140 different slopes. We failed to find a fourth site that presented similar conditions, a difficulty  
141 frequently encountered in ecological/environmental studies (Davies and Gray, 2015). For the  
142 fourth site (D), each land use was located in a separate micro-watersheds, different from that  
143 where sites A, B, C are located, more than 5 km apart and on different slopes. The location of  
144 sites A, B, C and D are presented in Fig. S1 and their environmental characteristics are  
145 summarized in Table 1.

146 On the Lao soil map, soils at the sampled locations were described as Ferric Acrisols (sites A  
147 & C) and Ferric Alisols (sites B & D) (Table 1). The similarity of sites B and D in terms of  
148 soils offered some perspective to test the relative importance of pedological factors compared  
149 to climate and slope. The fact that three studied land uses were much more scattered at site D  
150 than at the three other site also provided a means to assess the importance of the paired plots  
151 approach in this context.

152 We selected teak and rubber tree plantations owned by smallholder farmers. Teak tree  
153 plantations, 21 years of age at the time of sampling, were found almost exclusively on gentle  
154 slopes (ranging 16-27%; Table 1), in places where forests had been cleared in 1995. Trees  
155 were randomly planted in 1996, with an average - but quite variable - spacing of about 2.5 m  
156 corresponding to an average tree density of about 2,000 trees per ha. Plantations had an  
157 approximate surface area of 2,000, 5,000, 5,000, 3,000 m<sup>2</sup> at locations A, B, C and D,  
158 respectively. During the first 3 years following tree planting, farmers intercropped young teak  
159 trees with upland rice, controlling weeds using hand tools. Following this early phase, weeds  
160 were simply slashed to minimize competition with growing teak trees.

161 The rubber tree plantations, 12 to 14 years of age at the time of sampling, were established on  
162 plots that had been cleared from 2003 to 2005. Unlike teak tree plantations, rubber trees were

163 established on steep slopes (slope gradient ranging 50-77%; Table 1). The reason for this  
164 specific positioning of rubber tree plantations within the landscape is that all land with gentle  
165 slope nearby villages had already been used and only steeper and higher land, further away  
166 from villages, remained available (Sayavong *et al.*, 2020). Lacking access to machinery,  
167 farmers laid out very narrow terraces that consisted of small flattenings (~0.3-0.5 m wide) cut  
168 by hand at regular intervals along the slope, following contour lines, resulting in minimal soil  
169 disturbance. Tree spacing was 2.5 m along tree rows with an inter-row distance of 4 m.  
170 Rubber tree plantations selected were 12,000, 7,000, 9,000 and 5,000 m<sup>2</sup> at plots A, B, C, D,  
171 respectively. During the first 3 years of the plantations, trees were intercropped with rice,  
172 without fertilization; weeds were controlled using hand tools. After the first 3 years, weeds  
173 and coppices were controlled by means of herbicide applications until complete rubber tree  
174 canopy closure. Farmers started to harvest latex when trees reached 7 years of age and at the  
175 time of this survey, the trees were still harvested.

176 Forest study sites were all located on steep slopes (ranging 51-74%; Table 1). Even if  
177 information about previous deforestation has to be taken with caution (Shi, 2008), the  
178 selected plots were described by local farmers as not having been deforested during at least  
179 30 years. At plot A, forest (F) was a protected area of the village surrounded by rubber  
180 plantations. At plot B, F was part of the protected Luang Namtha catchment (set up for the  
181 provision of clean water to the town). Plots C and D were located within the boundaries of  
182 the Nam Ha National Protected Area, in relation with their protected status and recognized  
183 outstanding biodiversity (national protected area (NPA) since 1995; ASEAN Heritage Park  
184 since 2003; UNESCO–Lao ‘Nam Ha Ecotourism Project’ since 2006, awarded the ‘Equator  
185 Prize’ from United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

## 186 2.2. Soil sampling

187 Soil samples were collected on two successive occasions: first, in rubber tree plantations and  
188 forests in January 2017 (i.e. middle of the dry season, Fig. S2), then in teak tree plantations in  
189 June 2017 (i.e. early rainy season, Fig. S2). Composite soil samples were collected at  
190 distance  $\geq 2$  m from a randomly chosen tree, at up-, mid- and low-slope positions, at least 3  
191 collection points were thus pooled, depending on the length of the slope. At each sampling  
192 point, disturbed soil samples were taken using a standard auger at 6 soil depth increments: 0-  
193 10, 10-20, 30-40, 60-70, 100-110 and 150-160 cm, hereafter referred to as: 10, 20, 40, 70,  
194 110 & 160 cm. Bulk density samples were collected using a soil core sampler with a core  
195 volume of 100 cm<sup>3</sup> (5 cm in diameter and height) at all but the deepest soil depth increment  
196 (i.e. at 0-10, 10-20, 30-40, 60-70, 100-110 cm). Following collection, soil samples were  
197 transferred to air-tight plastic bags to prevent evaporation of soil water. The number of soil  
198 samples could vary depending on study sites due to time and constraints needed to reach the  
199 sites, collect samples and bring them back to our vehicle (Table 1).

200

### 201 2.3 Soil analysis

202 Analyses were performed at the soil laboratory of the Department of Agricultural Land  
203 Management (DALaM, Lao ministry of Agriculture). Soil samples were oven dried at 105 °C  
204 for 48 h to determine soil dry bulk density (BD) and water content (WC). From bulk density  
205 we calculated the specific pore volume (cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>):

$$206 \quad \text{specific pore volume} = (1/\text{BD}) - 1/\text{PD} = (1/\text{BD}) - 0.377$$

207 BD is the bulk density (g cm<sup>-3</sup>), PD is the particle density i.e. the volumetric mass of the solid  
208 soil particles that was assumed to be 2.65 g cm<sup>-3</sup> in the absence of high organic matter or  
209 oxide/hydroxides content.

210 Subsequently, dried soil samples were sieved through a 2 mm mesh and stored in sealed  
211 plastic bags for laboratory analysis according to standard methods detailed in [Pansu et al.](#)  
212 [\(2006\)](#). Soil pH was measured in 1:2.5 soil:water suspensions with a glass electrode pH meter  
213 (Jenway 3520). Organic carbon content (OC) was determined using the Walkley and Black  
214 method. Total nitrogen (N) was determined by Kjeldahl's method, while available  
215 phosphorus (P) was extracted following the Bray II method. Exchangeable potassium (K)  
216 was determined by extraction with neutral 1N NH<sub>4</sub>OAc. Particle size analysis was carried out  
217 according to the pipette method after organic matter destruction using H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

218 The soil organic carbon (SOC) stock was estimated using the equation:

$$219 \text{ SOC (Mg ha}^{-1}\text{)} = 100 \times \text{BD} \times \text{OC} \times \text{thickness}$$

220 with 'BD' the soil bulk density (g cm<sup>-3</sup> or Mg m<sup>-3</sup>), 'thickness' is the thickness of the soil  
221 layer (m), OC in mg g<sup>-1</sup>.

222

## 223 2.4. Statistical analysis

224 After having checked normality and homogeneity of variance, we applied ANOVA (Analysis  
225 of Variance), to compare the mean values of the soil properties (clay content, BD, WC, pH,  
226 OC, N, P, K, Ca), for each soil depth increment, considering the 4 sites A, B, C and D as  
227 replicates. This was done using R software 3.6.1 ([R Core Team, 2020](#)) and Agricolae package  
228 ([Mendiburu and Yaseen, 2020](#)).

229

## 230 3. Results

### 231 3.1. Soil organic carbon content

232 In forested areas, topsoil (0-10 cm) organic carbon (SOC) was 21 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and decreased  
233 sharply with depth to 13 and 8 g kg<sup>-1</sup> at 20 and 40 cm, respectively; in deeper layers, the SOC  
234 decreased at a lower rate, from 5 to 3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> at 70 and 160 cm, respectively (Table 3).  
235 Compared to forested areas, in rubber tree plantations, only the topsoil (0-10 cm) displayed  
236 significantly lower soil carbon content (reduction of 5 g kg<sup>-1</sup> compared to forest; p<0.05). In  
237 teak tree plantations, two layers were significantly affected: at 0-10 cm and 30-40 cm depth,  
238 the soil carbon content reduction compared to forest being 7 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and 3 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

239

### 240 3.2. Soil bulk density

241 In forest plots, soil bulk density was low at the surface (average: 0.99 g cm<sup>-3</sup>) and increased  
242 with depth (average: 1.44 g.cm<sup>-3</sup> at depth ≥ 70 cm; table 2). Such an increase in bulk density  
243 equates to a loss of more than half of the total pore volume (i.e. from 0.68 cm<sup>3</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup> to 0.32  
244 cm<sup>3</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup>). Compared to the forested areas, rubber tree plantations did not induce any  
245 significant change in soil density. In contrast, teak tree plantations significantly (p<0.05)  
246 increased soil bulk density of the uppermost soil layers: the porosity was reduced by 40% at  
247 10 cm, 33% at 20 cm and 16% at 40 cm depth. Tree plantations also homogenized the soil at  
248 the surface compared to the forest: the coefficient of variation of porosity in the top layer was  
249 32% and 16% under the forested areas and the tree plantations, respectively.

250

### 251 3.3. Soil acidity

252 All forest soils studied were strongly acidic, with pH ranging from 4.1 to 4.3 at all depth.  
253 Forest conversion to tree plantations did not have any significant impact on soil surface pH.

254 At depth, significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) differences were found only in teak tree plantations where pH  
255 increased (up to 4.5-4.8) at depths of 40 to 160 cm.

256

### 257 *3.4. Plant nutrients*

258 In the forested areas, N, P and K contents presented depth patterns similar to that observed  
259 for organic carbon, i.e. higher contents close to the soil surface with a steep decrease at 20 to  
260 40 cm, and then a more gradual decrease down to 160 cm depth (Table 3). The C/N ratio  
261 decreased more regularly from 13 in the top layer to 6 at 160 cm. In contrast, exchangeable  
262 Ca as well as Mg and Na were low throughout the profiles, consistently with the observed  
263 acidic pH values, which under tropical climate, concur to induce nutrient leaching.

264 We only observed a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduction in N content, along the whole profile, in  
265 places where forest had been converted to rubber tree plantations.

266 Conversion of forests to tree plantations did not appear to have impacted phosphorus profiles,  
267 as no significant differences were observed depth-wise between the phosphorus contents of  
268 the three land covers. In contrast, a significant decrease in potassium content was observed in  
269 the teak tree plantations, but only in the topsoil (-36% at 0-10 cm depth). Under rubber tree  
270 plantations the situation was different as a significant increase ( $p < 0.05$ ) was observed in two  
271 deep layers (+75% and +87% at 70 and 110 cm depth, respectively).

272

## 273 **4. Discussion**

### 274 *4.1. Content and stocks of soil organic carbon*

275 Soil organic carbon (SOC) profiles were similar to that reported for other tropical forests  
276 worldwide, i.e. with the highest contents observed in the top layer, a fast decrease in the  
277 upper layers (0-40 or 50 cm) and a slow decrease down to  $\approx 150$  cm, followed by very low but  
278 stable carbon contents over several meters (Ngo et al., 2013).

279 Tree plantations had an impact in the upper (0-10 cm) layer: SOC decreased in both rubber  
280 and teak tree plantations by 25 and 37% respectively, compared to forest, which probably  
281 related to differences in above ground biomass or litter production. In the 10-20 cm layer no  
282 significant difference was observed between forest, rubber and teak, while in the 30-40 cm  
283 layer, SOC under teak trees was significantly lower compared to forest and rubber; no  
284 difference was observed in the deeper layers. According to Cusack et al. (2018), fine root  
285 biomass is an endogenous factor controlling SOC, equally important as above ground or litter  
286 biomass. Lower fine root development under planted teak trees compared to rubber trees and  
287 forest could consequently explain such a localized difference.

288 In forested areas, the total soil carbon stock was  $130.9 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$  (table 4) approximately half of  
289 it ( $69.5 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$ ) being located in the 0-40 cm layer and 90 % in the 0-110 cm layer. Forest  
290 conversion to tree plantations decreased the carbon stock of the top layer (0-10 cm) but  
291 increased that of the 10-20 cm layer, a counter-intuitive contrast explained by the dramatic  
292 increase in bulk density in the 10-20 cm layer observed in tree plantations. Over the whole  
293 soil profile (0-160 cm), forest conversion to rubber tree and teak tree plantations decreased  
294 carbon stocks by 4% ( $\sim 5 \text{ Mg}$ ) and 15% ( $\sim 20 \text{ Mg}$ ), respectively. This is a much more limited  
295 reduction than that reported by van Straaten et al. (2015) who found that conversion of  
296 lowland tropical forest to cash crop plantations (including rubber trees) induced a loss up to  
297 one-half of the SOC, and that layers deeper than 1 m were affected. We also found that forest  
298 conversion to tree plantation did not alter the partitioning of the carbon stock: half being  
299 located in the 0-40 cm and half in the 40-160 cm volume. Our measurements of the impact of

300 rubber tree plantations may be underestimated as the impact of slope cuts made to plant trees,  
301 which likely locally decreased SOC (Bruun et al., 2018), was not taken into account.  
302 Additional investigations should be conducted to assess whether future surveys should  
303 analyze separately cuts and undisturbed slopes.

304

#### 305 *4.2. Soil pH*

306 pH is more sensitive to land use changes than clay for example, but in the absence of large  
307 chemical inputs, it varies slowly, especially in the deepest soil layers. A strongly acidic pH  
308 (4.1 to 4.3) was measured at all depths of the Luang Namtha forested areas which is in  
309 agreement with the characteristics of deeply weathered tropical soils. Such pH values less  
310 than 5.0 are known to induce aluminum toxicity (Kochian, 1995), which in turn can limit  
311 microbial activity and plant development (Fageria and Baligar, 2003). Compared to forest, no  
312 significant change was observed in rubber tree plantations, when in teak tree plantations a  
313 significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) pH increase was measured at 40 cm and deeper layers. This increase was  
314 approximately 0.5 pH unit and could result from soil sampling made at a different period  
315 compared to the forest and rubber tree plantations. The absence of acidification indicates that  
316 tree plantations did not accelerate leaching processes nor nutrient exports (Veldkamp et al.,  
317 2020).

#### 318 *4.3. Soil bulk density*

319 In Luang Namtha, soils under forest or planted trees were characterized by an increase in soil  
320 bulk density with depth: from soil surface to 160 cm, the pore volume decreased by  $\approx 50\%$ .  
321 Such a reduced porosity could be surprising as, at the same time, the clay content increased  
322 by  $\approx 30\%$  and, all other parameters being equal, clay content and porosity are positively



323 correlated as clay is structurally associated with high microporosity (Chaudhari et al. 2013).  
324 Thus, the decrease in the total porosity with depth is necessarily related to a decrease in  
325 macroporosity. This suggests a high and intense biological activity in the upper layers  
326 (macrofaunal and fine root density) and a dramatic decrease of this activity with depth (Lal,  
327 1988). These two characteristics were indeed observed during our field observations and are  
328 consistent with observations made elsewhere (e.g. Nanganoa et al., 2019). Following forest  
329 conversion to rubber tree plantations, soil bulk density was unchanged; but in the case of  
330 conversion to teak tree plantations, soil bulk density increased in the upper layers (0-40 cm).  
331 This lower impact of rubber compared to teak trees may be related to age differences: in the  
332 plots that we studied, rubber trees being approximately 10 years younger than teak trees, a  
333 slow soil collapse due to decreased biological activity may only become detectable after  
334 sufficient time passed by. But it could also result in differences in soil macrofauna activity  
335 and fine roots development, the later being in agreement with reduced SOC content under  
336 teak tree plantations. More compact subsoil layers are generally considered as a hampering  
337 root development but in tropical forest those layers contribute to deep water storage and can  
338 play an important role in maintaining moist conditions in the root zone of the forest trees  
339 (Toriyama et al., 2013). Throughout southeast Asia, planted trees, have been observed to  
340 develop deep root systems in compact subsoils (Clément et al., 2019; Pierret et al., 2016).  
341 However, the dramatic decrease in soil macroporosity that we measured in the top layer has  
342 potential to drastically limit water infiltration and groundwater recharge, while increasing  
343 surface runoff and erosion, as observed in Luang Prabang.

344

#### 345 *4.4. Plant nutrients*

346 Nutrient profiles were similar to SOC profiles, with the highest contents found in the top  
347 layer and a fast decrease with depth. Even in the top layer, nutrient contents were low, in  
348 agreement with very acidic pH values. The most striking impact of tree plantations was the  
349 decrease in N content observed from soil surface to 160 cm depth under rubber tree  
350 plantations and that seems strongly related to nitrogen uptake corresponding to latex  
351 harvesting. At the same time, a significant increase in K was observed under rubber  
352 plantations at 70 and 110 cm, which remains unexplained. The decrease in the K content at  
353 soil surface in the teak plantations is most probably related to a decrease in litter biomass.

354

#### 355 *4.5. Comparison between Luang Natham and Xishuangbanna*

356 Our literature review indicated that soil types similar to those found in Luang Namtha  
357 (ALUPC, 2008) were also present in Xishuangbanna with a higher diversity as Alisols (Wu et  
358 al., 2016), Ferralsols (De Blécourt et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2018; Nespoulos  
359 et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2017) and Cambisols (Zhu et al., 2018, 2019). This similarity suggests  
360 that comparing the two regions is valid, at least in the perspective of a rough, preliminary  
361 assessment. Deeper knowledge of clay mineralogy (in particular the presence of high and low  
362 activity clays) should however be gained for a more detailed comparison, as this is a  
363 parameter known to influence many soil properties and functions (Veldkamp et al., 2020).

364

#### 365 *4.6. Content and stocks of soil organic carbon*

366 In the forested areas of Xishuangbanna (Fig. 1 bottom left, Table S2), the average SOC value  
367 was  $>30 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  and decreased with depth; at 75 cm, values close to 0 were reported. The  
368 average SOC reported in the surface layers was higher than that we measured in Luang

369 Namtha. It is noteworthy that the range of SOC values reported in Xishuangbanna was  
370 considerable: in the topsoil (0-15 cm), the lowest and highest reported SOC were  $<30 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$   
371 (de Blécourt et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2019) and  $>60 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , respectively (de  
372 Blécourt et al., 2017 and Wu et al., (2016). In some cases, such discrepancies may arise from  
373 inconsistent reporting of analytical results, most probably expressed as ‘organic ‘matter’  
374 (SOM), i.e. SOC multiplied by a constant value of approximately 1.7; an hypothesis also  
375 confirmed by the excessively high C/N ratios reported in some papers (Wu et al., 2016).  
376 However, in other cases, SOC values remain surprisingly high, even if this potential reporting  
377 issue is accounted for: SOC of 35 and  $38.6 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  were reported by de Blécourt et al. (2017)  
378 and Wu et al. (2016) respectively, i.e. 50 % higher than values reported by de Blécourt et al.  
379 (2013), Chen et al. (2019), Li et al. (2013) and Li et al. (2015) and nearly 100% higher than  
380 that of Liu et al. (2019). Such a large dispersion within a small region is quite puzzling as all  
381 soils have been similarly classified, and the composition and biomass of the forest trees and  
382 litter should not be significantly different. One possible explanation could be insufficient  
383 replication.

384 The literature about forest conversion to rubber tree plantations in Xishuangbanna does not  
385 indicate any general trend regarding its impact on soil carbon content (Chen et al., 2019; Liu  
386 et al., 2019; Goldberg et al., 2017; Li et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015), highlighting the need to  
387 document soil and environmental conditions as comprehensively as possible to enable  
388 interpretation of conflicting reports.

389 In the forested areas of Xhishuangbanna, Li et al. (2013) reported a stock of  $33 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$  in the  
390 0-20 cm layer, i.e. a lower value than the  $42 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$  we found in Luang Namtha for the same  
391 soil depth range. In Luang Namtha, for the 0-40 cm layer, we found a value of  $\sim 70 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$ ,  
392 comparable to stocks of  $61\text{-}63 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$  in the 0-30 cm layer reported by Li et al. (2015) and  
393 Chen et al. (2019), but lower than values up to  $117 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$  reported by other authors (Yang

394 et al. 2016, De Blécourt et al. 2013, De Blécourt et al. 2017). The wide range of carbon  
395 stocks values reported in Xishuangbanna (61 to 117 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup>), while possibly reflecting  
396 extreme field variability, raises the issue of standardization and homogeneity of field and  
397 laboratory procedures, already pointed out nearly 10 years ago (Yuen et al., 2013) and still  
398 apparently unresolved.

399 A wide range of carbon stock values were also reported for rubber plantations of  
400 Xishuangbanna; the lowest stock being 47 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> (Liu et al, 2018), intermediate stock of  
401 ≈60 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> (De Blécourt et al, 2013, Li et al, 2020; Sun et al, 2017; Yang et al, 2016) and  
402 the highest stock being of 113.9 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> (Li et al, 2015), i.e. over twice the lowest stock.  
403 Only a few papers compared the carbon stocks under forest and tree plantations: some reports  
404 indicate a decrease associated with forest conversion to tree plantation (De Blécourt et al,  
405 2013; Yang et al, 2016), while others did not find any change (Chen et al. (2019), but also  
406 moderate to dramatic stock increases (Li et al., 2013; Li et al, 2015). This review on carbon  
407 stocks conducted in a small region, confirms that consistent conclusions and predictions of  
408 SOC and C stocks require a sufficient number of replicates and should be based on standard  
409 procedures of sampling as well as standard procedures of soil analysis.

410

#### 411 *4.7. Soil pH*

412 In Xishuangbanna, all soil layers under forested areas were strongly acidic with slightly  
413 higher mean values compared to Luang Namtha (pH=4.7 to 4.8). In tree plantations, average  
414 pH slightly increased in deeper layers as was observed in teak tree plantations of Luang  
415 Namtha. It is noteworthy that several surveys reported a pH decrease in the top layer of tree  
416 plantations compared to that in forested areas (Liu et al., 2019; Goldberg et al., 2017; de  
417 Blécourt, 2014, 2017; Wu et al., 2016; Nespoulos et al., 2019; Li et al., 2013), even if they

418 also mentioned a marginal pH increase at depth. Cation lixiviation from soil surface and  
419 accumulation in deeper layers could explain such characteristics. In both Luang Namtha and  
420 Xishuangbanna, pH changes induced by forest conversion to tree plantation appear limited  
421 and, anyway, insufficient to impact soil biological or geochemical functioning.

#### 422 *4.8 Bulk density*

423 Bulk density values from Xishuangbanna forests are presented in [Fig. 3](#) (top left) and [table](#)  
424 [S1](#). It is noteworthy that, in most papers (i) data concerned the topsoil layers (0-20 cm) and  
425 there is a paucity of data below 50 cm, (ii) one or two depth increments only were  
426 investigated and (iii) different numbers of replicates were used to characterize different layers  
427 (Table S2). The linear regression of bulk density vs soil depth indicates that the lowest mean  
428 values are observed at the surface ( $1.05 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ) and increase with depth ( $1.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  at 75 cm).  
429 Even if the general trend is the same as in Lung Namtha, a wider range of values is observed  
430 in each layer, corresponding to three main patterns: (i) loose soil throughout the profile (M  
431 and B), (ii) compact soil throughout the profile (A, E, G and H), and (iii) intermediate bulk  
432 density throughout the profile (C and L). These differences could result from textural  
433 differences between different areas of Xishuangbanna but they could equally result from  
434 different analytical procedures. These large differences observed within a small region  
435 highlight the need for inter-site comparisons to ensure that standard procedures have been  
436 used.

437 In Xishuangbanna, conversion of forested areas to tree plantations increased soil bulk density  
438 in the upper layers (0 to  $\approx 30$  cm) when the subsoil remained unchanged ([Fig. 3](#), top right), i.e.  
439 a trend similar to that observed in Luang Namtha, but with a larger diversity of situations. As  
440 in Luang Namtha, no heavy machinery was used, the increased bulk density following  
441 conversion to tree plantations probably resulted from a significant soil biological activity

442 reduction. A few papers reported lower bulk densities following conversion to tree  
443 plantations (C, E, L down to 20, 15 and 50 cm, respectively). This apparent soil improvement  
444 could result from textural differences, i.e. more clayey horizons in the tree plantation areas  
445 ([Nespoulos et al, 2019](#)).

#### 446 *4.9 Nutrients*

447 In the forested areas of Xishuangbanna, the few reported N contents were either similar ([Zhu](#)  
448 [et al., 2019](#); [Li et al., 2013](#)) or much higher ([Wu et al., 2016](#)) than values we measured in  
449 Luang Namtha. For other elements, comparison between the results in Xishuangbanna and  
450 Luang Namtha were not possible because of the use of variable analytical methods in  
451 different surveys.

452

### 453 **5. Conclusion**

454 Overall, the results of our soil survey in Luang Namtha province, Laos, showed that (i) forest  
455 conversion to tree plantations mostly affected the porosity and carbon content of the topsoil  
456 and (ii) neither rubber nor teak tree plantations resulted in soil acidification. When  
457 considering the full 160 cm depth of the soil profiles, the decrease in carbon stocks compared  
458 to forest was lower in the rubber compared to the teak tree plantations: 4% ( $\approx 5$  Mg) and 15%  
459 ( $\approx 20$  Mg), respectively. Additionally, under rubber plantations, N was depleted throughout  
460 the whole soil profile (0-160 cm).

461 Our review of recent soil surveys in Xishuangbanna did not allow us to generalize our results:  
462 while general trends for some properties were similar in the two regions, published  
463 observations proved very diverse, difficult to compare and often contradictory; subsoil  
464 properties were rarely reported. Further studies on soil degradation in this area should

465 therefore (i) be based on more standardized procedures (survey design, sampling depth,  
466 analytical methods, statistical analysis, etc..) , (ii) take into account pedo-geomorphological  
467 parameters that can have substantial impact on conclusions (clay content and type).

468 The limited level of soil degradation that we observed might be related to the fact that soils of  
469 the studied area are naturally very acidic, nutrient-depleted with a compact subsoil (i.e. with  
470 very few, if any, macropores). Our work is also indicative that time-scales to be considered to  
471 be able to detect changes in subsoil properties induced by land use change may be more than  
472 one or two decades. Nevertheless, the fact that we found that the most consistently  
473 predictable change in soil properties associated with forest conversion to tree plantations is,  
474 in the short term, topsoil compaction, is in itself valuable with regards to soil management  
475 practices. Indeed, such topsoil compaction is known to have major impacts on water balance  
476 and soil erosion, through decreased infiltration and increased runoff. Therefore, when  
477 converting forest to tree plantations, implementing practices that maintain topsoil porosity,  
478 such as, e.g. conserving a densely rooted and diverse understory and a healthy soil  
479 macrofauna, by means of agroforestry / intercropping designs, appears essential and were  
480 also strongly supported by several experiments recently conducted in Xishuangbanna.

481

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483 The authors declare they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
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673 **Tables captions**

674 **Table 1.** Location of the 4 sites and description of their position, main environmental characteristics  
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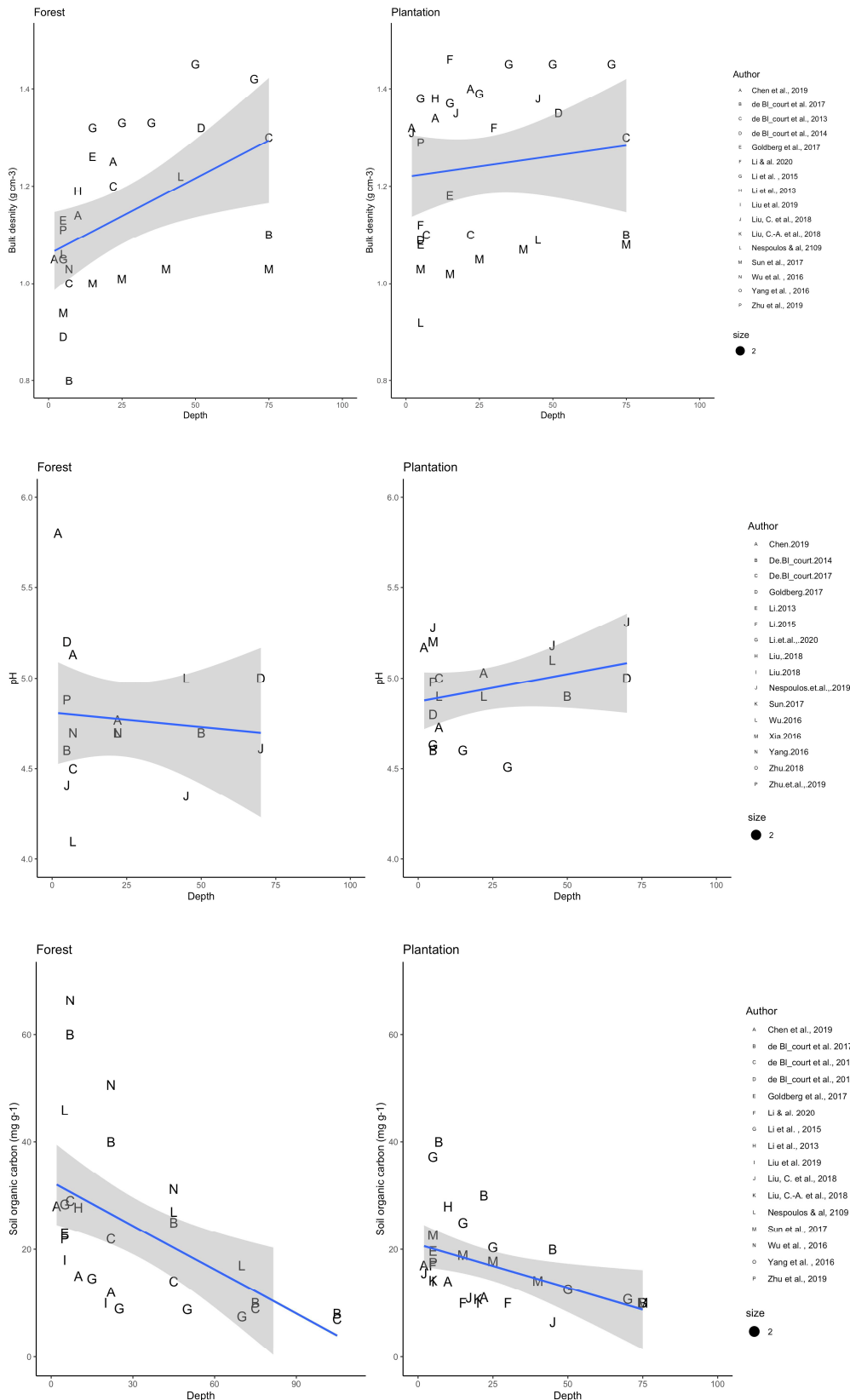
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681

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683 **Fig. 1.** Xishuangbanna region soil properties: bulk density (top), pH (middle) and organic carbon  
684 content (bottom) at different depths, under forest (left) and tree plantations (right) in 16 recently  
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**Fig. 1.** Xishuangbanna region soil properties: bulk density (top), pH (middle) and organic carbon content (bottom) at different depths, under forest (left) and tree plantations (right) in 16 recently published papers. The letter indicates the publication from which the data are coming from; the straight line is an estimate of the average trend (linear model) and the grey area represents the limit of confidence interval.

**Table 1.** Location of the 4 sites and description of their position, main environmental characteristics and number of replicates for each of the 3 land cover (forest, rubber and teak tree plantations).

Sites	Village	Dist.* (km)	Dir.*	Soil type**	Slope (%)			Number of replicates		
					Forest	Rubber	Teak	Forest	Rubber	Teak
A	Phinhor	7	NW	Acrisols	74	77	20	6	9	4
B	Namdee	3	N	Alisols	64	65	16	3	3	4
C	Chalernsouk	12	W	Alisols	67	68	25	3	3	4
D	Sopsim	15	E	Acrisols	51	50	27	4	3	4

\* Dist. : distance from the city of Luang Namtha until the village

\*\* Soil type as indicated on Lao soil map

**Table 2.** Soil physical properties at 6 various depths and under forest, rubber tree and teak tree plantations in Luang Namtha district (Lao PDR).

Depth (cm)	Clay (%)			Silt (%)			Sand (%)			BD (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )			Pore (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )		WC (g g <sup>-1</sup> )			
	av	sd	cv(%)	av	sd	cv(%)	av	sd	av	sd	av		sd	av	sd			
Forest	10	28	6	21	24	4	19	49	9	19	0.99	0.22	b	0.68	0.22	a	0.35	0.08
	20	33	8	24	22	4	20	45	11	23	1.11	0.17	b	0.54	0.13	a	0.30	0.06
	40	37	7	19	20	4	17	42	9	22	1.34	0.15	b	0.38	0.08	a	0.26	0.05
	70	40	8	19	18	4	21	42	11	25	1.44	0.13		0.32	0.06		0.25	0.06
	110	40	10	25	16	4	25	43	11	26	1.43	0.09		0.32	0.04		0.24	0.06
	160	36	12	35	16	4	26	48	14	30	-	-		*	*		0.20	0.06
Rubber	10	31	8	25	19	4	21	50	8	15	1.09	0.11	b	0.55	0.09	a	0.42	0.06
	20	36	9	24	18	4	25	46	7	16	1.21	0.11	b	0.45	0.07	a	0.34	0.05
	40	42	9	21	17	5	28	41	9	23	1.35	0.09	b	0.37	0.05	a	0.31	0.03
	70	45	10	22	16	4	25	40	9	23	1.41	0.07		0.33	0.03		0.30	0.03
	110	45	10	23	15	5	35	40	11	27	1.42	0.04		0.33	0.02		0.29	0.03
	160	41	13	32	15	3	24	44	13	29	-	-		-	-		0.26	0.05
Teack	10	34	15	45	28	5	17	38	17	44	1.29	0.12	a	0.41	0.07	b	0.32	0.06
	20	38	16	43	26	3	12	36	17	48	1.35	0.12	a	0.36	0.06	b	0.27	0.04
	40	40	19	46	22	3	13	35	18	52	1.43	0.04	a	0.32	0.02	b	0.26	0.05
	70	44	19	44	22	3	12	32	19	59	1.45	0.15		0.32	0.07		0.26	0.08
	110	43	19	44	23	6	24	34	19	55	1.47	0.19		0.31	0.09		0.26	0.07
	160	40	17	43	22	6	29	38	18	48	-	-		-	-		0.23	0.05

av is the mean value, sd the standard deviation, cv(%) is the coefficient of variation in percentage, n the number of replicates was presented in Table 1. Different letters along the same column and at the same depth, indicate significant differences (P<0.05).

**Table 3.** Soil chemical and physico-chemical properties at 6 various depths and under forest, rubber tree and teak tree plantations in Luang Namtha district (Lao PDR).

	Depth (cm)	pH (1:2.5)		av	sd	a	SOC (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )		av	sd	a	C/N	P (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )		av	sd	a	Ca (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )		av	sd	b
		av	sd				av	sd					av	sd				av	sd			
Forest	10	4.34	0.61	ab	21.4	8.9	a	1.7	0.6	a	13	9.0	3.7	108	52	a	17	9	b			
	20	4.33	0.48	ab	12.5	4.2		1.2	0.3	a	10	4.6	2.1	65	29		11	7	b			
	40	4.09	0.1	b	8.2	2.3	a	0.9	0.2	a	9	2.3	0.7	52	29		6	3	b			
	70	4.11	0.07	b	5.2	2.3		0.7	0.2	a	7	0.7	0.5	36	15	b	6	2				
	110	4.15	0.1	b	3.6	1.6		0.4	0.1	a	9	0.7	0.3	31	11	b	11	8				
	160	4.31	0.12	b	2.8	1.2		0.5	0.2	a	6	0.7	0.4	40	26		17	16				
Rubber	10	4.16	0.07	b	16.4	2.2	b	1.2	0.3	b	14	6.6	3.5	87	20	ab	12	5	b			
	20	4.14	0.12	b	11.8	2.2		0.8	0.2	b	15	4.2	2.3	79	23		6	3	b			
	40	4.14	0.11	b	8.0	1.4	a	0.5	0.2	b	16	1.6	0.8	68	16		6	3	b			
	70	4.18	0.15	b	5.1	1.3		0.4	0.2	b	13	1.0	0.7	63	21	a	6	1				
	110	4.26	0.17	b	3.7	1.2		0.4	0.1	b	9	0.9	0.4	57	20	a	6	2				
	160	4.29	0.37	b	2.4	1.1		0.3	0.2	b	8	0.7	0.2	51	18		7	2				
Teak	10	4.49	0.24	a	13.5	2.9	b	1.4	0.4	ab	10	6.8	1.7	69	33	b	47	37	a			
	20	4.48	0.45	a	10.7	2.0		1.0	0.3	ab	11	4.6	1.6	57	31		29	22	a			
	40	4.45	0.43	a	5.4	2.8	b	0.7	0.3	a	8	2.4	1.3	39	16		13	9	a			
	70	4.5	0.46	a	3.8	2.1		0.6	0.2	ab	6	1.7	1.3	39	15	ab	9	7				
	110	4.66	0.59	a	3.3	1.9		0.3	0.1	a	11	2.0	1.8	49	24	ab	13	12				
	160	4.83	0.69	a	2.7	1.5		0.3	0.1	a	9	1.5	1.0	34	10		9	7				

SOC is soil organic carbon.

av is the mean value, sd the standard deviation, cv(%) is the coefficient of variation in percentage, n the number of replicates was presented in Table 1.

Different letters along the same column and at the same depth, indicate significant differences (P<0.05).

**Table 4.** Profiles of soil carbon stocks under forest, rubber and teak tree plantations.

Depth (cm)	Thickness (cm)	Forest			Rubber			Teak		
		per layer	cumul.	ratio	per layer	cumul.	ratio	per layer	cumul.	ratio
10	0.10	21.2	21.2	0.16	17.9	17.9	0.14	17.4	17.4	0.16
20	0.15	20.8	42.0	0.32	21.4	39.3	0.31	21.7	39.1	0.35
40	0.25	27.5	69.5	0.53	27.0	66.3	0.53	19.3	58.4	0.52
70	0.35	26.2	95.7	0.73	25.2	91.5	0.73	19.3	77.7	0.70
110	0.45	23.2	118.8	0.91	23.6	115.1	0.92	21.8	99.5	0.89
160	0.30	12.0	130.9	1.00	10.2	125.3	1.00	11.9	111.4	1.00

'per layer' indicates the stock for the layer of the thickness indicated in the second column; 'cumul.' is for the cumulated stock from the soil surface to the depth indicated in the first column; 'ratio' is for the ration between the cumulated value and the total carbon stock from soil surface to 160 cm depth.