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2 Intermediate grazing intensities by sheep increase soil bacterial diversities

3 in an Inner Mongolian steppe

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11

12 **Abstract** Ungulate grazing is known to play a crucial role in regulating nutrient cycling and
13 controlling plant community structure and productivity in grassland ecosystems. However, little is
14 known about the effects of grazing intensities on soil bacterial community structure and diversity,
15 particularly at the long-term scale. In this study, we measured plant biomass and diversity, soil
16 characteristics and bacterial community structure and diversity in a 16-year field experiment that
17 had four grazing intensity treatments (non-grazed, CK; low-intensity grazing (LG),
18 moderate-intensity grazing (MG) and high-intensity grazing (HG)) in an Inner Mongolian typical
19 grassland. The CK, LG, MG and HG sites were grazed by 0.00, 1.33, 4.00 and 6.67 sheep ha⁻¹,
20 respectively. Bacterial community structure and diversity under grazing intensity treatments were
21 assessed with PCR amplification of DNAs extracted from soils and denaturing gradient gel
22 electrophoresis (DGGE) separation. The results showed that the CK soil had higher moisture,
23 organic C, NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentrations than grazed soils, and the HG treatment had the
24 lowest plant biomass and diversity across all the treatments. Principal components analysis of
25 DGGE patterns showed that the LG and MG treatments were different from the CK and HG
26 treatments. In addition, soil bacterial diversities in the LG and MG treatments were significantly
27 higher than those in the other treatments. The relationships between environmental variables and
28 soil bacterial community structure were assessed using redundancy analysis and we found that soil

29 moisture content, *Artimesia frigida* biomass and pH were the best indicator of the changes in soil
30 bacterial community structure among all the treatments. Overall, our results indicated that
31 intermediate grazing intensities (LG and MG) increased soil bacterial diversities and along with
32 previous studies in this area, we suggested the MG treatment was the most suitable management
33 practice in the Inner Mongolian steppe, not only supporting greater livestock amounts but also
34 harboring greater bacterial diversity.

35

36 **Keywords** plant biomass · plant diversity · grazing intensity · bacteria · community structure · Inner
37 Mongolia · grassland

38

39 **Introduction**

40

41 Soil microorganisms represent the world's largest reservoir of biological diversity with enormous
42 diversities of 16S rRNA gene sequences amplified from soil DNA and RNA (McCaig et al. 1999;
43 Sun et al. 2004). Numerous studies have characterized soil bacterial communities, attempting to
44 draw links between plants and below-ground bacterial diversity. A number of factors were found to
45 influence soil microbial community composition and diversity and these factors included plant
46 species (Miethling et al. 2003; Smalla et al. 2001), soil organic C content and soil C:N ratio
47 (Wieland et al. 2001; Graham and Haynes 2005). Previous studies have focused on the effects of
48 plant communities on soil bacterial community structure and diversity in the rhizosphere of
49 grasslands (e.g., Kowalchuk et al. 2002; McCaig et al. 1999, 2001). However, little has been known
50 about the effects of grazing intensities on soil bacterial community structure and diversity at the
51 long-term.

52 The Inner Mongolia steppe is an important, representative part of the Eurasian grasslands which
53 are the largest contiguous grassland area in the world (Bai et al. 2004). Grazing is one of the most
54 important land-uses on the Inner Mongolia steppe and has been so far for thousands of years. The
55 effects of different grazing intensities on the plant community structure and productivity have been
56 documented in this area (Chen and Wang 2000). However, only a few studies have investigated the
57 effects of different grazing intensities on the culturable bacterial community composition (Liu and

58 Liao 1997).

59 It was well established that plate count cannot be used to study the community composition of
60 soil microbes since the majority of soil microorganisms are not culturable (Amann et al. 1995).
61 Molecular techniques have circumvented this problem (Muyzer et al. 1993). Usually these
62 techniques are based on the extraction of genomic DNA from soil, followed by the PCR
63 amplification of 16S rRNA genes and separation of amplicons with procedures such as denaturing
64 gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE). DGGE analysis of bacterial community structure has been
65 widely applied to grassland soils (Kowalchuk et al. 2002; McCaig et al. 1999; Nunan et al. 2005).

66 The main objectives of this study were to (1) investigate the effects of different grazing
67 intensities on the plant community structure and diversity, soil characteristics and associated
68 bacterial community structure and diversity using PCR-DGGE, (2) quantify the relationships
69 between environmental variables and community composition of bacteria in soil, and (3) determine
70 which grazing intensities were more suitable for local grazing management in the Inner Mongolian
71 steppe.

72

73 **Materials and methods**

74

75 Site description

76

77 The experiment was conducted within the grazing enclosures of the Inner Mongolia Grassland
78 Ecosystem Research Station of Chinese Academy of Sciences, located in the central part of Inner
79 Mongolia Autonomous Region. The latitude of the experimental site is 43°50'N and the longitude is
80 116°34'E, with an average elevation of 1,100 m above sea level. The climate is temperate and
81 semi-arid with cold, dry winters and mild, wet summers. The mean annual temperature is -0.4 °C
82 with mean monthly temperatures ranging from 17.9 °C in July to -23 °C in January. The mean
83 annual precipitation is 350 mm with most rain events occurring in July and August. Prior to the
84 experimental design, *Artemisia frigida*, a native grass, was dominant plant species. Vegetation
85 within the experimental plots is dominated by *Artemisia frigida*, *Kochia prostrate* and *Potentilla*
86 *acaulis*. Soils are coarse textured with a mean of 71% sand, 15% silt, and 9% clay across all

87 experimental plots (Chen and Wang 2000; Xu et al. 2007).

88 Grazing management experimental plots were established in 1989 using a randomized complete
89 block design with six grazing intensities (0.00, 1.33, 2.33, 4.00, 5.33, 6.67 sheep ha⁻¹) with three
90 replicates (Chen and Wang 2000). The plant biomass and soil properties (soil texture, structure and
91 chemical characteristics) were relatively uniform among all experimental plots before the initiation
92 of the grazing treatments. The grazing intensity treatments were maintained for 16 years from 1989
93 to 2004, at which point samples were obtained from this study. There were 0, 4, 8, 12, 16 and 20
94 Inner Mongolia fine wool sheep grazing rotationally in three replicated 1-ha plots, representing the
95 grazing intensities of 0, 1.33, 2.67, 4.00, 5.33 and 6.67 sheep ha⁻¹, respectively. Four grazing
96 intensity were examined in this study: non-grazed (CK; 0 sheep ha⁻¹), light-grazing intensity (LG;
97 1.33 sheep ha⁻¹); moderate-grazing intensity (MG; 4.00 sheep ha⁻¹) and heavy-grazing intensity (HG;
98 6.67 sheep ha⁻¹) (Zhou et al. 2008a). Every year, grazing started on May 20th and ended on October
99 5th. Each plot was rotationally grazed three times per year, each time for 15 days with a rotation
100 interval of 30 days. The total grazing period of each grazed plot was thus 45 days per year. During
101 grazing periods, the sheep were driven to the enclosures at 5:00 am and back home at 8:00 pm. The
102 sheep drank water twice daily from the nearby Xilin River, once before being driven to the
103 enclosures and once after being driven out of the enclosures. No fertilizer was used in any
104 treatment.

105

106 Soil sampling and plant aboveground biomass and diversity

107

108 Within each replicated plot, five 1×1 m quadrats were randomly selected in early August 2004 and
109 aboveground vegetation was clipped at ground level to determine plant community composition and
110 diversity. Within each quadrat, five soil cores were taken at a depth of 0 to 10 cm with a 3 cm
111 diameter auger. All soil cores were hand-sorted to remove stones and coarse root, cooled on ice in
112 the field and transported into the laboratory. After sieving (2 mm), 25 soil cores within each plot
113 were combined to form a single sample. All the samples were stored at 4 °C and soil characteristics
114 were determined within two weeks. For plant biomass and diversity measurements, the plant
115 samples were separated into different species and the weight of each species was determined prior

116 to oven-drying at 65 °C for 48 h (Chen and Wang 2000).

117

118 Measurement of environmental factors

119

120 Water content of the composite sample from each plot was determined gravimetrically by
121 oven-drying at 105 °C for 24 h. Air-dried soil samples were used for measuring pH, organic C
122 content and organic N content. The pH values were determined in water suspension
123 (water/soil=2.5:1). Soil organic C contents were analyzed using a H₂SO₄-K₂Cr₂O₇ oxidation method
124 (Nelson and Sommers 1982). Soil organic N contents were measured using the Kjeldahl digestion
125 method (Kjektec System 1026 Distilling Unit, Sweden). A 5 g subsample from each composite
126 sample was extracted with 30 ml of 2 M KCl on an end-to-end shaker for 1 h. The soil suspension
127 was filtered through a Whatman no. 42 filter paper and the filtrate analyzed for NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻N
128 on a flow injection auto-analyzer (FIAstar 5000 Analyzer, Foss Tecator, Denmark).

129

130

131 Extraction and PCR amplification of total DNA from soil

132

133 Nucleic acids were extracted and purified from 0.5g aliquots of each composite sample following
134 the procedures described in Zhou et al. (2008b). Briefly, soil was placed in a 2 ml screw-cap tube
135 containing a mixture of ceramic and silica particles (Bio101, Carlsbad, Calif.); the mixture was
136 homogenized for 30 s in a FastPrep bead beater cell disrupter (Bio101). The nucleic acids were then
137 precipitated and washed twice in 75% (v/v) ethanol, and the final DNA was re-suspended in 100 µl
138 TE buffer. The crude extracts were purified with Qiagen gel extraction Kit (Qiagen, Inc.) and DNA
139 concentrations were determined by nucleic acid analysis (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan).

140 PCR amplifications of bacterial 16S rRNA were carried out using the primers P338F (5'
141 ACTTCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG 3') with 40 GC clamps and P518R (5' ATTAC CGCGG CTGCT
142 GG) (Muyzer et al. 1993). Amplification was performed in a 25µl (total volume) reaction mixture.
143 The final concentration of different components in the mixture was as follows: ~ 50ng of purified
144 DNA, 0.4 µM of each primer, 200 µM of each deoxynucleoside triphosphate, 1.5 µM MgCl₂, 1×

145 thermophilic DNA polymerase 10×reaction buffer (MgCl₂-free), 1.25U per 50 μl of Taq DNA
146 polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), and DNase and RNase free filter sterilized water
147 (LiYuan Apparatus Com., Beijing, China). The reaction was performed in a PTC-200 thermal cyclor
148 (MJ Research Com., USA) using 35 cycles consisting of 94 °C for 1 min, 56 °C for 1 min, and
149 72 °C for 1 min and a final extension step consisting of 72 °C for 10 min. After each PCR, the size
150 of the amplification products was verified on a 1.2% agarose gel.

151

152 DGGE analysis

153

154 DGGE analysis was performed using a Dcode system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA; Muyzer et al.
155 1993). Polyacrylamide gels (8% acrylamide, 0.5 × TAE (20mM Tris, 20 mM acetate, 1mM EDTA
156 [pH 8.0]), 37:1 acrylamide: bisacrylamide) were cast using 40-60% denaturant; 100% denaturant
157 was defined as 7M urea with 40% (vol/vol) formamide. Electrophoresis was run overnight for 12 h
158 at a constant temperature of 60°C at 110 V. After electrophoresis, the gels were soaked in SYBR
159 green II nucleic acid gel stain (1:10000 dilution; FMC Bioproducts, Rockland, ME, USA) for 30
160 min. The stained gels were immediately photographed on a UV trans-illumination table with a
161 Hewlett Packard Scanjet 5370C. The DGGE patterns were determined using the Labworks software
162 (Labworks TM software version 4.0. UVP, UK). Band intensities of each lane were read based on
163 peak heights in the densitometric curve. The Shannon index of general diversity (H) was used to
164 measure the bacterial and plant diversity (Dengen et al. 2000); H was calculated based on the band
165 intensity in the gel lanes as follows: $H = -\sum(n_i/N)\log(n_i/N)$, where n_i is the height of the peak and N
166 the sum of all peak heights of the densitometric curve. Evenness (E) was calculated by the equation
167 of $E=H/H_{\max}$, where H_{\max} was the largest H within a special sample (Dengen et al. 2000).

168

169 Cloning and sequencing analysis

170

171 The specific bands of the DGGE pattern were excised from the gel and re-amplified with the same
172 reaction procedure described above. The PCR products were excised from an agarose gel, purified
173 with Qiagen gel extraction kit (Qiagen Inc.) to remove primers and short oligonucleotides and then

174 cloned into plasmids with a pGEM-T easy vector kit (Promega). Plasmid DNAs were isolated from
175 randomly selected clones and screened for inserts of the expected sizes. Following confirmation of
176 their DGGE positions under the conditions described before, the plasmid DNAs were sequenced
177 with primers (T7/sp6 forward/reverse) on an ABI PRISM 3700 DNA analyzer (ABI Biosystems,
178 Inc.). The identities of the 16S rRNA gene sequences were confirmed by searching the international
179 sequence NCBI database using the BLAST programs (Zhou et al. 2008b).

180

181 Statistical analysis

182

183 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to determine the effect of grazing intensities
184 on the soil physical and chemical properties as well as on the plant biomass and diversity. Means
185 and least significant differences were calculated at the 5% level. For DGGE patterns of soil bacteria,
186 principal components analysis (PCA) was carried out with a correlation similarity matrix. All
187 ANOVA, PCA and regression analyses were performed using SPSS 12.0 software (SPSS Inc.,
188 USA).

189 Redundancy analysis (RDA) was used to study the relationships between environmental variables
190 (soil properties and plant biomass and diversity) and bacterial community structure based on DGGE
191 profiles. Data was analyzed by detrended correspondence analysis using Canoco Software 4.5
192 (Microcomputer Power, USA), which revealed that the data exhibited a linear, rather than unimodal,
193 response to the environmental variables. Redundancy analysis of the DGGE profiles in all the
194 treatments were related to environmental variables by selecting the linear combination of
195 environmental variables that gave the smallest residual sum of squares (Kennedy et al. 2004).

196

197 Nucleotide sequence accession numbers

198

199 Three nucleotide sequences obtained in this study were sent to NCBI database. The accession
200 numbers for the excised band sequence are DQ420618 to DQ420620.

201

202 **Results**

203

204 Soil characteristics and plant biomass and diversity

205

206 The CK soil had significantly higher moisture, organic C, NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N concentrations than
207 the grazed soils (Table 1), while the MG soil had the highest pH. There were no significant
208 differences in the soil organic N contents among all the treatments.

209 The dominant species, plant biomass and diversity index are shown in Table 2. The CK site was
210 dominated by *Leymus chinensis*, *Artemisia frigida* and *Potentilla acaulis*, whereas, the grazing sites
211 were dominated by *Artemisia frigida*, *Kochia prostrate* and *Carex duriuscula*. The plant biomass
212 and diversity in the HG treatment were significantly lower than those in the other treatments.

213

214 PCR-DGGE analysis of bacterial community

215

216 Before PCR-DGGE analysis, DNA yields after extraction were examined and no significant
217 differences were found among all the treatments. DGGE patterns of soil bacterial community under
218 different grazing intensities are shown in Fig. 1. A great number of bands in DGGE patterns were
219 detected and there were also many bands forming a smear, probably due to the abundant bacterial
220 species present in the grassland soils. Clear differences were observed across sites with many bands
221 absent in the CK and HG soils and some bands present in the LG and MG soils. To identify the
222 specific dominant bacterial species in the DGGE pattern under different grazing intensities, three
223 main bands were excised from the gel (Fig. 1), re-amplified and sequenced. The sequences of bands
224 1, 2 and 3 showed 98% similarity to *Intestinal bacterium D22* (AY374116), 97% to *Uncultured*
225 *Acidobacteria bacteria* (AKYH520) and 98% to *Bosea minatitlanensis* (AF273081), respectively.
226 These sequences fell into subtaxa of *Gamma-proteobacteria*, *Acidobacteria* and
227 *Alpha-proteobacteria*, respectively.

228 The bacterial community structure among all the treatments was analyzed by PCA (Fig. 2). The
229 PC1 and PC2 explained 49.68% and 13.16% of the variance of the data, respectively. The LG and
230 MG soils differed from the CK and HG soils with high ordinate scores on the PC1. There was a
231 clear separation between the CK and HG soils along the PC2. The LG and MG soils had higher
232 bacterial diversities and Evenness than the CK and HG soils (Table 3).

233

234 Relationships between environmental variables and bacterial community structure

235

236 The relationships between environmental variables and soil bacterial community composition are
237 shown in Fig. 3. Eigenvalues of RDA indicated that axes 1 and 2 explained 0.21 and 0.19 of the
238 overall variance within the soil bacterial community in all the treatments, respectively.
239 Species-environment correlation for both axes was 0.98, indicating that soil bacterial community
240 composition was strongly correlated with environmental parameters. The plot can be interpreted
241 quantitatively by noting that the length of an arrow indicates how much variance is explained by
242 that factor. The direction of arrows for each environmental variable indicates an increasing
243 concentration of that variable (the longer the arrow, the stronger the relationship; Kennedy et al.
244 2004). The arrows for soil moisture content, *A. frigida* biomass and pH were longer than those of
245 the other variables, indicating that these factors accounted for the greatest proportion of variance in
246 the soil bacterial community composition. The patterns of soil bacterial community structure in the
247 treatments with approximately the same direction as the environmental variable arrow indicate a
248 high positive correlation. The patterns of community composition of bacteria in the CK and HG
249 treatments showed a positive relationship with soil moisture and organic C contents, while those in
250 the LG and MG treatments were positively influenced by *A. frigida* biomass and pH, followed by
251 soil organic N contents. Ammonium-N and NO_3^- -N concentrations, and plant biomass and diversity
252 contributed to some extent to the changes in community composition of bacteria under different
253 grazing intensity treatments.

254

255 **Discussion**

256

257 Effects of grazing intensities on the bacterial community structure

258

259 Grazing represents the most important land-use in the Inner Mongolian steppe and can determine
260 the grassland productivity and lifestyles of local residents (Chen and Wang 2000). The decrease in
261 plant biomass along the grazing gradient is consistent with a previous study (Chen and Wang 2000).

262 In addition, there were considerable changes in dominant plant species with the increasing grazing
263 intensities (Table 2). It has been shown that plant species had a major selective influence on the soil
264 bacterial community of their rhizosphere (Smalla et al. 2001), which could result in the differences
265 in the soil bacterial community. In this study, we found that intermediate grazing intensity
266 treatments (LG and MG) considerably changed soil bacterial community structure and significantly
267 increased bacterial diversities as compared to the CK and HG treatments (Fig. 2 and Table 3). Our
268 results were in contrast to what reported by McCaig et al. (1999, 2001) and Clegg (2006), who have
269 conducted their studies in the unimproved and improved grassland ecosystems in England and
270 reported that there were no significant differences in soil bacterial diversity between both
271 ecosystems using the methods of DGGE and clone library. However, Grayston et al. (2004) found
272 that the improved grassland soil had greater functional diversity than the unimproved grassland soil
273 using Biolog method.

274 These large variations of bacterial diversity in grazed and non-grazed treatments could be
275 attributed to grazing intensity. In fact, grazing by ungulate animal affects soil bacterial diversity
276 through various factors such as faecal and urine deposition (Ritz et al. 2004), shifts in rhizosphere
277 exudation (Guitian and Bardgett 2000), shifts in aboveground plant community composition
278 (Dorrough et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2001) and changes in soil texture and permeability (Jia et al.
279 1997). These factors could exert a direct or indirect influence on soil bacterial community
280 composition and diversity (Nunan et al. 2005). In general, intermediate grazing intensities will
281 negligibly affect or even benefit grassland ecosystems in terms of dry matter production, nutrient
282 cycling and C and N storage, possibly due to increased nutrient availability and facilitated
283 vegetation regeneration (Han et al. 2008). Previous studies revealed that intermediate grazing
284 intensities increased plant productivity (plant biomass + biomass removal by grazing) (Chen and
285 Wang 2000) and stimulated the cumulative net N mineralization, nitrification and ammonification
286 (Xu et al. 2007) and potential denitrification (Brůček et al. 2009), which might support higher soil
287 bacterial diversities. However, it has been shown that long-term heavy grazing significantly
288 decreased the storage of soil C and N and caused grassland degradation (Cui et al. 2005; Han et al.
289 2008; Steffens et al. 2008), which might result in a decrease in bacterial diversity. Along with
290 previous studies at the same experimental site (Chen and Wang 2000; Xu et al. 2007), we suggested
291 that the MG treatment was the most suitable management practice in this area, not only supporting

292 greater livestock amounts and rapid N cycling but also harboring greater soil bacterial diversity.

293

294 What was driving changes in bacterial community structure?

295

296 The RDA can be a suitable method for quantifying the relationships between environmental
297 variables and changes in soil bacterial community structure (Kennedy et al. 2004; Macdonald et al.
298 2009), aiming to determine the main factors affecting soil bacterial community structure among all
299 the treatments. It has been shown that the soil microbial community were predominately affected by
300 abiotic environmental factors, such as soil moisture content (McDonald et al. 2009), pH (Fierer et al.
301 2009), soil organic C content (Degens et al. 2000), and C:N ratio (Graham and Haynes 2005).

302 In grassland soils, Kowalchuk et al. (2002) found that soil bacterial community was driven by
303 plant community composition and diversity. On the contrary, Nunan et al. (2005) reported that soil
304 bacterial community structure in the natural grassland soil was subject to a wide range influences
305 such as plant species, plant community composition and soil characteristics, and so on, none of
306 which was found to be dominant. In this study, we found that soil moisture content, *A. frigida*
307 biomass and pH were the best indicators of the changes in soil bacterial community structure under
308 grazing intensity treatments. The *A. frigida* biomass contributed more to the changes in bacterial
309 community structure compared to overall plant biomass and diversity. This result indicated that
310 keystone plant species had a more important influence on bacterial community structure than plant
311 biomass and diversity. The patterns of soil bacterial community structure in the LG and MG
312 treatments were positively influenced by *A. frigida* biomass and pH (Fig. 3). The *A. frigida* species
313 in the LG and MG treatments could affect soil bacterial communities through increasing root
314 exudation, possibly due to the stimulation by intermediate grazing (Chen and Wang 2000).

315

316 Conclusions

317

318 In summary, grazing intensities over long-term periods (ca. 16 years) greatly influenced soil
319 bacterial community structure and diversity. The non-grazed treatment had higher soil moisture,
320 organic C, NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N concentrations in comparison to the different grazing intensity
321 treatments. Among the grazing intensity treatments, the HG treatment had the lowest plant biomass

322 and diversity. Intermediate grazing intensity treatments (LG and MG sites) considerably changed
323 soil bacterial community structure and significantly increased bacterial diversities as compared to
324 the CK and HG treatments. The relationships between environmental variables and soil bacterial
325 community structure were analyzed using RDA and we found that soil moisture content, *A. frigida*
326 biomass and pH were the best indicators of the changes in soil bacterial community structure among
327 all the treatments. Overall, our results indicated that intermediate grazing intensities (LG and MG)
328 increased soil bacterial diversities and along with previous studies in this area, we suggest the MG
329 treatment is the most suitable management practice in the Inner Mongolian steppe, not only
330 supporting greater livestock amounts and rapid N cycling but also harboring greater soil bacterial
331 diversity.

332

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337

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339

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Table 1 Soil properties under different grazing intensity treatments in the Inner Mongolia steppe.

Treatment	Soil moisture (%)	pH	soil organic C (g kg ⁻¹)	NH ₄ ⁺ -N (μg g ⁻¹)	NO ₃ ⁻ -N(μg g ⁻¹)	soil organic N (g kg ⁻¹)
CK	18.7±0.05a	6.65±0.02b	1.79±0.02a	4.34±0.07a	3.10±0.06a	0.71±0.05
LG	11.16±0.04b	6.65±0.03b	1.47±0.02b	3.33±0.02b	1.84±0.09b	0.69±0.05
MG	12.13±0.07b	6.73±0.02a	1.47±0.05b	3.34±0.03b	1.34±0.03b	0.66±0.08
HG	12.65±0.09b	6.58±0.04b	1.56±0.03b	3.25±0.08b	0.89±0.05c	0.55±0.09

CK, non-grazed; LG, low-intensity grazing; MG, moderate-intensity grazing; HG, heavy-intensity grazing. The CK, LG, MG and HG sites were grazed by 0.00, 1.33, 4.00 and 6.67sheep ha⁻¹, respectively. Each plot was rotationally grazed three times per year, each time for 15 days with a rotation interval of 30 days.

Each value represents the mean with standard errors (n=3).

Different letters within columns showed significant differences at P<0.05.

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Table 2 Dominant species, total aboveground biomass and plant diversity Shannon index (H) under different grazing intensity treatments.

treatment		CK	LG	MG	HG
Dominant species	<i>Artemisia frigida</i>	27.5±0.3c	36.5±0.2b	49.1±0.5a	12.1±0.6d
aboveground biomass (g m ⁻²)	<i>Kochia prostrata</i>		14.2±2.92b	21.1±1.8a	12.6±3.3b
	<i>Potentilla acaulis</i>	19.9±2.8b			29.5±2.1a
	<i>Leymus chinensis</i>	44.4±2.3			
	<i>Carex duriuscula</i>		16.6±5.49	23.7±6.09	
	Total aboveground biomass (g m ⁻²)		127.1±12.9a	98.3±12.1a	102.1±13.2a
Plant community Shannon diversity H		1.48±0.11a	1.33±0.07a	1.23±0.12ab	1.10±0.06b

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CK, non-grazed; LG, low-intensity grazing; MG, moderate-intensity grazing; HG, heavy-intensity grazing.

Each value represents the mean with standard errors (n=3).

Different letters within rows showed significant differences at P<0.05.

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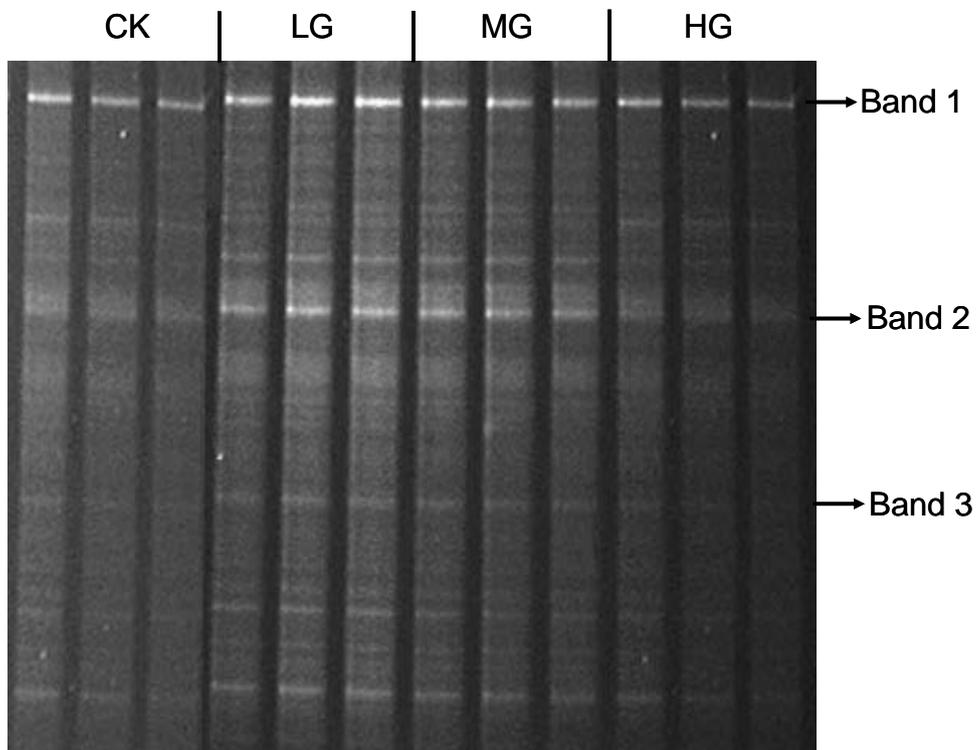


Fig. 1 DGGE patterns of soil bacterial community under different grazing intensity treatments. Bands 1, 2 and 3 were excised from the gel and were further sequenced to indentify the specific bacterial taxon. CK, non-grazed; LG, low-intensity grazing; MG, moderate-intensity grazing; HG, heavy-intensity grazing.

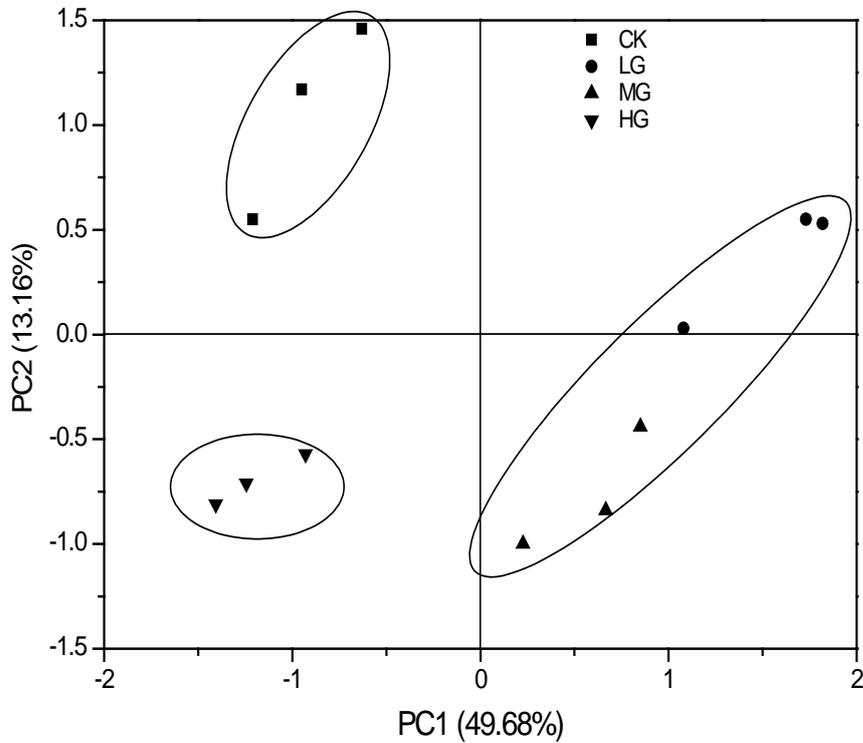


Fig. 2 Ordination plot of principal components analysis (PCA) of DGGE patterns in soils under different grazing intensity treatments. Numbers in parenthesis are percentage variance by each principal component (PC). CK, non-grazed; LG, low-intensity grazing; MG, moderate-intensity grazing; HG, heavy-intensity grazing.

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Table 3 Shannon diversity index (H) and Evenness (E) of soil bacterial diversity based on the DGGE profiles under different grazing intensity treatments in the Inner Mongolian steppe

Treatment	H	E
CK	1.88±0.04b	0.84±0.01b
LG	2.39±0.05a	0.89±0.02a
MG	2.31±0.07a	0.89±0.01a
HG	1.76±0.09b	0.79±0.03b

Means within a column followed by the same letter indicate no significant differences at P<0.05. CK, non-grazed; LG, low-intensity grazing; MG, moderate-intensity grazing; HG, heavy-intensity grazing.

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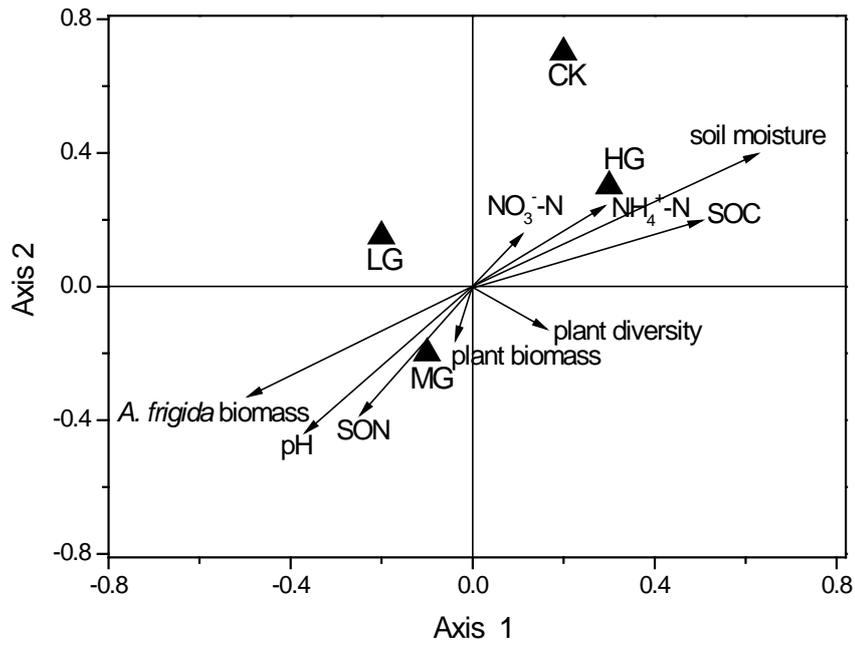


Fig. 3 Biplots of redundancy analysis (RDA) of the relationships between environmental variables and soil bacterial community structure based on DGGE profiles under different grazing intensity treatments. SOC, soil organic C and SON, soil organic N. CK, non-grazed; LG, low-intensity grazing; MG, moderate-intensity grazing; HG, heavy-intensity grazing.