

1 **Soil moisture and land use are major determinants of soil microbial**  
2 **community composition and biomass at a regional scale in**  
3 **northeastern China**

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26 **Abstract**

27 Global environmental factors impact soil microbial communities, and further affect organic  
28 matter decomposition, nutrient cycling and vegetation dynamic. However, little is known about  
29 the relative contributions of climate factors, soil properties, vegetation types, land management  
30 practices and spatial structure (serve as a proxy for underlying effects of temperature and  
31 precipitation for spatial variation) on soil microbial community composition and biomass at  
32 large spatial extents. Here, we compared soil microbial communities using phospholipid fatty  
33 acid method across 7 land use types from 23 locations at a regional scale in northeastern China  
34 (850 × 50 km). The results showed that soil moisture and land use changes were most closely  
35 related to microbial community composition and biomass at the regional scale, while soil total C  
36 content and climate effects were weaker but still significant. Factors such as spatial structure,  
37 soil texture, nutrient availability and vegetation types were not important. Higher contributions  
38 of gram-positive bacteria were found in wetter soils, whereas higher contributions of  
39 gram-negative bacteria and fungi were observed in drier soils. The contributions of  
40 gram-negative bacteria and fungi were lower in heavily disturbed soils than historically disturbed  
41 and undisturbed soils. The lowest microbial biomass appeared in the wettest and driest soils. In  
42 conclusion, dominant climate and soil properties were not the most important drivers governing  
43 microbial community composition and biomass because of inclusion of irrigated and managed  
44 practices, and thus soil moisture and land use appear to be primary determinants of microbial  
45 community composition and biomass at the regional scale in northeastern China.

46

## 47 **1 Introduction**

48 Soil microbial community plays important roles in regulating organic matter decomposition,  
49 nutrient cycling, soil structural formation, and even plant interactions (Wardle et al., 2004;  
50 Harris et al., 2009). Meanwhile, it is subjected to the influences of environmental conditions,  
51 land use and spatial structure (Yang et al., 2013). Although there is a growing body of evidence  
52 indicates that climate, soil property, vegetation, spatial structure and land use as the most  
53 important determinants of the global and regional patterns in soil microbial communities (Kreft  
54 and Jetz, 2007; Nielsen et al., 2010; Zinger et al., 2011; Pasternak et al., 2013; Tsiknia et al.,  
55 2014), teasing apart the contributions of multiple drivers on microbial community composition  
56 and biomass remains unclear.

57 Regional climate factors exert major influences on distributions of microbial communities by  
58 determining temperature and soil water availability along topographic gradients (Hackl et al.,  
59 2005; Carletti et al., 2009; Brockett et al., 2012). Drenovsky et al. (2010) and Brockett et al.  
60 (2012) found that soil water availability was an important determinant of microbial community  
61 composition, and fungal: bacterial biomass ratios decreased with increased soil water saturation  
62 at regional scales. In different types of natural Austrian forests, Hackl et al. (2005) showed that  
63 mean annual temperature was the major factor influencing microbial community composition in  
64 zonal forest, but soil water availability was most closely correlated with microbial community in  
65 azonal forests.

66 Soil property has been found strongly correlate with soil microbial community structure and  
67 abundance at the regional extents. Previous studies have reported that soil texture, organic matter

68 content, N availability and pH exhibited the dominant effects on soil microbial community  
69 composition, while climatic effects were weaker but still significant at regional scales  
70 (Šantrůčková et al., 2003; Brockett et al. 2012; Yang et al. 2013; Tsiknia et al. 2014). For  
71 example, Tsiknia et al. (2014) reported that soil total organic C, pH and geographic distance  
72 being identified as the most important determinants of microbial community abundance at the  
73 watershed scale in Greece. Moreover, plant communities differing in species composition are  
74 likely to produce litter and that differ in their chemical composition, which may subsequently  
75 influence soil microbial community composition (Zhang et al., 2005a; ESKELINEN et al., 2009). As  
76 a biotic driver, plants may also exert great effects on soil microbial communities by controlling  
77 allocation of belowground photosynthates (Kaiser et al., 2011).

78 Spatial structure (serve as a proxy for underlying effects of temperature and precipitation for  
79 spatial variation) influences the organization of community as a functional variable, other than  
80 the background in which biological and environmental factors act on community and ecosystem  
81 (Borcard et al., 1992). Recent researches have showed that strong autocorrelations were set  
82 between microbial groups, and geographic distance could explain a high proportion of microbial  
83 community variation (Tsiknia et al., 2014). However, Fierer and Jackson (2006) claimed that  
84 soils with similar environmental characteristics have similar bacterial communities regardless of  
85 geographic distance at continental scales. Using spatial trend surface analysis, Drenovsky et al.  
86 (2010) also found that spatial structure did not influence microbial community composition  
87 across three biogeographical provinces in California.

88 At regional scales, land use change is the major reason for spatial heterogeneity. It has been

89 shown that land use changes would lead to great variation in soil microbial community  
90 composition in diverse ecosystems (Drenovsky et al., 2010), though their impacts depend on  
91 many factors, including the original vegetation that is being replaced, and associated land  
92 management practices such as tillage, fallow periods, and related water and nutrient applications,  
93 such as irrigation and fertilization (Scanlon et al., 2007; Ma et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2013; Chen  
94 et al., 2014). In one study, Drenovsky et al. (2010) reported that distinct microbial communities  
95 were associated with land use types and disturbance at the regional scale in California. Tillage  
96 influences multiple soil physical and chemical properties, disrupts soil fungal hyphae (Evans and  
97 Miller, 1990), and alters microbial community composition (Ingram et al., 2008; Drenovsky et  
98 al., 2010). Recently, changes in land use have occurred in temperate area of northeast China as a  
99 result of expansion of farmlands and grazed rangelands at the expense of natural habitats,  
100 however, little is known about soil microbial community composition to land use changes at  
101 regional extents.

102 In this study we compare microbial community composition and biomass from 23 locations  
103 across 7 land use types (i.e. rangeland, artificial grassland, grazed rangeland, farmland, returned  
104 cropland, woodland, rice field) at a regional scale in Northeast China Transect (NECT). The  
105 NECT is identified as a mid-latitude semiarid terrestrial transect and is sensitive to climate  
106 change and disturbance, thus provides an ideal setting to investigate distribution patterns of soil  
107 microbial community. Our work specially aimed at teasing apart the contributions of climate,  
108 soil properties, vegetation types, spatial structure and land use on microbial community  
109 composition and biomass at the regional scale. We hypothesize that climate and soil properties

110 are the primary drivers to affect soil microbial community composition and biomass because  
111 climatic gradient, especially precipitation, is one of the most notable features at this region  
112 (Wang et al., 2003).

113

## 114 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 115 **2.1 Study locations**

116 The field study was conducted on a regional scale ( $43^{\circ}12' - 44^{\circ}36' \text{ N}$ ;  $114^{\circ}34' - 124^{\circ}18' \text{ E}$ )  
117 across Jilin province and Inner Mongolia (about 850 km from east to west, and 50 km from north  
118 to south) with 23 locations in North-east China Transect (NECT) (Table 1, Fig. 1). The NECT  
119 was identified as a core project of International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) which  
120 represents an array of regional-scale gradients on all continents that vary in major environmental  
121 variables (Koch et al., 1995). This area has a continental monsoon climate, with large seasonal  
122 temperature and precipitation gradients. Long-term (1950 – 2000) mean annual temperature,  
123 precipitation and radiative dry index at this spatial scale range from approximately  $1.3 - 6.8^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  
124  $237 - 472 \text{ mm}$  and  $0.91 - 1.44$ , respectively. The elevation gradients range from 140 m to 1309  
125 m (<http://www.worldclim.com>; Zhang et al., 1997; Appendix S1). Mean soil total C, N and C:  
126 N varied 3.3-fold, 2.4-fold and 2.7-fold across the region. Overall, there were 7.4-fold and  
127 2.8-fold differences in soil water content and water holding capacity, whereas soil origin and pH  
128 differed slightly (Appendix S1).

129 Spatial climatic variability, especially precipitation, is one of the most notable features of the  
130 transect. Due to the large decrease in precipitation from the east (Jilin province) to the west

131 (Inner Mongolia), vegetation vary gradually from moist meadows in the east to typical steppes  
132 and desert steppes in the west with farmlands, returned croplands and woodlands spread evenly  
133 across the gradient (Wang et al., 2003, 2011; Appendix S1). All farmlands were irrigated only  
134 several times (2 – 3 times) during the growing season, and rice field was flood-irrigated. The  
135 large spatial region have remarkable variations in climate, land use types and vegetation types,  
136 which make it an ideal region for studying the primary factor that driving soil microbial  
137 community composition and biomass. A detailed description of land use types, vegetation types,  
138 soil properties can be found in Table 1, Appendix S1, Zhang et al. (1997) and Ni and Zhang  
139 (2000).

140

## 141 **2.2 Soil samplings**

142 451 soil samples from 23 locations including 7 land use types were collected along the NECT in  
143 12 – 18 July, 2012. 6 – 16 soil core samples were collected randomly per site (100 × 100 m) for  
144 determination of soil microbial communities (Table 1).

145 The samples were taken with a cylindrical soil sampler (5 cm inner diameter, 15 cm length)  
146 for the 0 – 15 cm layer, and then immediately preserved at 4 °C in a cooler for transport to the  
147 laboratory within one week of collection. The fresh samples were processed using a 2 mm sieve  
148 and manually cleaned of any visible plant tissues. Two subsamples of each sample were obtained;  
149 one was air dried for routine soil analyses and the other was stored at – 70 °C, for phospholipid  
150 fatty acids analysis.

151

## 152 **2.3 Soil microbial community analysis**

153 Phospholipid fatty acids (PLFAs) were extracted and quantified from 8.0 g (dry weight  
154 equivalent) soils using a procedure described by Bossio and Scow (1998). The separation and  
155 identification of extracted PLFAs were carried out according to the standard protocol of the  
156 Sherlock Microbial Identification System V<sub>4.5</sub> (MIDI) and a Gas Chromatograph (Agilent 6850,  
157 USA). “A: B $\omega$ C” represents the number of carbons in the compound: the number of double  
158 bonds in the carbon chain, followed by double bond location from the methyl ( $\omega$ ) end of the  
159 molecule (Bossio and Scow, 1998). Cis and trans conformations are indicated by the suffixes c  
160 and t. The prefixes a and i indicate anteiso and iso branching; 10Me specifies a methyl group on  
161 the 10th carbon from the carboxyl end of the molecule; OH indicates a hydroxyl group; and cy  
162 indicates cyclopropane fatty acids. In addition, the fatty acids “sum” indicates imperfect peak  
163 separation occurs, and refers two or more fatty acids having the same retention time (Drenovsky  
164 et al., 2004).

165 Thirty-one fatty acids were included in the analyses. (1) branched fatty acids indicative of  
166 gram-positive bacteria: a13: 0, i14: 0, i15: 0, i16: 0, i17: 0 and a17: 0; (2) monounsaturated fatty  
167 acids indicative of gram-negative bacteria: 16: 1 $\omega$ 7c, 17: 1 $\omega$ 8c, 18: 1 $\omega$ 5c, 18: 1 $\omega$ 9t, 17: 0cy and  
168 19: 0cy (Frostegård et al., 1993, 1996); (3) saturated fatty acid (common in soil microorganism):  
169 14: 0, 15: 0, 16: 0, 17: 0, 18: 0 and 20: 0; (4) two fatty acids (18: 2 $\omega$ 6c, 18: 1 $\omega$ 9c) were chosen to  
170 represent the fungi (Frostegård et al., 2011); (5) actinomycetes was represented by 10Me 17: 0  
171 fatty acid. The fatty acids 14: 2 $\omega$ 6c and 14: 1 $\omega$ 8c were unique in three samples which were  
172 excluded in the data set. The ratio of 17: 0cy (17cy) to 16: 1 $\omega$ 7c (precursor) was used to as an



173 indicator of physiological stress (Knivett and Cullen, 1965). The viable microbial biomass was  
174 calculated by summing concentration of all fatty acids detected in each soil samples (White et al.,  
175 1979). Total percentages of fatty acid identified for each microbial group was calculated to  
176 represent their relative contributions to the total microbial biomass. The fungal: bacterial fatty  
177 acid (gram-positive + gram-negative bacteria) was also included in the data analysis (Frostegård  
178 et al., 1996).

179

#### 180 **2.4 Soil property analyses**

181 Soil inorganic N ( $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N} + \text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ ) was extracted with 2M KCl solution, and the extractant  
182 was determined using a flow injection autoanalyzer (FIAstar 5000, Denmark). Soil pH was  
183 measured at a soil: water ratio of 1: 2.5 with a pH electrode (PHS 29, China). Soil total C and N  
184 content were measured by elemental analyzer (Elemetaranalysator vario Max CN, Germany).  
185 Soil texture was determined by the optical size analyzer (Mastersizer 2000, England).  
186 Gravimetric soil water content was measured by oven-drying samples at 105 °C for 24 h. Soil  
187 water holding capacity was measured by Wilcox method (Wilcox, 1962).

188

#### 189 **2.5 Statistical analyses**

190 Unconstrained ordination—correspondence analysis (CA) was used to compare soil microbial  
191 communities among samples ( $n = 451$ ) using the Canoco for Windows 4.5 package (Ithaca, NY,  
192 USA). CA is an indirect gradient analysis method which can provide the basic overview of soil  
193 samples, and maximize the correlation between fatty acids and samples (Lepš and Smilauer,

194 2003). Constrained ordination—canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was used to represent  
195 the relationships among environmental factors (habitat, land management, spatial structure),  
196 sample patterns, and fatty acids distributions (Lepš and Smilauer, 2003). Qualitative factors were  
197 coded for the program using a set of ‘dummy factors’. That is, if a sample has a particular value  
198 of the factor, then the corresponding dummy factor has the value 1.0, and the other dummy  
199 factors have a value of 0.0 for the same sample.

200 In order to separate the effects of environmental factors on microbial communities, the  
201 variation partitioning procedure with CCA were used in the analysis (Borcard et al., 1992). The  
202 environmental factors were divided into three groups: (1) habitat (mean annual temperature,  
203 mean annual precipitation, radiative dry index, elevation, soil texture, pH class, soil N  
204 availability, soil C and N content, soil C: N, water holding capacity); (2) land management  
205 (tillage, grazing, historically tillage, flooding); (3) spatial structure ( $x$ ,  $y$ ,  $xy$ ,  $x^2$ ,  $y^2$ ,  $x^2y$ ,  $xy^2$ ,  $x^3$ ,  
206  $y^3$ ). The third group consisted of nine terms, in which latitudinal ( $x$ ) and longitudinal ( $y$ )  
207 coordinate were used to calculate a cubic trend surface. Spatial trend surface analysis is one of  
208 the quantitative ecological methods that study the relation between spatial structure and species  
209 abundance distribution in community (Legendre, 1990). The variation partitioning procedure  
210 decomposed the total variability into eight parts: individual effect of habitat ( $X_1$ ), land  
211 management ( $X_2$ ), spatial structure ( $X_3$ ), combined effects of habitat and land management ( $X_4$ ),  
212 combined effects of land management and spatial structure ( $X_5$ ), combined effects of habitat and  
213 spatial structure ( $X_6$ ), combined effects of the three groups of environmental factors ( $X_7$ ), and  
214 residual variation ( $X_8$ ). A complete explanation of these partitioning analyses can be found in

215 Lepš and Smilauer (2003).

216 Stepwise multiple linear analyses were used to determine the relationships of soil microbial  
217 community composition, biomass or contribution of each microbial group with environmental  
218 factors. Differences among the sites in soil microbial biomass and contribution of each microbial  
219 group were tested using One-way ANOVAs. Data management and statistical analyses were  
220 performed using SPSS 17.0 software (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

221

## 222 **3 Results**

### 223 **3.1 Variation of soil microbial communities**

224 The first axis of CA ordination explained 27.5 % of the variation in microbial community  
225 composition, mainly reflected soil moisture gradients and land disturbance intensity (Fig. 2a, b).  
226 Wetter soils (e.g. rice field, moisture rangeland) and heavily disturbed soils (e.g. farmland) with  
227 more branched fatty acids (gram-positive bacteria: a13: 0, i14: 0, i15: 0, i16: 0, i17: 0) and  
228 saturated fatty acids (14: 0, 15: 0, 16: 0, 17: 0, 18: 0, 20: 0) were positioned along the right side  
229 of the first axis. Drier soils, lightly and historically disturbed soils (e.g. dry rangeland, grazed  
230 rangeland, returned cropland) with more fungal (18: 2 $\omega$ 6c, 18: 1 $\omega$ 9c) and monounsaturated fatty  
231 acids (gram-negative bacteria: 16: 1 $\omega$ 7c, 16: 1 $\omega$ 9c, 17: 1 $\omega$ 8c, 18: 1 $\omega$ 5c, 18: 1 $\omega$ 9t) were plotted  
232 along the left side of the first axis.

233 The second axis of CA ordination described 20 % of the variation of the composition, mainly  
234 associated with management practices and spatial variation. In heavily disturbed habitat, the  
235 positions of flood-irrigated rice field and farmland were separated along the second axis (Fig.

236 2a).

237

### 238 **3.2 Relationship between microbial communities and environmental factors**

239 Soil microbial community composition across 7 land use types at the regional scale was  
240 distinguished by environmental factors with the CCA ordination (Fig. 3a, b). The first axis  
241 explained 22 % of the variation in microbial community composition, mainly associated with  
242 water regime (i.e. soil water availability) and water holding capacity. The second axis described  
243 15.2 % of the variation, primarily related to management intensity (tillage > historically tillage  
244 or grazing). Climate factors (mean annual precipitation and temperature, radiative dry index,  
245 elevation) did not show strong relationships with distribution of microbial communities. Factors  
246 such as soil texture (sandy loam), soil inorganic N content and pH plotted near the origin, thus  
247 would not be the major drivers of microbial community composition (Fig. 3b).

248

### 249 **3.3 Variation partitioning**

250 Forward selection of the three groups of environmental factors with CCA suggested that the soil  
251 microbial community composition was significantly related to the habitat ( $X_1$ ) (mean annual  
252 precipitation and temperature, radiative dry index, elevation, soil texture, pH, soil nutrient  
253 content, water holding capacity) and land management ( $X_2$ ) (tillage, grazing, historically tillage,  
254 flooding). The variation partitioning procedure showed that total explained variation of microbial  
255 community composition was 69.9 % ( $X_1+X_2+X_3+X_4+X_5+X_6+X_7$ ) and undetermined variation of  
256 it was 30.1 % ( $X_8$ ) (Fig. 4). The largest unique fraction in the explained variation was the effect

257 of habitat ( $X_1$ : 27 %), which had a strong overlap with land management ( $X_4$ : 15 %). In addition,  
258 the land management effect was also considerable ( $X_2$ : 13.4 %), whereas the unique effect of  
259 spatial structure ( $X_3$ : 2.8 %) was very small and statistically not significant.

260

### 261 **3.4 Soil microbial biomass and contributions of microbial group**

262 Soil microbial biomass (i.e. total PLFAs) varied 2.4-fold across all the land use types at this  
263 region ( $P < 0.05$ , One-way ANOVAs; Fig. 5a). The highest value appeared in one of the  
264 rangelands (*c.* 35 nmol g<sup>-1</sup>), and the lowest value appeared in rice field (*c.* 16 nmol g<sup>-1</sup>). Total  
265 PLFAs in artificial grassland, grazed rangeland, farmland and returned cropland had  
266 intermediate values.

267 Contribution of each microbial group across 7 land use types varied significantly, except that  
268 of actinomycetes. Higher contributions of gram-positive bacteria were found in wetter soils,  
269 whereas higher contributions of gram-negative bacteria and fungi were observed in drier soils.  
270 The contributions of gram-negative bacteria and fungi were lower in heavily disturbed soils than  
271 historically disturbed and undisturbed soils ( $P < 0.05$ , One-way ANOVAs; Fig. 5a-f). Similar to  
272 the variation of fungi, the highest fungal: bacterial PLFAs (*c.* 0.35) were appeared in one of the  
273 rangelands, and the lowest value occurred in rice field (*c.* 0.15) (Fig. 5g). Surprisingly, 17cy:  
274 precursor (used as an indicator of the anaerobic stress) across 7 land use types fluctuated  
275 disorderly at this regional scale (Fig. 5h).

276 Stepwise multiple regression analysis demonstrated that 54 % of the variation in microbial  
277 community composition could be explained by soil moisture and tillage. Soil moisture, soil total

278 C content and radiative dry index together accounted for 32 % of the spatial variation in total  
279 microbial biomass. Soil moisture alone contributed to 57 % and 57 % of the variation in the  
280 contributions of branched and monounsaturated PLFAs, respectively. In this region, radiative dry  
281 index, soil moisture and tillage together accounted for 77 % and 65 % of the variation in  
282 contribution of fungal PLFAs and fungal: bacterial PLFAs. 38 % of the spatial variability in  
283 contribution of bacterial PLFAs could be attributable to the combination of precipitation, soil  
284 total C content, water holding capacity and tillage (Table 2).

285

## 286 **4 Discussion**

287 Exploring the primary drivers regulating distributions of soil microbial communities and teasing  
288 apart relative contributions of multiple environmental factors (e.g. climate, soil texture, pH, soil  
289 organic matter content, vegetation type), land management practices and spatial structure on  
290 microbial community composition and biomass are important challenges in microbial ecology.  
291 In this study, soil moisture is a main control on microbial communities across 7 land use types at  
292 the regional scale, which explained 31 % of the variation in microbial community composition  
293 (Fig. 4; Table 2). Drier soils were more enriched in gram-negative bacteria and fungi, whereas  
294 wetter soils were more enriched in gram-positive bacteria (Fig. 5). These findings are in  
295 agreement with the previous observations (Rinklebe and Langer, 2006; Entry et al., 2008; Clark  
296 et al., 2009; Drenovsky et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2014). The stress of drought likely facilitates  
297 fungi to survive better, because soil fungi rely on more aerobic conditions and are more tolerant  
298 to drought due to their filamentous nature (Zhang et al., 2005a). The aerobic filamentous fungi

299 have variable hyphal networks that can relocate water and nutrient resource by cytoplasm  
300 translocation (Klein and Paschke, 2004). As soils become water-saturated, reducing soil oxygen  
301 levels and creating an environment favorable for facultative and obligate anaerobic bacteria  
302 (Drenovsky et al., 2004).

303 It has been proposed that the ratio of cyclopropane fatty acids to its precursor can be used to  
304 indicate the levels of anaerobic and nutritional stress because oxygen depletion could trigger  
305 conversion of monoenoic fatty acids to cyclopropane fatty acid products (Kieft et al., 1997;  
306 Drenovsky et al., 2010). For instance, Drenovsky et al. (2010) have reported that cyclopropane  
307 fatty acid: precursor (17cy: (16:1 $\omega$ 7c); 19cy: (18:1 $\omega$ 7c)) were significant high under conditions  
308 of low O<sub>2</sub> concentration and high temperature. However, whether cyclopropane fatty acid is  
309 representative of aerobic conditions is debatable. Bossio and Scow (1998) found that the  
310 cyclopropane fatty acids were insensitive to water availability across a large-scale precipitation  
311 gradient in California. Similarly, our result also show that the 17cy: precursor responded to high  
312 water availability modestly at this region (Fig. 5h), whereas we do not know for sure what limits  
313 the cyclopropane formation. This insensitivity to anaerobic conditions in the soils contrasts with  
314 its widespread use as an anaerobic marker. These findings suggest that cyclopropane fatty acids to  
315 its precursor are not generally useful as taxonomic indicators of respiratory type at regional  
316 scales.

317 Distinct microbial community composition and biomass are associated with land disturbance  
318 levels and management practices at the regional scale in northeast China. Continuously farmed  
319 agriculture is widely occurring in various biomes across the world. Repeated tillage heavily

320 disturbs soil physical properties, and decreases soil bulk density and water retaining capacity  
321 (Bescansa et al., 2006). This frequent disturbance in soil properties during tillage (and associated  
322 fertilization) could rapidly alter microbial community composition due to different competitive  
323 ability of specific microbial groups. The groups with the capacity of rapid adaptation to the  
324 frequently changing soil environment (e.g. bacteria) could take advantage of new resources in  
325 disturbed habitats (Cookson et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2011). Consistent with other large-scale  
326 studies, conventional tillage soils had higher proportions of gram-positive bacteria, and had  
327 lower proportions of fungi in this study (Fig. 2b) (Galvez et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2005a). The  
328 ability of gram-positive bacteria to sporulate may allow them with stand tillage or other  
329 anthropogenic disturbance. In contrast, fungi are sensitive to disturbance and their hyphae  
330 density would decrease significantly in response to tillage (Drenovsky et al., 2010).

331 Given the strong effects of heavy disturbance on soil microbial communities, it is interesting  
332 to find that microbial community composition in lightly and historically disturbed soils (i.e.  
333 grazed rangelands, returned croplands) were similar to those in undisturbed soils. These results  
334 are supported by observations in other studies (Bardgett and McAlister, 1999; Ingram et al.,  
335 2008; Sun et al. 2011). Ingram et al. (2008) reported that long-term light grazing showed no  
336 effect on soil organic C content and microbial community composition based on concentrations  
337 of PLFA biomarkers in a mixed-grass ecosystem. As the disturbance ceased, microbial biomass  
338 increased, probably because more time and resources were available for specific microbial  
339 groups which have slower growth rate (e.g. fungi) (Zhang et al., 2005b). However, Buckley and  
340 Schmidt (2003) reported that microbial community composition did not differ significantly



341 between conventionally cultivated fields and fields that had been abandoned from cultivation for  
342 nine years. A possible explanation of this result is that long-term sustainable tillage decreases  
343 soil C content, thus the recovery of soil organic matter to pre-agricultural levels may require  
344 decades or even centuries.

345 Many previous studies have demonstrated that vegetation types, soil properties and spatial  
346 structure can influence soil microbial community function and abundance through providing  
347 suitable habitats and food sources (Kourtev et al., 2003; Šantrůcková et al., 2003; Han et al.,  
348 2007; Chen et al., 2014), whereas our findings of microbial community composition were not  
349 related to these factors across this region. In the current study, soils were sampled in different  
350 vegetation types and soil nutrient content, but the microbial community composition were very  
351 similar at the same geographical location in natural habitats (e.g. meadow versus wood and shrub,  
352 data not shown) (Fig. 5). Similar trends were observed in heavily disturbed habitats, the  
353 distributions of microbial communities were depended on land disturbance levels and practices  
354 rather than agricultural plant species. For example, the farmland soils (e.g. corn, peanut, mung  
355 bean, red bean) in the same location clustered together in CCA ordination despite the different  
356 plant species that they represented (Fig. 2, 3, 5). These results are consistent with the study of  
357 Drenovsky et al. (2010) who reported that microbial community composition was more strongly  
358 influenced by disturbance than by agricultural plant species in California.

359 Habitat factors and land management triggered complex interactive effects on soil microbial  
360 community composition at the regional scale in northeastern China, as the value of shared  
361 variance fraction was 15 % without considering the variation explained by all three components

362 (Fig. 4). This was similar to the findings of Drenovsky et al. (2010) that environmental factors  
363 caused significantly interactions on microbial community composition at large spatial and  
364 temporal scales. The significant shared effects in our study could be attributed to the strong  
365 effects of land disturbance (e.g. flooding, irrigation, tillage) on soil properties that then affect  
366 microbial communities. The findings suggest that land management could partly control soil  
367 environmental effects on microbial community composition and biomass at regional scales.

368 Inconsistent with the hypothesis, soil moisture and land use were the most important factors  
369 driving microbial community composition and biomass at the regional scale in northeastern  
370 China. In this study, soil moisture was determined not only by natural precipitation, but also by  
371 managed inputs, thus the effect of precipitation was weaker but still significant. In addition,  
372 factors such as spatial structure, soil texture, pH and vegetation types did not have significant  
373 relationships with microbial community composition and biomass. These findings will improve  
374 predictions of the ecological processes and consequences of ecosystems under global changes.

375

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380

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518

**Table 1** Sample locations (1 – 23), coordinates of the sample location, land use types, vegetation types and number of replicates (*n*).

Location	No.	Coordinate	Land use type	Vegetation type	<i>n</i>
Baogedawula	1	43°56'N;114°34'E	Rangeland	Desert steppe	8
Dabuxiletu	2	43°55'N;115°44'E	Rangeland	Desert steppe	8
	2		Grazed rangeland	Desert steppe	8
Aqiwula	3	43°33'N;116°40'E	Rangeland	Steppe	10
	3		Woodland	Wood and shrub	8
Dalainuori	4	43°16'N;117°09'E	Rangeland	Steppe	8
Sanyi	5	43°12'N;117°18'E	Woodland	Wood and shrub	8
Xinchengzi	6	43°27'N;118°04'E	Rangeland	Steppe	14
	6		Returned cropland	Alfalfa	8
Xinfuzhilu	7	43°43'N;119°04'E	Grazed rangeland	Steppe (site 1)	4
	7			Steppe (site 2)	4
Tianshan	8	43°50'N;119°55'E	Rangeland	Steppe	8
	8		Returned cropland	Almond	16
Tianshan	9	43°50'N;120°15'E	Rangeland	Steppe	9
	9		Returned cropland	Almond	9
Shaogen	10	43°38'N;120°47'E	Rangeland	Steppe (site 1)	8
	10			Steppe (site 2)	8
	10		Farmland	Corn	8
Molimiao	11	43°34'N;121°55'E	Rangeland	Steppe (site 1)	8
	11			Steppe (site 2)	8
	11		Farmland	Corn	8
Yuxin	12	43°34'N;121°59'E	Rice field	Rice	14
Baixingtu	13	43°52'N;122°41'E	Woodland	Wood and shrub	8
Baolongshan	14	43°56'N;122°42'E	Rangeland	Meadow (site 1)	7
	14			Meadow (site 2)	6
	14		Farmland	Corn	8
Jiamatu	15	44°01'N;122°56'E	Rangeland	Meadow (site 1)	8
	15			Meadow (site 2)	8
	15		Farmland	Corn	8
	15			Red bean	7
Taipingchuan	16	44°21'N;123°14'E	Rangeland	Meadow	9
	16		Rice field	Rice	9
Yaojingzinan	17	44°21'N;123°14'E	Woodland	Wood and shrub (site 1)	11
	17		Woodland	Wood and shrub (site 2)	10
	17		Farmland	Peanut	8
Yaojingzi	18	44°34'N;123°29'E	Rangeland	Meadow (site 1)	8
	18			Meadow (site 2)	7



	18		Farmland	Peanut	8
	18			Mung bean	8
	18			Corn	8
Yaojingzi	19	44°35'N;123°30'E	Rangeland	Meadow	14
Yaojingzi	20	44°34'N;123°31'E	Artificial grassland	Meadow (site 1)	7
	20			Meadow (site 2)	8
	20		Farmland	Corn	8
Wulanaodu	21	44°36'N;123°48'E	Rangeland	Meadow (site 1)	8
	21			Meadow (site 2)	8
	21		Farmland	Corn	7
	21		Woodland	Wood and shrub	9
Chaghanhua	22	44°35'N;124°16'E	Rangeland	Meadow (site 1)	8
	22			Meadow (site 2)	8
Wulantuga	23	44°28'N;124°18'E	Rangeland	Meadow	8
	23		Farmland	Corn	6
	23			Peanut	6
	23		Woodland	Wood and shrub	8
<i>Total</i>					<b>451</b>

**Table 2** Results of stepwise multiple regression analyses. Independent variables: soil moisture (%), soil total carbon content (C, %), mean annual precipitation (MAP), radiative dry index (RDI), soil water holding capacity (WHC); Dependent variable: soil microbial community composition (SMCC), soil total PLFAs (i.e. microbial biomass, TPLFAs, nmol g<sup>-1</sup>), percentages of branched PLFAs (gram-positive bacteria) (BP, %), monounsaturated PLFAs (gram-negative bacteria) (MP, %), saturated PLFAs (common in microorganism) (SP, %), fungal PLFAs (F, %), bacterial PLFAs (B, %) and fungal: bacterial PLFAs (F: B). Negative values of parameter estimate refer negative relationships between the examined dependent variables and the independent variables.

	<b>Variable entered</b>	<b>Parameter estimate</b>	<b>Partial r<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>Probability</b>
<b>SMCC</b>	Soil moisture	-	0.31	0.000
	Tillage	-	0.23	0.000
<b>TPLFAs</b>	Soil moisture	6.794	0.11	0.000
	Soil total C	0.607	0.11	0.000
	RDI	-26.893	0.10	0.000
<b>BP</b>	Soil moisture	0.262	0.57	0.000
	Tillage	1.783	0.06	0.000
<b>MP</b>	Soil moisture	-0.105	0.57	0.000
	Tillage	-3.800	0.17	0.000
<b>SP</b>	Soil moisture	0.329	0.49	0.000
	RDI	-3.796	0.09	0.000
<b>F</b>	RDI	7.074	0.57	0.000
	Tillage	-1.580	0.14	0.000
	Soil moisture	-0.042	0.06	0.000
<b>B</b>	MAP	-0.044	0.20	0.000
	Soil total C	1.218	0.07	0.000
	WHC	0.158	0.06	0.000
	Tillage	1.514	0.05	0.001
<b>F:B</b>	RDI	0.142	0.42	0.000
	Tillage	-0.033	0.12	0.000
	Soil moisture	-0.002	0.11	0.000

## Figure legends

**Fig. 1.** Sample locations (1 – 23; see Table 1) at a regional scale in northeast China.

**Fig. 2.** Ordination plots of correspondence analysis (CA) of all samples and fatty acids. (a) Ordination plot of 451 samples scores across 7 land use types (rangeland, artificial grassland, grazed rangeland, farmland, returned cropland, woodland, rice field); (b) Ordination plot of 31 fatty acids scores. The fatty acids scores are near the points for samples in which they occur with the highest relative contributions.

**Fig. 3.** Ordination plots of canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of all samples and environmental factors. (a) Ordination plot of 451 samples scores across 7 land use types; (b) Ordination plot of habitat and management factors scores, in which spatial structure were run as covariates. Mean annual temperature (MAT), mean annual precipitation (MAP), radiative dry index (RDI), elevation, soil water content (SWC, including natural precipitation and managed inputs), soil inorganic N (IN), soil total C and N (C, N), soil C: N, total (T) PLFAs, water holding capacity (WHC) and soil pH were quantitative environmental factors, and soil texture (loamy sand, LS; sandy loam, SL), land management practices (tilled, historically tilled, grazed) were qualitative (nominal) environmental factors. Quantitative factors were plotted as vectors, and qualitative factors were plotted as centroids.

**Fig. 4.** Variation partitioning procedure of microbial community composition, explained by habitat (mean annual temperature and precipitation, radiative dry index, elevation, soil texture, pH, soil C and N content, soil C: N, inorganic N, total PLFAs, water holding capacity), land management (tilled, historically tilled, grazed, flooded practices) and spatial structure ( $x$ ,  $y$ ,  $xy$ ,  $x^2$ ,  $y^2$ ,  $x^2y$ ,  $xy^2$ ,  $x^3$ ,  $y^3$ ; the nine terms which latitudinal ( $x$ ) and longitudinal ( $y$ ) coordinate were used to calculate a cubic trend surface) factors.

**Fig. 5.** Soil microbial biomass (i.e. total PLFAs), percentages of branched PLFAs (gram-positive bacteria), monounsaturated PLFAs (gram-negative bacteria), actinomycetes (10Me), saturated PLFAs (i.e. common in microorganism), fungi (F), fungal: bacterial PLFAs (F: B) and 17cy: precursor across 7 land use types at a regional scale in northeastern China.

**Fig. 1**

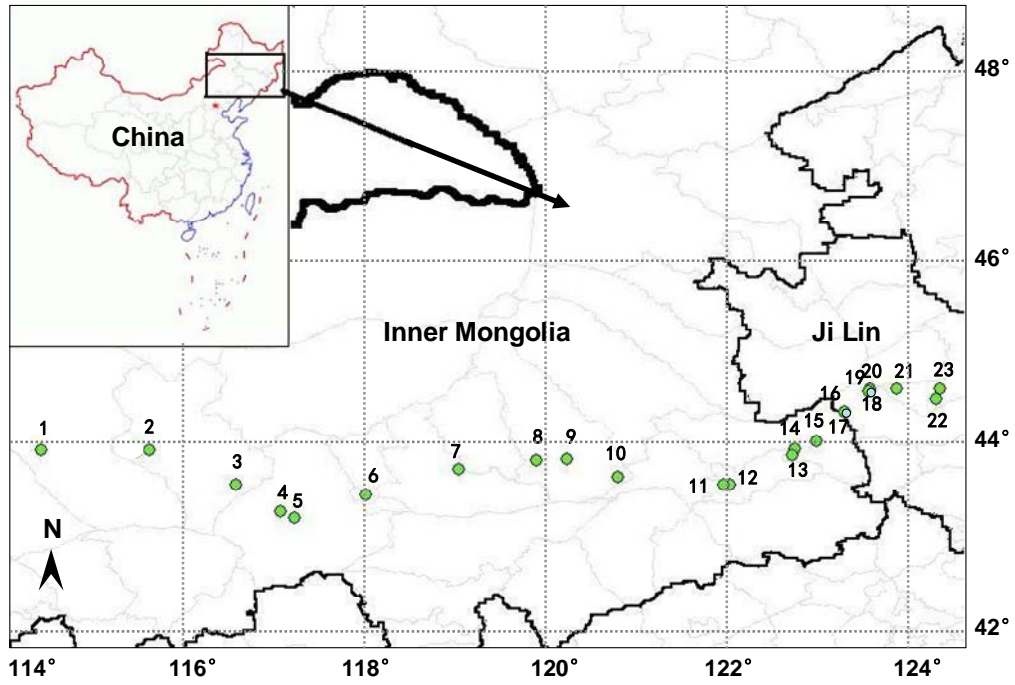


Fig. 2

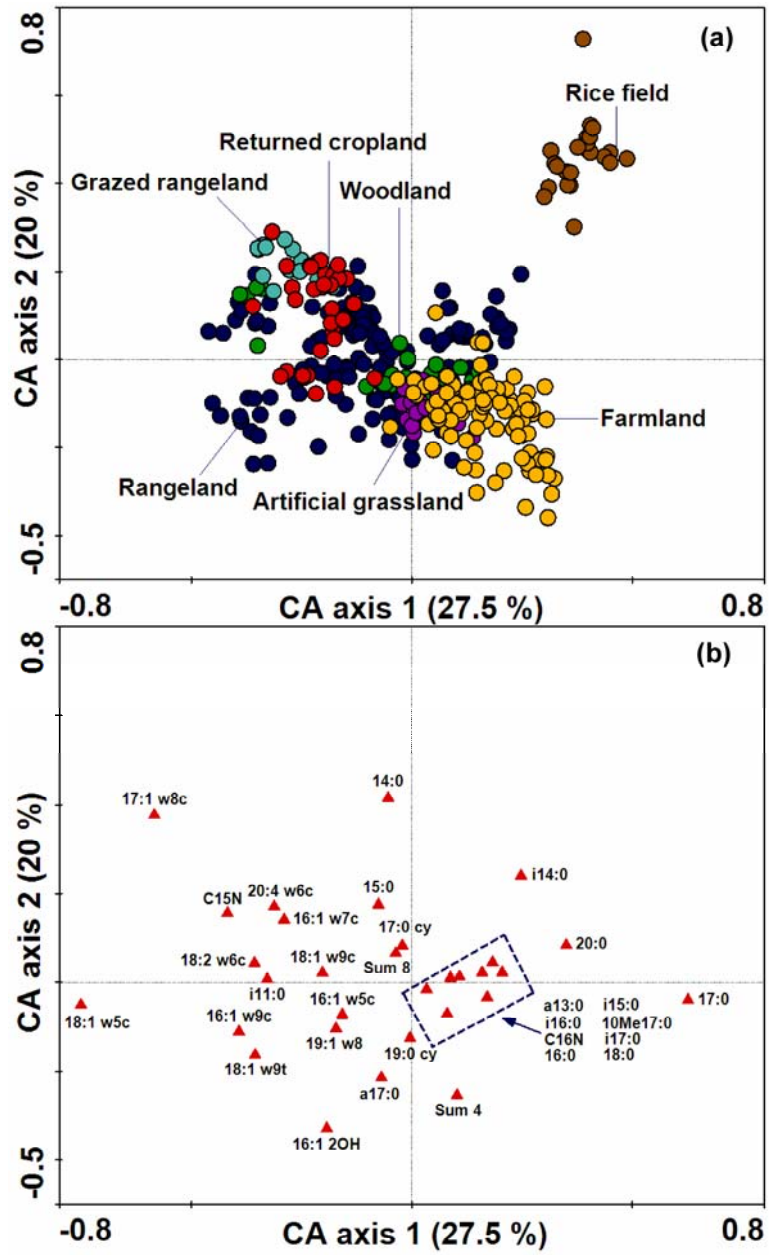
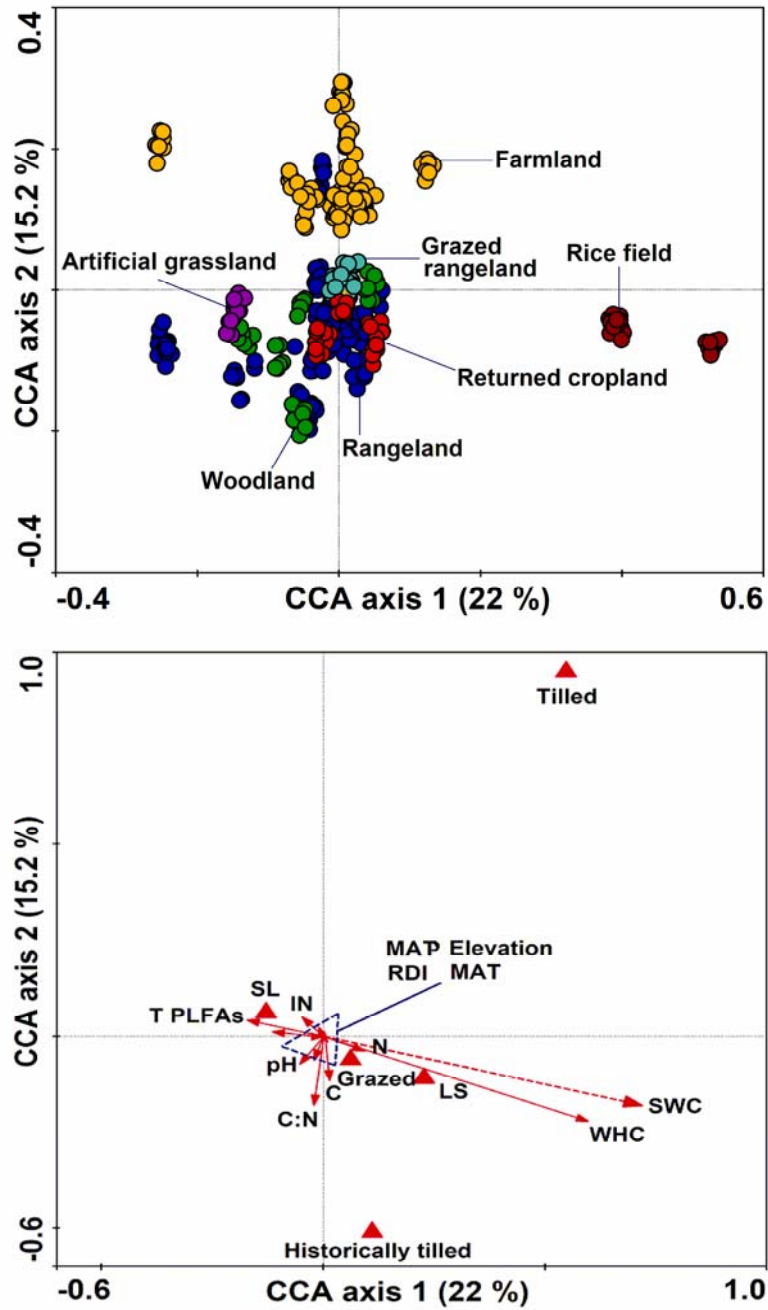
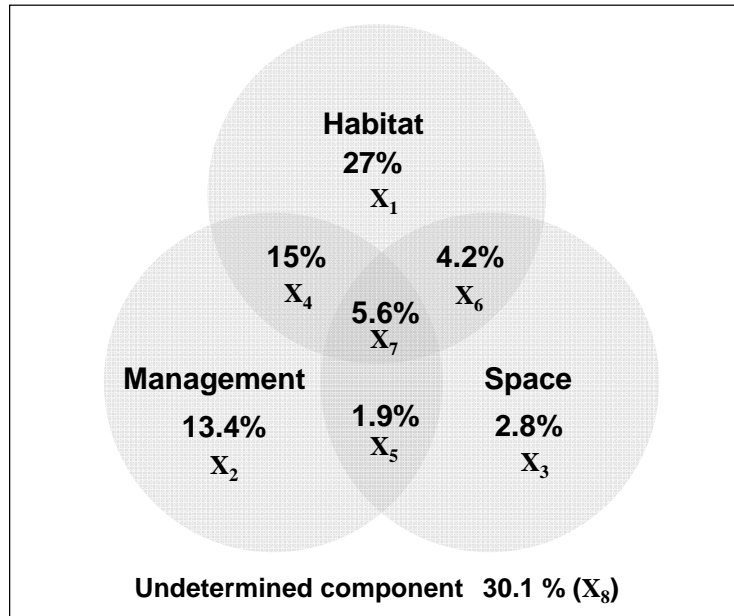


Fig. 3

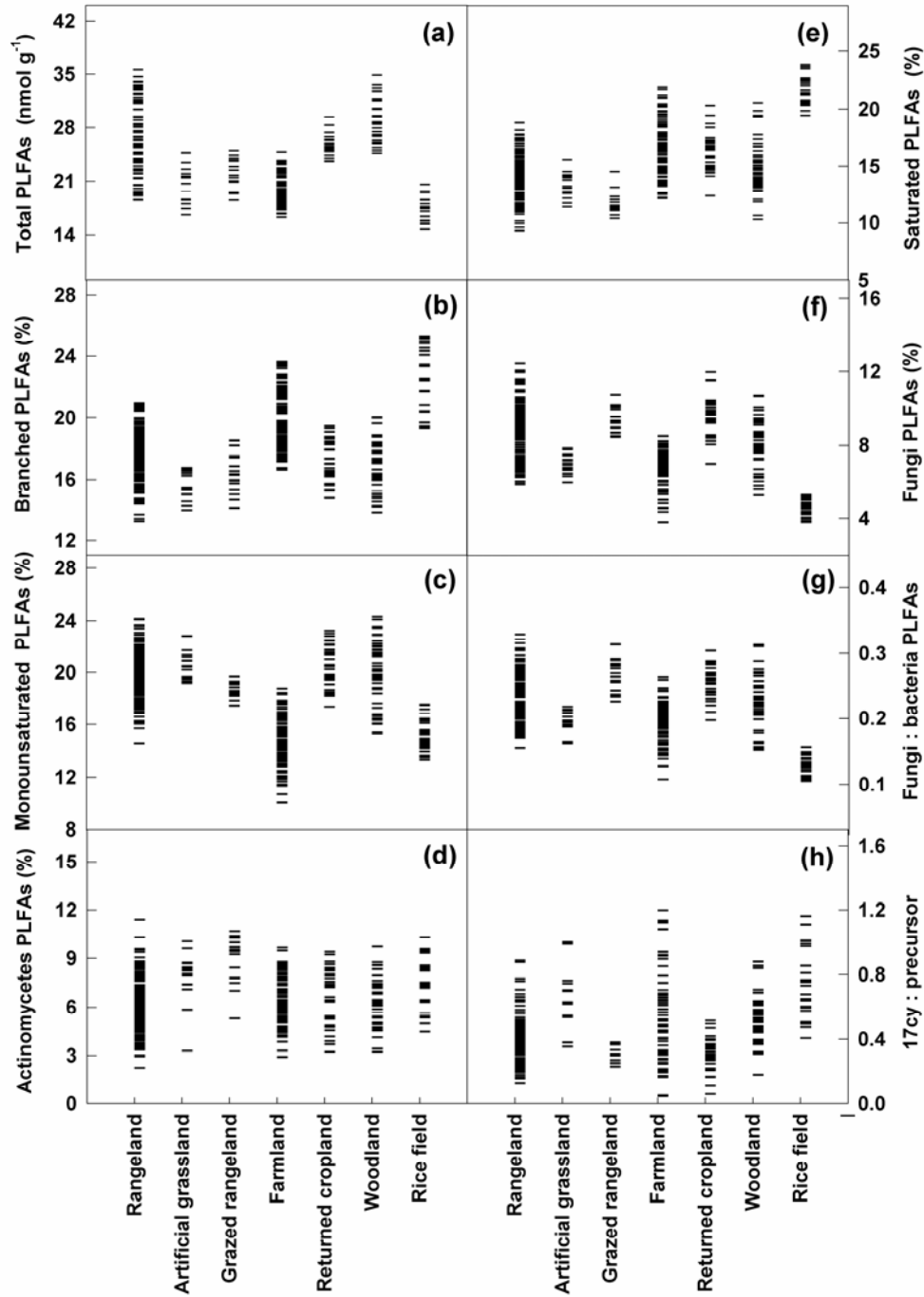


**Fig. 4**





**Fig. 5**



**Appendix S1** Sample locations (1 – 23, see Fig. 1), land use types, land management practices, vegetation types, climatic indices and soil properties. MAP, mean annual precipitation (mm); MAT, mean annual temperature (°C); RDI, radiative dry index; ELE, elevation (m); TC, soil total C (%); TN, soil total N (%); SWC, soil water content (%); WHC, water holding capacity; IN, soil inorganic N content (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>); SL, sandy loam; LS, loamy sand.

Location	No.	Land use type	Management practices	Vegetation type	MAP	MAT	RDI	ELE	pH	Soil texture	C	N	C: N	SWC	WHC	IN
Baogedawula	1	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Desert steppe	237	1.7	1.44	1092	7.7	LS	0.67	0.12	5.32	3	12	2.05
Dabuxiletu	2	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Desert steppe	276	1.4	1.37	1158	7.8	LS	0.79	0.1	7.94	5	15	2.47
	2	Grazed rangeland	Grazed	Desert steppe	276	1.4	1.37	1158	7.9	LS	0.81	0.11	7.31	5	17	3.30
Aqiwula	3	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Steppe	340	1.3	1.33	1239	8.8	SL	1.45	0.15	9.78	7	17	3.46
	3	Woodland	Undisturbed	Wood and shrub	340	1.3	1.33	1239	7.8	SL	0.7	0.15	4.48	9	20	3.32
Dalainuori	4	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Steppe	385	1.3	1.21	1309	8.1	LS	0.84	0.14	7.67	8	18	3.77
Sanyi	5	Woodland	Undisturbed	Wood and shrub	380	2.3	1.21	1173	8	SL	1.11	0.14	7.94	9	22	7.70
Xinchengzi	6	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Steppe	397	3.5	1.23	919	7.7	LS	1.52	0.15	10.07	10	22	4.08
	6	Returned cropland	Historically tilled	Alfalfa	397	3.5	1.23	919	7.7	SL	0.9	0.1	9.96	9	23	7.79
Xinfuzhilu	7	Grazed rangeland	Grazed	Steppe (site 1)	386	5.8	1.18	735	8.4	LS	0.97	0.11	8.95	8	25	5.87
	7		Grazed	Steppe (site 2)	386	5.8	1.18	735	8.3	LS	0.99	0.12	8.05	8	25	4.84
Tianshan	8	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Steppe	386	5.8	1.18	513	8.3	LS	1.66	0.19	8.48	8	23	6.14
	8	Returned cropland	Historically tilled	Almond	386	5.8	1.18	513	8.2	SL	0.9	0.1	8.71	10	25	13.08
Tianshan	9	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Steppe	388	5.8	1.18	413	8.2	LS	1.63	0.19	8.36	9	22	5.24
	9	Returned cropland	Historically tilled	Almond	388	5.8	1.18	413	8.2	SL	1.81	0.17	10.78	10	24	7.34
Shaogen	10	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Steppe (site 1)	385	6.8	1.12	270	8	LS	0.85	0.11	7.66	12	25	5.14

	10		Undisturbed	Steppe (site 2)	385	6.8	1.12	270	8.2	LS	1	0.11	9.36	11	25	4.58
Molimia	10	Farmland	Tilled	Corn	385	6.8	1.12	270	8.6	LS	0.9	0.11	8.08	11	24	20.80
	11	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Steppe (site 1)	399	6.3	1.05	179	8.4	SL	1.05	0.12	8.85	12	25	7.52
	11		Undisturbed	Steppe (site 2)	399	6.3	1.05	179	8.4	SL	1.1	0.15	7.30	13	25	6.65
	11	Farmland	Tilled	Corn	399	6.3	1.05	179	8.4	SL	1	0.11	9.13	10	25	6.34
Yuxin	12	Rice field	Periodically flooded	Rice	397	6.3	1.02	211	7.8	SL	1.23	0.15	8.23	32	32	5.23
Baixingtu	13	Woodland	Undisturbed	Wood and shrub	414	6	1.02	159	7.7	SL	0.97	0.12	8.08	13	28	8.85
Baolongshan	14	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow (site 1)	415	6	1	156	7.9	SL	1.3	0.13	9.02	13	26	8.45
	14		Undisturbed	Meadow (site 2)	415	6	1	156	7.8	SL	1.34	0.15	8.43	13	27	7.62
	14	Farmland	Tilled	Corn	415	6	1	156	7.7	SL	1.3	0.11	11.92	12	27	6.24
Jiamatu	15	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow (site 1)	422	6	1	149	8.2	SL	1.73	0.17	10.20	14	27	6.08
	15		Undisturbed	Meadow (site 2)	422	6	1	149	8.3	SL	1.77	0.18	10.07	13	28	6.22
	15	Farmland	Tilled	Corn	422	6	1	149	8.2	SL	1.22	0.17	7.19	11	25	10.34
	15		Tilled	Red bean	422	6	1	149	8.4	SL	1	0.17	5.56	10	25	18.35
Taipingchuan	16	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow	428	5.6	0.97	150	8.6	LS	1.02	0.13	8.07	18	31	7.37
	16	Rice field	Periodically flooded	Rice	428	5.6	0.97	150	8.3	SL	1.18	0.12	9.83	35	35	8.93
Yaojingzinan	17	Woodland	Undisturbed	Wood and shrub (site 1)	435	5.4	0.97	150	7.9	SL	0.98	0.13	7.27	14	29	5.78
	17	Woodland	Undisturbed	Wood and shrub (site 2)	435	5.4	0.97	150	7.9	SL	1.16	0.16	7.27	13	28	5.78
	17	Farmland	Tilled	Peanut	435	5.4	0.97	150	7.5	LS	0.9	0.15	5.97	10	30	3.23
Yaojingzi	18	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow (site 1)	435	5.4	0.97	159	7.8	SL	1.16	0.16	7.19	17	30	4.47
	18		Undisturbed	Meadow (site 2)	435	5.4	0.97	159	7.7	SL	0.82	0.11	9.43	18	30	5.25
	18	Farmland	Tilled	Peanut	435	5.4	0.97	159	7.5	LS	1.03	0.13	7.96	17	30	4.75
	18		Tilled	Mung bean	435	5.4	0.97	159	7.6	SL	1.17	0.15	7.73	17	31	5.75
	18		Tilled	Corn	435	5.4	0.97	159	7.8	SL	1	0.12	8.69	20	32	5.95
Yaojingzi	19	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow	434	5.4	0.97	165	8.4	SL	2.21	0.23	9.66	23	34	8.38

Yaojingzi	20	Artificial grassland	Tilled	Meadow (site 1)	433	5.4	0.97	140	8.1	SL	1.85	0.19	9.91	14	33	6.44
	20		Tilled	Meadow (site 2)	433	5.4	0.97	140	8.1	SL	1.9	0.19	9.98	12	33	5.62
Wulanaodu	20	Farmland	Tilled	Corn	433	5.4	0.97	140	8.1	SL	0.92	0.1	9.23	18	32	8.23
	21	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow (site 1)	442	5.3	0.93	152	8.1	SL	1.25	0.16	7.89	22	33	4.23
	21		Undisturbed	Meadow (site 2)	442	5.3	0.93	152	8.1	SL	1.3	0.16	8.03	19	34	4.87
	21	Farmland	Tilled	Corn	442	5.3	0.93	152	8.2	SL	1.74	0.24	7.02	20	32	4.12
Chaghanhua	21	Woodland	Undisturbed	Wood and shrub	442	5.3	0.93	152	7.5	SL	1.87	0.23	8.11	20	34	6.55
	22	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow (site 1)	467	5.1	0.93	202	8.5	LS	1.54	0.2	7.67	24	36	4.32
Wulantuga	22		Undisturbed	Meadow (site 2)	467	5.1	0.93	202	8.4	LS	1.42	0.19	7.44	22	36	5.01
	23	Rangeland	Undisturbed	Meadow	472	5.1	0.91	291	8.5	SL	2.16	0.2	10.63	23	34	4.85
	23	Farmland	Tilled	Corn	472	5.1	0.91	291	8.2	SL	1.73	0.24	7.36	22	33	7.75
	23		Tilled	Peanut	472	5.1	0.91	291	7.9	SL	1.72	0.23	7.76	22	32	3.52
	23	Woodland	Undisturbed	Wood and shrub	472	5.1	0.91	291	7.8	SL	1.63	0.19	8.75	18	35	7.39