

1 **Response of soil microbial communities to alpine meadow**  
2 **degradation severity levels in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau**

3

4 Wenjuan Zhang<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Xian Xue<sup>1</sup>, Fei Peng<sup>1,3</sup>, Quangang You<sup>1</sup>, Jing Pan<sup>1,2</sup>,  
5 Chengyang Li<sup>1,2</sup>, Chimin Lai<sup>4</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup> *Key Laboratory of Desert and Desertification, Chinese Academy of Sciences,*  
8 *Northwest Institute of Eco-Environment and Resources, Chinese Academy of*  
9 *Sciences, 320 West Donggang Road, Lanzhou, China 730000*

10 <sup>2</sup> *University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China*

11 <sup>3</sup> *International platform for dryland research and education, arid land research*  
12 *center, Tottori University*

13 <sup>4</sup> *College of Forestry, Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University, Fuzhou 350000,*  
14 *China Fujian*

15

16

17 \*Corresponding author: Wenjuan Zhang (Tel) 86-931-4967567;

18

(Fax) 86-931-827389

19 E-mai: zhangwenjuan@lzb.ac.cn

20

21 Type of Paper: Original research

22

23

## 24 **Abstract**

25 Soil microbial community structure is an effective indicator to reflect changes in soil  
26 quality. Little is known about the effect of alpine meadow degradation on the soil  
27 bacterial and fungal community. In this study, we used the Illumina MiSeq  
28 sequencing method to analyze the microbial community structure of alpine meadow  
29 soil in five different degradation levels (i.e., non-degraded (ND), slightly degraded  
30 (LD), moderately degraded (MD), severely degraded (SD), and very severely  
31 degraded (VD)) in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. *Proteobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, and  
32 *Acidobacteria* were the mainly bacterial phyla in meadow soil across all five  
33 degradation levels investigated. *Basidiomycota* was the mainly fungal phylum in ND;  
34 however, we found a shift from *Basidiomycota* to *Ascomycota* with an increase  
35 (severity) in degradation level. The overall proportion of *Cortinariaceae* exhibited  
36 high fungal variability, and reads were highest in ND (62.80%). Heatmaps of bacterial  
37 genera and fungal families showed a two-cluster sample division on a genus/family  
38 level: (1) an ND and LD group and (2) an SD, VD, and MD group. Redundancy  
39 analysis (RDA) showed that 79.7% and 71.3% of the variance in bacterial and fungal  
40 composition, respectively, could be explained by soil nutrient conditions (soil organic  
41 carbon, total nitrogen, and moisture) and plant properties (below-ground biomass).  
42 Our results indicate that meadow degradation affects both plant and soil properties  
43 and consequently drives changes in soil microbial community structure.

44

## 45 **Introduction**

46 The Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP) has an area over  $250 \times 10^4$  km<sup>2</sup> within China and is  
47 the highest plateau in the world with an average elevation of ~4500 m a.s.l. [1].  
48 Alpine meadows comprise approximately 38% of all grassland area in the QTP and  
49 are the primary ecosystem utilized by the Tibetan people and their livestock [2,3].  
50 Accordingly, the alpine meadow is considered to be one of the most critically  
51 important ecosystems in the QTP. The ecological functions of alpine meadow  
52 ecosystems in the QTP are also important, which include water storage [4],

53 biodiversity maintenance [5], and soil carbon (C) sequestration [6].

54 Furthermore, the lower air temperature and higher altitude make alpine meadows  
55 more sensitive to global warming. Thus, these ecosystems are considered as good  
56 indicators of environmental change [2]. In recent decades, frequent reports on the  
57 degradation of alpine meadows in the source regions of the Yangtze and Yellow  
58 rivers have been attributed to climate warming and anthropogenic activities [7,8]. The  
59 alpine grassland degradation has led to a variety of ecological consequences,  
60 including alterations plant community composition, decreased plant species richness  
61 and biomass [9], and accelerated soil erosion [10].

62 Soil bacteria and fungi play crucial roles in soil nutrient supplies and element  
63 cycling in terrestrial ecosystems [11], and their composition and diversity are  
64 sensitive to disturbances [12,13]. Different microbes exhibit various ability to  
65 efficiently utilize soil organic matter (SOM) and the composition of microbial  
66 decomposers directly influence a variety of ecosystem processes, such as CO<sub>2</sub> flux  
67 and litter decomposition. Previous studies have shown that soil microbial  
68 communities are affected by plant characteristics and soil properties [14,15]. For  
69 example, vegetation type has a strong effect on soil microbial communities in  
70 determining the physical soil environment and the availability of nutrients [16]. Soil  
71 substrate availability and heterogeneity are important factors responsible for changes  
72 in microbial communities [17,18]. Potential changes in soil nutrient availability [19],  
73 soil moisture [20], and plant composition and biomass during processes of grassland  
74 degradation [21] would inevitably alter the composition and diversity of soil  
75 microbial communities. The current literature on alpine meadow degradation mainly  
76 focuses on plant and soil characteristics; however, knowledge regarding the effects of  
77 meadow degradation on soil microbial communities and their diversity remains  
78 largely inadequate [22]. Therefore, it is essential to understand how the composition  
79 and diversity of microbial communities respond to alpine meadow degradation in the  
80 QTP and to consider the key influencing factors and to provide important insights for  
81 the alpine meadow health assessment and management.

82 In this study, we selected alpine meadows under different levels of degradation

83 severity (i.e., non-degraded (ND), slightly degraded (LD), moderately degraded (MD),  
84 severely degraded (SD), and very severely degraded (VD)), applying the  
85 space-for-time substitution method [9]. We used the Illumina MiSeq sequencing  
86 method (Illumina, Inc., USA) to determine soil bacterial and fungal composition and  
87 their diversity with changes in edaphic and plant properties under degradation. The  
88 specific aims of this study were: 1) to investigate how soil bacterial and fungal  
89 communities vary with changes in explicit soil and plant properties in the QTP, and 2)  
90 to discern which factors under conditions of alpine meadow degradation significantly  
91 influence associative microbial community structure.

## 92 **Materials and methods**

### 93 **Study area**

94 The study area was located at the source of the Yangtze River on the QTP (34°49'N,  
95 92°55'E; 4635 m a.s.l.) (Fig 1). The annual average mean air temperatures are -3.8°C.  
96 Mean annual precipitation is 285 mm with greater than 93% falling during the warm  
97 growing season (April–October) [2]. The site is used for grazing during the summer.  
98 The typical vegetation is alpine meadow dominated by *Kobresia capillifolia*,  
99 *Kobresia pygmaea*, and *Carex moorcroftii* [3].

100 The ND, LD, MD, SD, and VD alpine meadow sites were chosen based on  
101 vegetation coverage as described by Liu et al. (2018) [23]. Vegetation coverage  
102 percentages are as follows: 80%~90% for ND, 70%~80% for LD, 50%~70% for MD,  
103 30%~50% for SD, and <30% for VD.

### 104 **Plant measurement and soil sampling procedures**

105 Five quadrats (5 m × 5 m) at a spatial distance of greater than 50 m were randomly  
106 selected at each of the five alpine meadow sites. Three plots were sampled from each  
107 quadrat. Plant cover, height, and composition of each quadrat were measured using  
108 point-intercept sampling, employing a 30 cm × 30 cm square frame, with 100  
109 sampling points spaced equidistantly within the frame [24]. Plant height was  
110 estimated by randomly measuring 10 individuals in each quadrat. Following this,  
111 plants were clipped at the soil surface, and harvested plants were categorized into

112 different functional groups: graminoids, sedges, and forbs. Aboveground and  
113 belowground plant biomass (abbreviated as AGB and BGB in this study, respectively)  
114 were separated, dried in an oven at 65°C for 48 h before being weighed.

115 On July 3, 2017, three 50 mm diameter surface soil cores (from the top 10 cm  
116 soil layer) were randomly collected from each quadrat. These soil cores were then  
117 mixed, homogenized, and sieved (<2 mm) to remove roots and other plant material  
118 [25]. Each soil sample was placed in a sterile centrifuge tube before being  
119 immediately transported to the laboratory and stored at -80°C for total DNA  
120 extraction and molecular analyses.

121 From each quadrat, three soil profiles were randomly collected for soil sampling  
122 (0 to 10 cm). The soil samples were measured for soil bulk density (BD), soil  
123 moisture (SM), and soil nutrient content piling at each of its four corners.

## 124 **Soil characterization**

125 Soil BD was measured using 100 cm<sup>3</sup> rings and calculated from dry soil matter. At the  
126 same time, SM was measured by drying soil samples taken from the rings at 105°C  
127 for 48 h. Soil organic carbon (SOC) was determined using the potassium dichromate  
128 oxidation titration method [26]. Total nitrogen (TN) in soil was determined using the  
129 semimicro Kjeldahl digestion procedure [2]. Ammonium-nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N) and  
130 nitrate nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) content in soil were measured using the UV-3300  
131 Spectrophotometer (Mapada Instruments Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China).

## 132 **DNA extraction, Polymerase chain reaction and Illumina** 133 **sequencing**

134 DNA was extracted from 0.5 g soil samples using the PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit  
135 (Mo Bio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's  
136 instructions. The universal primer pair 338F/806R [27] for bacteria and ITS1 [28] for  
137 fungi were used for amplification and MiSeq sequencing of the polymerase chain  
138 reaction (PCR) products. PCR amplification was conducted in a 25 µL reaction  
139 system using TransGen AP221-02 (TransGen Biotech, Beijing, China) and carried out  
140 in an ABI GeneAmp 9700 (Applied Biosystems, Inc., Carlsbad, USA). After purified

141 and quantitated, the PCR products were sequenced using the Illumina Miseq platform.

142 The 16s and ITS1 rRNA gene sequences associated this study were submitted to  
143 the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive  
144 (SRA) (accession no. PRJNA490659).

## 145 **Data analysis**

146 The QIIME (version 1.8.0) was used to estimate  $\alpha$ -diversity (i.e. Chao1, Shannon, and  
147 Good's coverage) for each sample [29]. The changes of species composition under  
148 different degradation stages, principal component analysis (PCA), and heatmaps were  
149 conducted using the R language (3.2.0). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests  
150 was used to evaluate significant levels for all factors analyzed herein. The SPSS 17.0  
151 software package (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used to calculations and  
152 analyses. The CANOCO software (version 4.5) was used to run redundancy analysis  
153 (RDA) [30].

## 154 **Results**

### 155 **Response of plant and soil factors to alpine meadow** 156 **degradation**

157 Plant coverage in MD, SD, and VD decreased significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) by 32.48%,  
158 17.52%, and 84.67% compared to ND and by 38.13%, 24.42%, and 85.95%,  
159 respectively, compared to LD (Table 1). Plant AGB in MD, SD, and VD significantly  
160 ( $P < 0.05$ ) decreased by 47.09%, 51.60%, and 84.14%, respectively, compared to LD  
161 (Table 1). Plant BGB in SD and VD also significantly decreased by 60.43% and  
162 67.12% compared to ND and by 59.67% and 66.49% in SD and compared to LD,  
163 respectively (Table 1). The ND and LD sites not exhibited a significant differ in plant  
164 coverage, AGB, or BGB (Table 1). There was no significant change in species  
165 richness (SR) and plant height throughout the whole degradation process (Table 1).  
166 For plant group, sedge biomass in SD and VD significantly decreased compared to  
167 LD, but we found no significant change in the biomass/proportion of graminoids and  
168 forbs as degradation severity increased (Table 2).

169 Soil TN, SOC, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, and SM content decreased significantly in MD,  
170 SD, and VD compared to ND, but BD exhibited the opposite response pattern (Table  
171 3). In MD, there were significant decreases in soil TN, SOC, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, and  
172 SM by 62.20%, 67.75%, 48.40%, 47.94%, and 43.57%, respectively, compared to ND  
173 (Table 3); in SD, the content of soil TN, SOC, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, and SM decreased  
174 significantly by 65.35%, 67.11%, 60.34%, 50.09%, and 65.66%, respectively,  
175 compared to ND (Table 3); in VD, there were significant decreases in soil TN, SOC,  
176 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, and SM by 70.08%, 76.16%, 57.64%, 43.25%, and 66.72%,  
177 respectively, compared to ND (Table 3). However, soil BD increased significantly ( $P$   
178  $< 0.05$ ) by 37.14%, 28.57%, and 47.14% in MD, SD, and VD, respectively, compared  
179 to ND (Table 3). We found no significant difference in SOC, TN, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N,  
180 SM, and BD between ND and LD (Table 3).

### 181 **$\alpha$ -diversity indices based on MiSeq sequencing**

182 For bacteria, MD yielded the highest richness value (Chao1 = 1187.75), while SD  
183 yielded the lowest (Chao1 = 1086.23). The Shannon index not only provides simple  
184 SR (the number of species present) but also the level of abundance of each species  
185 (species evenness) as distributed among all species in a community. ND yielded the  
186 highest diversity value (Shannon = 8.46) among the five samples, and SD yielded the  
187 lowest diversity value (Shannon = 8). From 962 to 1104 OTUs were detected in total  
188 for all samples at a 3% genetic distance. The progression of rarefaction curves  
189 (99.01%–99.26%; Good's coverage) was very close for all samples (S1 Table).

190 For fungi, LD also yielded the highest richness value (Chao1 = 645.85), followed  
191 by VD (Chao1 = 575.29), and ND yielded the lowest richness value (Chao1 = 517.94).  
192 VD yielded the highest diversity value (Shannon = 6.38), however, ND yielded the  
193 lowest diversity value (Shannon = 3.13). The number of OTUs ranged from 423 to 564  
194 in the samples, for which LD had the highest one and ND the lowest (S1 Table).

### 195 **Taxonomic composition based on MiSeq sequencing**

196 Bacterial OTUs could be assigned to 28 phyla, 156 families, and 170 genera. In total,  
197 20 different phyla (*Proteobacteria*, *Acidobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*,



198 *Chloroflexi*, *Gemmatimonadetes*, *Verrucomicrobia*, etc.) out of the 28 total bacterial  
199 phlotypes were common to the five libraries (Fig 2A), contributing from 99.84%,  
200 99.62%, 99.72%, 99.91%, and 99.74% of the total reads in the ND, LD, MD, SD, and  
201 VD libraries, respectively. *Proteobacteria* was the most abundant division,  
202 comprising 26.48% (350) of the OTUs and 44.18% (10 078) of the reads across all  
203 samples. *Acidobacteria*, the second most abundant phylum, comprised 14.83% (196)  
204 of the OTUs and 18.44% (4213) of the reads in all libraries. These two phyla  
205 collectively accounted for 60.88%, 66.83%, 64.31%, 63.65%, and 57.42% of the total  
206 reads in the ND, LD, MD, SD, and VD libraries, respectively (Fig 2A). However, the  
207 proportion of *Proteobacteria* exhibited low variability in the different samples,  
208 namely, ND (46.63%; 10 224 reads), LD (46.80%, 11,442 reads), MD (39.08%, 8,069  
209 reads), SD (49.68%, 10,637 reads) and VD (38.71%, 10,021reads). Additionally,  
210 reads from *Acidobacteria* fluctuated in the different samples, for which the proportion  
211 of reads was highest in MD (25.23%; 5210 reads).

212 Although members of the  $\alpha$ -*proteobacteria* class dominated the *proteobacteria*  
213 phylum (10.82% and 143 OTUs) in all libraries, they accounted for 30.34% of the  
214 total reads (Fig 2B). The subdivision of  $\beta$ -*proteobacteria*,  $\delta$ -*proteobacteria*, and  
215  $\gamma$ -*proteobacteria* classes comprised of 7.16%, 4.42%, and 2.21% of the total reads,  
216 respectively.

217 The fungal communities were assigned to 8 phyla, 78 families, and 138 genera.  
218 *Ascomycota* was the most dominant division, comprising 34.52% (339) of the OTUs  
219 and 44.43% of the total reads (Fig 3A). *Basidiomycota* was the second largest division,  
220 with 12.63% (124) of the OTUs and 29.92% of the total reads. These two phyla  
221 collectively accounted for 95.88%, 72.04%, 64.78%, 74.50%, and 64.55% of the total  
222 reads in ND, LD, MD, SD, and VD, respectively (Fig 3A). However, *Ascomycota*  
223 exhibited high variability in read abundance of the different samples; namely, in  
224 increasing order of abundance, ND (14.47%; 5641 reads), LD (37.90%; 13 649 reads),  
225 MD (48.06%; 20 251 reads), SD (63.35%; 24 980 reads), and VD (58.38%; 23 434  
226 reads). In contrast, *Basidiomycota* reads decreased with an increase in degradation  
227 severity; accordingly, ND had the highest read value (81.40%; 31 729 reads). Reads



228 from *Zygomycota* and *Glomeromycota* fluctuated in the different samples; namely,  
229 VD had the highest read value (Fig 3A).

230 On a family level, we found abundant unidentified fungal sequences in each  
231 sample. The total relative abundance of unidentified fungi in ND, LD, MD, SD, and  
232 VD were 9.65%, 40.06%, 46.40%, 43.89%, and 37.19%, respectively (Fig 3B).  
233 *Cortinariaceae* members dominated the Basidiomycota phylum, and the proportion of  
234 reads exhibited high variability in read abundance of the different samples; namely,  
235 ND (62.80%; 24 476 reads), LD (0.42%; 150 reads), MD (0.23%; 98 reads), SD  
236 (0.26%; 101 reads), and VD (0.22%; 90 reads). *Incertae-sedis*, the third most  
237 abundant group (7.84%; 77 OTUs), comprised 10.78% (4208) of the reads in all  
238 libraries. These three groups combined, namely, unidentified, *Cortinariaceae*, and  
239 *incertae-sedis*, comprised of greater than 53.21% of the total sequences from all five  
240 sample sites.

## 241 **Taxonomic composition based on MiSeq sequencing**

242 In order to analyze microbial community similarity among the five mixed samples,  
243 we generated heatmaps applying hierarchical cluster analysis. For bacteria, the  
244 heatmap (Fig 4A) was based on the top 20 abundant bacterial genera. The heatmap  
245 showed a two-sample cluster division. The first cluster was the ND and LD group,  
246 and the second cluster was the SD and VD group, which first clustered together  
247 before clustering with MD, resulting in the second SD, VD, and MD group. Results  
248 from PCA also showed that the bacterial communities of SD and VD grouped to the  
249 left of the graph along the PC1 axis, accounting for 41.08% of total variation, whereas  
250 ND and LD grouped along the PC2 axis, with a total variance of 31.92% (Fig 5A).

251 For fungi, the heatmap (Fig 4B) was based on the top 20 fungal families. The figure  
252 shows a two cluster sample division on a family rank level: ND and LD into one  
253 group, and SD, VD, and MD into another. The PCA score plot (Fig 5B) was in  
254 agreement with the heatmap, indicating high fungal community similarity between  
255 ND and MD and between MD, SD, and VD. ND and LD grouped to the right, and  
256 MD, SD, and VD grouped to the left of the graph along the PC1 axis, with a total

257 variance of 30.93%. The PC2 axis accounted for 26.42% of the total variances.

## 258 **Correlation between community structure and** 259 **environmental factors**

260 The Monte Carlo test showed that the total explanatory powers of measure variables  
261 explained 44.5% and 35.2% of the total variation in bacterial communities on the first  
262 and second axis, respectively (Fig 6A). Results showed that soil bacteria under  
263 different degradation stages was significantly correlated to soil  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N ( $P < 0.01$ ),  
264 SOC ( $P < 0.05$ ), TN ( $P < 0.05$ ), SM ( $P < 0.05$ ), and BGB ( $P < 0.05$ ), whereas soil  
265  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N, BD, AGB, etc. ( $P > 0.05$ ) had no obvious effect on bacteria (S2 Table).

266 For fungi, the Monte Carlo test showed that the total explanatory powers of the  
267 measured variables explained 44.3% and 27.0% of total variation in fungal  
268 communities on the first and second axis, respectively (Fig 6B). Results showed that  
269 soil fungi were significantly correlated to soil TN ( $P < 0.05$ ), SOC ( $P < 0.05$ ), SM ( $P$   
270  $< 0.05$ ), BD ( $P < 0.05$ ), BGB ( $P < 0.05$ ), and coverage ( $P < 0.05$ ) whereas soil  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N,  
271  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N, AGB, etc. ( $P > 0.05$ ) had no obvious effect on bacteria (S2 Table).

## 272 **Discussion**

273 This study investigated how soil bacterial and fungal communities vary with changes  
274 in specific soil and plant properties in the QTP while discerning which factors  
275 significantly influence associative microbial community structure with alpine meadow  
276 degradation.

## 277 **Soil microbial community characteristics and its** 278 **relationship with biotic and abiotic factors**

279 Consistent with previous studies [19,21], increasing meadow degradation in our study  
280 significantly decreased the soil nutrient status (Table 3). This was due to a decrease in  
281 plant coverage and biomass, a reduction in SM, and an increase in soil BD in  
282 conjunction with degradation severity (Tables 1 and 3), which could potentially lead  
283 to nutrient leaching and contribute to nutrient loss [31]. In our study, both the bacteria  
284 and fungi genera heatmaps showed a two-cluster sample division. The first cluster

285 was the ND and LD group, and the second cluster was the SD and VD group, which  
286 first clustered together before clustering with MD, resulting in the second SD, VD,  
287 and MD group. These results could be explained by a significant change in plant (i.e.,  
288 coverage and BGB) and soil (i.e., SOC, TN, NO<sub>3</sub>-N, NH<sub>4</sub>-N, SM, and BD) factors in  
289 MD, SD, and VD compared to ND, while ND and LD exhibited no significant  
290 difference in the above factors (Tables 1 and 3).

291 About 79.7% and 71.3% of variation in bacterial and fungal composition could  
292 be explained by soil physicochemical properties and plant characteristics, respectively  
293 (Fig 6A, B), indicating that soil nutrient (i.e., SOC and TN) and moisture content,  
294 plant coverage, and BGB could potentially be key factors in defining changes in  
295 microbial composition under conditions of meadow degradation. Similar to our results,  
296 previous studies have demonstrated that the factors listed above affect soil microbial  
297 communities [32–34]. Variability in SM may reduce soil water availability averages  
298 [35], leading to reduced soil microbial community C use efficiency [36] and  
299 ultimately shifting the biomass or ratios of fungi and bacteria in soil [37]. At present,  
300 a number of studies have focused on the effect of nitrogen (N) gradients on soil  
301 microbial communities. This is because ecosystems around the world are being  
302 subjected to elevated levels of N [38,39]. For example, Ramirez et al. (2012) [40]  
303 found that N fertilization significantly affects total bacterial community composition.  
304 Conversely, increased N fertilizer dosages could potentially have a negative impact on  
305 C cycling in soil while, at the same time, promoting fungal genera with known  
306 pathogenic traits [38]. Moreover, the significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) correlation found between  
307 bacterial and fungal communities and plant BGB (S2 Table) demonstrates that  
308 degradation-induced changes in plant species composition and biomass also exert  
309 strong effects on microbial communities. Wallenstein et al. (2007) [32] also suggested  
310 that plants strongly regulate microbial communities through the role they play in  
311 substrate supplies (e.g., litter, root turnover, and exudates) and by changing the  
312 physical environment in the active soil layer.

313 **Bacterial and fungal community response to meadow**

## 314 **degradation**

315 The bacterial phyla in meadow soil investigated in this study exhibited low variability  
316 in the different samples (Fig 2A); however, the composition of fungal phyla  
317 significantly changed under conditions of degradation severity (Fig 3A), indicating  
318 that fungal communities are more sensitive to degradation than bacterial communities.  
319 It was also reported that biotic and abiotic factors have a greater influence on fungi  
320 than bacteria [41]. The higher sensitivity of fungi that have been reported by some  
321 recent studies suggests that soil fungal communities are highly responsive to changes  
322 in SM and soil nutrient limitations than bacteria [42–44].

323 If fungal groups differ in their preference to substrate utilization processes [45],  
324 degradation-induced effects on biogeochemical properties will cause marked changes  
325 in specific species [46]. In our study, we consistently found that the dominate  
326 *Ascomycota* community structure significantly increased with increasing levels of  
327 meadow degradation severity (Fig 3A). Growth rates of *ascomycetes* were correlated  
328 to N availability, while their activity may dramatically accelerate C decomposition  
329 [47]. Additionally, the abundance of *Basidiomycota* significantly decreased in  
330 response to meadow degradation (Fig 3A). *Basidiomycetes* are widely recognized as  
331 lignin decomposers [48], and its capacity to utilize this recalcitrant substrate will  
332 likely hinder the development of this fungal group given that we detected a reduction  
333 in plant litter (biomass) with an increase in meadow degradation severity (Tables 1  
334 and 2). Specifically, members of the *Cortinariaceae* family dominated the  
335 Basidiomycota phylum, and the proportion of reads exhibited high variability in  
336 abundance in the different samples; namely, in decreasing order of abundance, ND  
337 (62.80%), LD (0.42%), MD (0.23%), SD (0.26%), and VD (0.22%). Therefore, the  
338 association between fungi and plants may be responsible for the higher sensitivity of  
339 fungal composition to degradation severity compared to the bacterial composition.

340 For the bacterial groups, the overall proportion of *Proteobacteria* generally  
341 decreased while *Actinobacteria* generally increased in MD and VD compared to ND  
342 and LD (Fig 2A). This could have been because many members of *Proteobacteria*

343 (particularly *α-proteobacteria*; Fig 2B) prefer nutrient-rich environments, whereas  
344 *Actinobacteria* are well adapted to oligotrophic environments [49,50]. Therefore,  
345 observed shifts are consistent with a decrease in the status of soil nutrients (i.e., C and  
346 N content) and the degradation of permafrost. Thus, degradation-induced  
347 environmental changes exert effects on microbial communities.

## 348 **Conclusions**

349 In conclusion, this study, using the high throughput Illumina MiSeq sequencing  
350 method, provided a detailed description of variation in alpine meadow bacterial and  
351 fungal communities under different levels of degradation severity. For bacterial  
352 communities, these differences likely resulted from combined differences in soil  
353 properties and plant characteristics (most closely associated with SOC, TN, SM,  
354 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, and BGB) rather than to single biotic or abiotic factors that combined to  
355 create the unique characteristics representative of each site. On the other hand,  
356 changes in soil fungal communities were mainly attributed to variations in SOC, TN,  
357 SM, BD, BGB, and plant coverage. Although this study will aid in our understanding  
358 of changes in soil microbial communities throughout the whole alpine meadow  
359 degradation process, further research into the mechanisms that underlie our findings  
360 would also be of great interest.

361

## 362 **Acknowledgements**

363 The study was financially supported by the National Key Research and Development  
364 Program of China (2016YFC0501803) and the National Science Foundation of China  
365 (41771229, 41771233).

## 366 **References**

- 367 1. Qiu J. Climate change is coming fast and furious to the Tibetan plateau.  
368 2008;454: 4.
- 369 2. You Q, Xue X, Peng F, Xu M, Duan H, Dong S. Comparison of ecosystem  
370 characteristics between degraded and intact alpine meadow in the  
371 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau, China. *Ecological Engineering*. 2014;71: 133–143.

- 372           doi:10.1016/j.ecoleng.2014.07.022
- 373    3.   Xue X, You Q, Peng F, Dong S, Duan H. Experimental Warming Aggravates  
374           Degradation-Induced Topsoil Drought in Alpine Meadows of the  
375           Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau: Experimental Warming Aggravates  
376           Degradation-Induced Topsoil Drought. *Land Degradation & Development*.  
377           2017; doi:10.1002/ldr.2763
- 378    4.   Zhang L, Su F, Yang D, Hao Z, Tong K. Discharge regime and simulation for  
379           the upstream of major rivers over Tibetan Plateau. *Journal of Geophysical  
380           Research: Atmospheres*. 2013;118: 8500–8518. doi:10.1002/jgrd.50665
- 381    5.   López-Pujol J, Zhang F-M, Sun H-Q, Ying T-S, Ge S. Centres of plant  
382           endemism in China: places for survival or for speciation? *Journal of  
383           Biogeography*. 2011;38: 1267–1280. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2699.2011.02504.x
- 384    6.   Piao S, Fang J, Ciais P, Peylin P, Huang Y, Sitch S, et al. The carbon balance of  
385           terrestrial ecosystems in China. *Nature*. 2009;458: 1009–1013.  
386           doi:10.1038/nature07944
- 387    7.   Wang Z, Zhang Y, Yang Y, Zhou W, Gang C, Zhang Y, et al. Quantitative  
388           assess the driving forces on the grassland degradation in the Qinghai–Tibet  
389           Plateau, in China. *Ecological Informatics*. 2016;33: 32–44.  
390           doi:10.1016/j.ecoinf.2016.03.006
- 391    8.   Ren X, Dong Z, Hu G, Zhang D, Li Q. A GIS-Based Assessment of  
392           Vulnerability to Aeolian Desertification in the Source Areas of the Yangtze and  
393           Yellow Rivers. *Remote Sensing*. 2016;8: 626. doi:10.3390/rs8080626
- 394    9.   Wang CT, Long RJ, Wang QL, Jing ZC, Shi JJ. Changes in plant diversity,  
395           biomass and soil C, in alpine meadows at different degradation stages in the  
396           headwater region of three rivers, China. *Land Degradation & Development*.  
397           2009;20: 187–198. doi:10.1002/ldr.879
- 398    10. Xue X, Guo J, Han B, Sun Q, Liu L. The effect of climate warming and  
399           permafrost thaw on desertification in the Qinghai–Tibetan Plateau.  
400           *Geomorphology*. 2009;108: 182–190. doi:10.1016/j.geomorph.2009.01.004
- 401    11. Gessner MO, Swan CM, Dang CK, McKie BG, Bardgett RD, Wall DH, et al.

- 402 Diversity meets decomposition. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*. 2010;25:  
403 372–380. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2010.01.010
- 404 12. Allison SD, Martiny JBH. Resistance, resilience, and redundancy in microbial  
405 communities. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2008;105:  
406 11512–11519. doi:10.1073/pnas.0801925105
- 407 13. Zhang Y, Dong S, Gao Q, Liu S, Zhou H, Ganjurjav H, et al. Climate change  
408 and human activities altered the diversity and composition of soil microbial  
409 community in alpine grasslands of the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. *Science of The  
410 Total Environment*. 2016;562: 353–363. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.03.221
- 411 14. Chen S, Liu W, Qin X, Liu Y, Zhang T, Chen K, et al. Response characteristics  
412 of vegetation and soil environment to permafrost degradation in the upstream  
413 regions of the Shule River Basin. *Environmental Research Letters*. 2012;7:  
414 045406. doi:10.1088/1748-9326/7/4/045406
- 415 15. Kumar M, Männistö MK, van Elsas JD, Nissinen RM. Plants impact structure  
416 and function of bacterial communities in Arctic soils. *Plant and Soil*. 2016;399:  
417 319–332. doi:10.1007/s11104-015-2702-3
- 418 16. Chu H, Neufeld JD, Walker VK, Grogan P. The Influence of Vegetation Type  
419 on the Dominant Soil Bacteria, Archaea, and Fungi in a Low Arctic Tundra  
420 Landscape. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*. 2011;75: 1756.  
421 doi:10.2136/sssaj2011.0057
- 422 17. Myers RT, Zak DR, White DC, Peacock A. Landscape-Level Patterns of  
423 Microbial Community Composition and Substrate Use in Upland Forest  
424 Ecosystems. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*. 2001;65: 359.  
425 doi:10.2136/sssaj2001.652359x
- 426 18. Ranjard L, Richaume A. Quantitative and qualitative microscale distribution of  
427 bacteria in soil. *Research in Microbiology*. 2001;152: 707–716.  
428 doi:10.1016/S0923-2508(01)01251-7
- 429 19. Dong SK, Wen L, Li YY, Wang XX, Zhu L, Li XY. Soil-Quality Effects of  
430 Grassland Degradation and Restoration on the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. *Soil  
431 Science Society of America Journal*. 2012;76: 2256.



- 432           doi:10.2136/sssaj2012.0092
- 433 20. Zhang X, Xu S, Li C, Zhao L, Feng H, Yue G, et al. The soil carbon/nitrogen  
434 ratio and moisture affect microbial community structures in alkaline  
435 permafrost-affected soils with different vegetation types on the Tibetan plateau.  
436 *Research in Microbiology*. 2014;165: 128–139.  
437 doi:10.1016/j.resmic.2014.01.002
- 438 21. Wu GL, Ren GH, Dong QM, Shi JJ, Wang YL. Above- and belowground  
439 response along degradation gradient in an alpine grassland of the  
440 Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. *CLEAN - Soil, Air, Water*. 2014;42: 319–323.  
441 doi:10.1002/clen.201200084
- 442 22. Stark S, Männistö MK, Eskelinen A. When do grazers accelerate or decelerate  
443 soil carbon and nitrogen cycling in tundra? A test of theory on grazing effects in  
444 fertile and infertile habitats. *Oikos*. 2015;124: 593–602. doi:10.1111/oik.01355
- 445 23. Liu S, Zamanian K, Schleuss P-M, Zarebanadkouki M, Kuzyakov Y.  
446 Degradation of Tibetan grasslands: Consequences for carbon and nutrient cycles.  
447 *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*. 2018;252: 93–104.  
448 doi:10.1016/j.agee.2017.10.011
- 449 24. Wang S, Duan J, Xu G, Wang Y, Zhang Z, Rui Y, et al. Effects of warming and  
450 grazing on soil N availability, species composition, and ANPP in an alpine  
451 meadow. *Ecology*. 2012;93: 2365–2376. doi:10.1890/11-1408.1
- 452 25. Duan Y, Wu F, Wang W, He D, Gu J-D, Feng H, et al. The microbial  
453 community characteristics of ancient painted sculptures in Maijishan Grottoes,  
454 China. Chaturvedi V, editor. *PLOS ONE*. 2017;12: e0179718.  
455 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0179718
- 456 26. Zeng C, Zhang F, Wang Q, Chen Y, Joswiak DR. Impact of alpine meadow  
457 degradation on soil hydraulic properties over the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau.  
458 *Journal of Hydrology*. 2013;478: 148–156. doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2012.11.058
- 459 27. Dennis KL, Wang Y, Blatner NR, Wang S, Saadalla A, Trudeau E, et al.  
460 Adenomatous polyps are driven by microbe-instigated focal inflammation and  
461 are controlled by IL-10-Producing T cells. *Cancer Research*. 2013;73:

- 462 5905–5913. doi:10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-13-1511
- 463 28. White TJ, Bruns T, Lee S, Taylor J. Amplification and direct sequencing of  
464 fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics, in: PCR Protocols. Elsevier;  
465 1990. pp. 315–322. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-372180-8.50042-1
- 466 29. Schloss PD, Gevers D, Westcott SL. Reducing the Effects of PCR Amplification  
467 and Sequencing Artifacts on 16S rRNA-Based Studies. Gilbert JA, editor. PLoS  
468 ONE. 2011;6: e27310. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0027310
- 469 30. Giaramida L, Manage PM, Edwards C, Singh BK, Lawton LA. Bacterial  
470 communities' response to microcystins exposure and nutrient availability:  
471 Linking degradation capacity to community structure. International  
472 Biodeterioration & Biodegradation. 2013;84: 111–117.  
473 doi:10.1016/j.ibiod.2012.05.036
- 474 31. Mchunu C, Chaplot V. Land degradation impact on soil carbon losses through  
475 water erosion and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Geoderma. 2012;177–178: 72–79.  
476 doi:10.1016/j.geoderma.2012.01.038
- 477 32. Wallenstein MD, McMahon S, Schimel J. Bacterial and fungal community  
478 structure in Arctic tundra tussock and shrub soils. FEMS Microbiology Ecology.  
479 2007;59: 428–435. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6941.2006.00260.x
- 480 33. He Z, Piceno Y, Deng Y, Xu M, Lu Z, DeSantis T, et al. The phylogenetic  
481 composition and structure of soil microbial communities shifts in response to  
482 elevated carbon dioxide. The ISME Journal. 2012;6: 259–272.  
483 doi:10.1038/ismej.2011.99
- 484 34. Jumpponen A, Jones KL. Tallgrass prairie soil fungal communities are resilient  
485 to climate change. Fungal Ecology. 2014;10: 44–57.  
486 doi:10.1016/j.funeco.2013.11.003
- 487 35. Fay PA, Blair JM, Smith MD, Nippert JB, Carlisle JD, Knapp AK. Relative  
488 effects of precipitation variability and warming on tallgrass prairie ecosystem  
489 function. Biogeosciences. 2011;8: 3053–3068. doi:10.5194/bg-8-3053-2011
- 490 36. Zeglin LH, Bottomley PJ, Jumpponen A, Rice CW, Arango M, Lindsley A, et al.  
491 Altered precipitation regime affects the function and composition of soil

- 492 microbial communities on multiple time scales. *Ecology*. 2013;94: 2334–2345.  
493 doi:10.1890/12-2018.1
- 494 37. Cregger MA, Schadt CW, McDowell NG, Pockman WT, Classen AT. Response  
495 of the Soil Microbial Community to Changes in Precipitation in a Semiarid  
496 Ecosystem. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2012;78: 8587–8594.  
497 doi:10.1128/AEM.02050-12
- 498 38. Paungfoo-Lonhienne C, Yeoh YK, Kasinadhuni NRP, Lonhienne TGA,  
499 Robinson N, Hugenholtz P, et al. Nitrogen fertilizer dose alters fungal  
500 communities in sugarcane soil and rhizosphere. *Scientific Reports*. 2015;5.  
501 doi:10.1038/srep08678
- 502 39. Leff JW, Jones SE, Prober SM, Barberán A, Borer ET, Firn JL, et al. Consistent  
503 responses of soil microbial communities to elevated nutrient inputs in  
504 grasslands across the globe. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*.  
505 2015;112: 10967–10972. doi:10.1073/pnas.1508382112
- 506 40. Ramirez KS, Craine JM, Fierer N. Consistent effects of nitrogen amendments on  
507 soil microbial communities and processes across biomes. *Global Change  
508 Biology*. 2012;18: 1918–1927. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2012.02639.x
- 509 41. Nielsen UN, Osler GHR, Campbell CD, Burslem DFRP, Van Der Wal R. The  
510 influence of vegetation type, soil properties and precipitation on the  
511 composition of soil mite and microbial communities at the landscape scale:  
512 Biogeography of mites and microbes. *Journal of Biogeography*. 2010;37:  
513 1317–1328. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2699.2010.02281.x
- 514 42. Hawkes CV, Hartley IP, Ineson P, Fitter AH. Soil temperature affects carbon  
515 allocation within arbuscular mycorrhizal networks and carbon transport from  
516 plant to fungus. *Global Change Biology*. 2008;14: 1181–1190.  
517 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2007.01535.x
- 518 43. Lauber CL, Strickland MS, Bradford MA, Fierer N. The influence of soil  
519 properties on the structure of bacterial and fungal communities across land-use  
520 types. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 2008;40: 2407–2415.  
521 doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.05.021

- 522 44. Dooley SR, Treseder KK. The effect of fire on microbial biomass: a  
523 meta-analysis of field studies. *Biogeochemistry*. 2012;109: 49–61.  
524 doi:10.1007/s10533-011-9633-8
- 525 45. McGuire KL, Bent E, Borneman J, Majumder A, Allison SD, Treseder KK.  
526 Functional diversity in resource use by fungi. *Ecology*. 2010;91: 2324–2332.  
527 doi:10.1890/09-0654.1
- 528 46. Allison SD, Treseder KK. Warming and drying suppress microbial activity and  
529 carbon cycling in boreal forest soils. *Global Change Biology*. 2008;14:  
530 2898–2909. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2008.01716.x
- 531 47. Fontaine S, Henault C, Aamor A, Bdioui N, Bloor JMG, Maire V, et al. Fungi  
532 mediate long term sequestration of carbon and nitrogen in soil through their  
533 priming effect. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 2011;43: 86–96.  
534 doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2010.09.017
- 535 48. Edgar RC. Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST.  
536 *Bioinformatics*. 2010;26: 2460–2461. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq461
- 537 49. Saul DJ, Aislabie JM, Brown CE, Harris L, Foght JM. Hydrocarbon  
538 contamination changes the bacterial diversity of soil from around Scott Base,  
539 Antarctica. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*. 2005;53: 141–155.  
540 doi:10.1016/j.femsec.2004.11.007
- 541 50. Yergeau E, Bokhorst S, Kang S, Zhou J, Greer CW, Aerts R, et al. Shifts in soil  
542 microorganisms in response to warming are consistent across a range of  
543 Antarctic environments. *The ISME Journal*. 2012;6: 692–702.  
544 doi:10.1038/ismej.2011.124

545

## 546 **Legends**

547 **Fig 1. The location of the sampling site.**

548 **Table 1. Properties of plant community at different degraded alpine meadow**  
549 **(n=3).**

550 **Table 2. Properties of plant AGB and proportion at different degraded alpine**

551 meadow (n=3).

552 **Table 3. Properties of soil at different degraded alpine meadows (n=3,**  
553 **depth=0-10cm).**

554 **Fig 2. Relative abundance of the bacterial community at the phylum (A) level**  
555 **and class distribution of proteobacteria (B).**

556 **Fig 3. Relative abundance of the fungal community at the phylum (A) and**  
557 **family(B) level.**

558 **Fig 4. Heatmaps representation and cluster analysis of the microbial community**  
559 **among five samples.**

560 **Fig 5. The results of bacterial (A) and fungal (B) communities for the five mixed**  
561 **samples according to the principal components analysis (PCA).**

562 **Fig 6. Relationships between soil and plant properties (arrows) and bacterial (A)**  
563 **and fungal (B) community structure according to the redundancy analysis**  
564 **(RDA). (A red solid arrow line means  $P < 0.05$ ; A black dashed line means  $P > 0.05$ ).**

565

## 566 **Supporting information**

567 **S1 Table.** The results of MiSeq sequencing and  $\alpha$ -diversity estimates of the five  
568 mixed samples.

569 **S2 Table.** Correlations between environmental factors with the ordination axis and  
570 significance test of single variables for the bacteria and fungi community structure  
571 obtained from the RDA results.



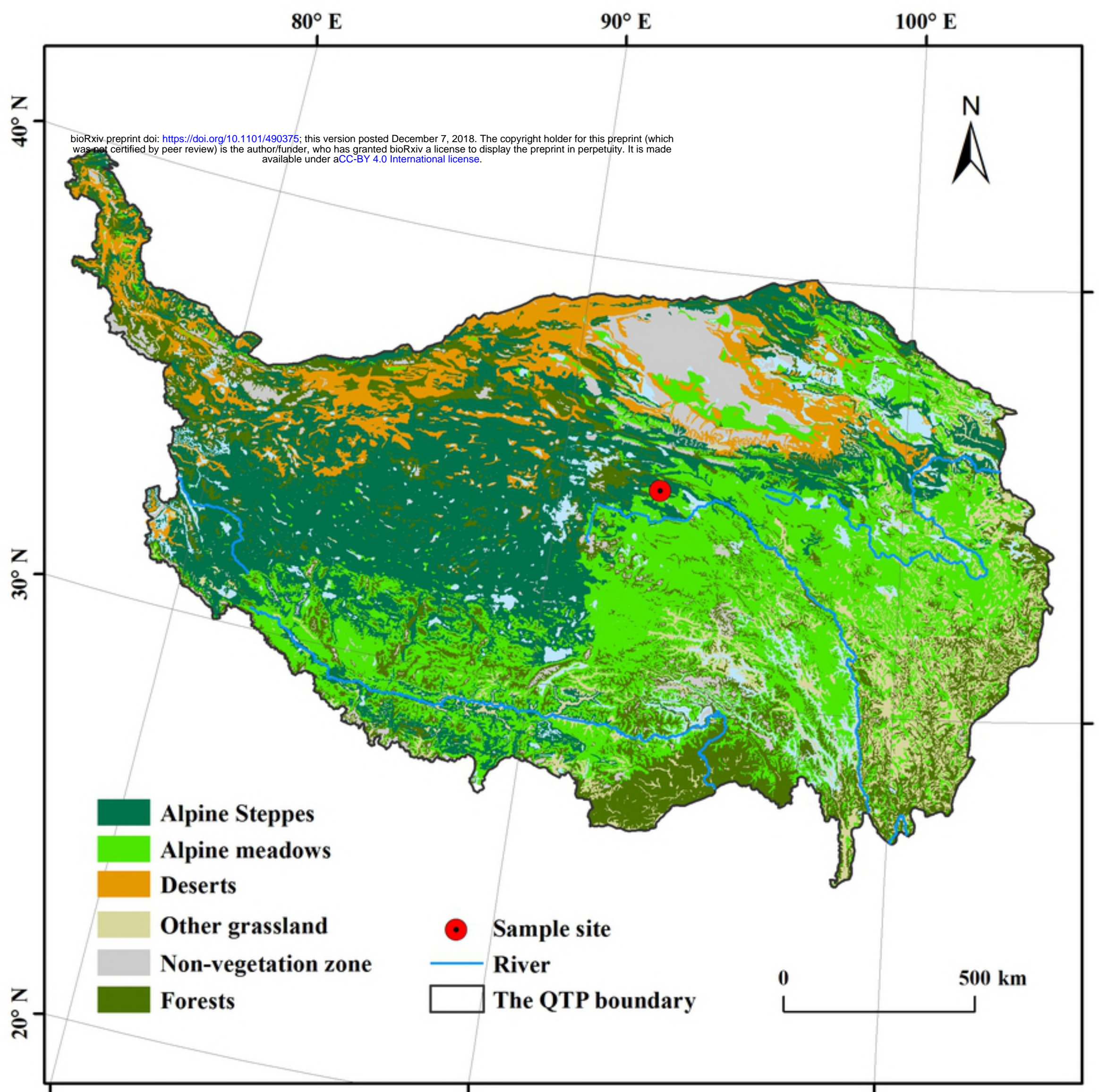


Fig 1. The location of the sampling site



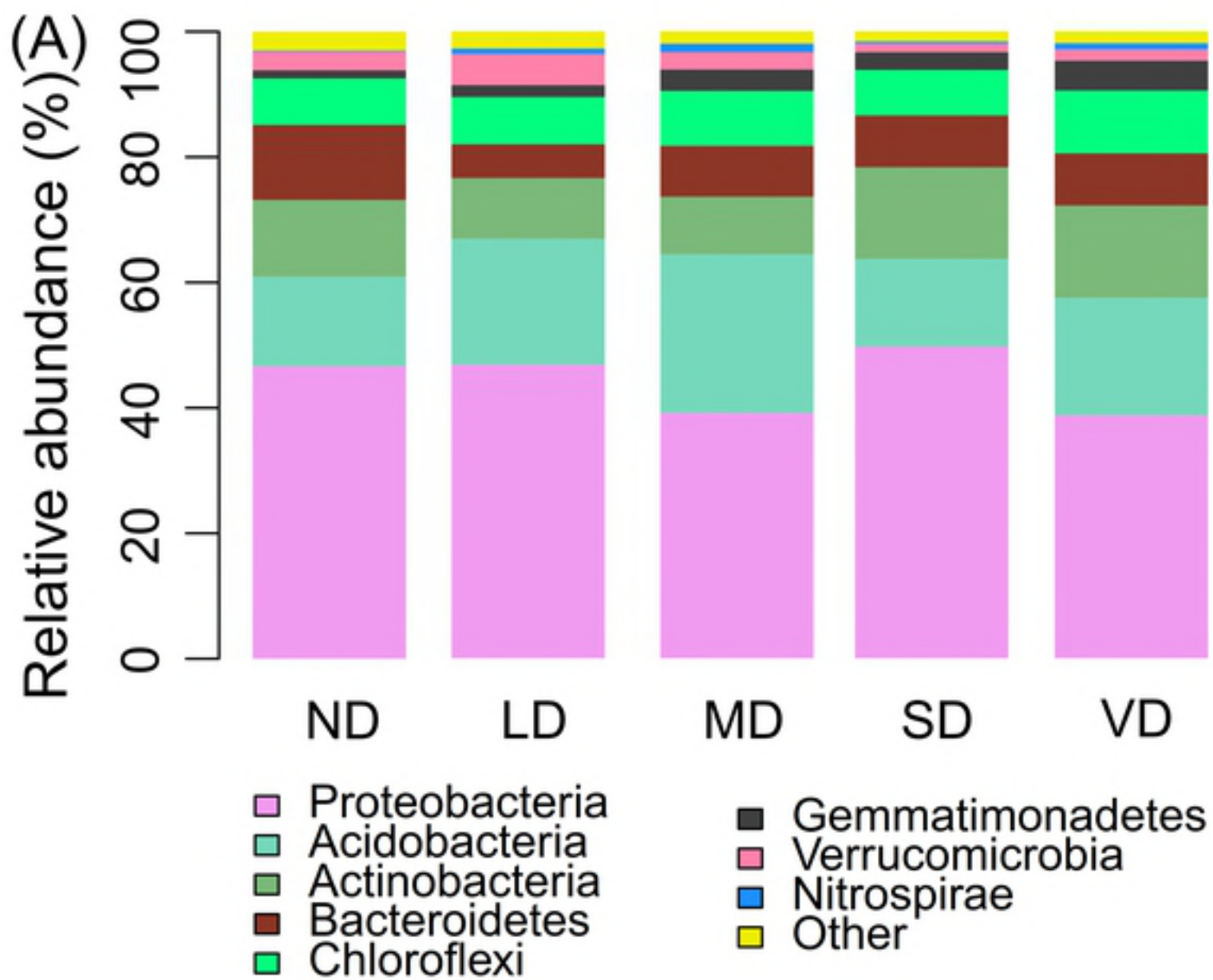


Fig 2A. Relative abundance of the bacterial community at the ph



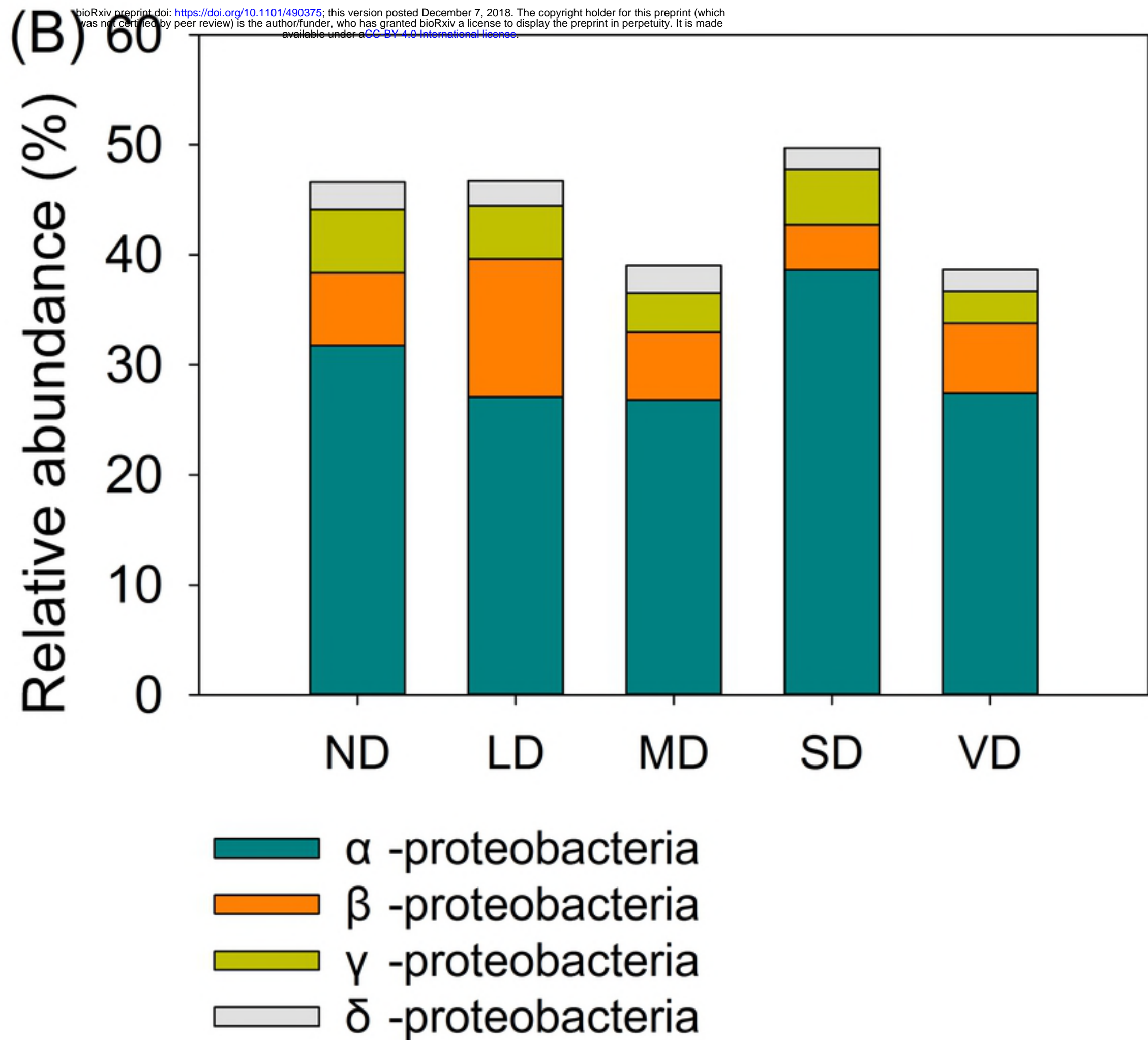


Fig 2B. Relative abundance of proteobacteria at the class (B)level

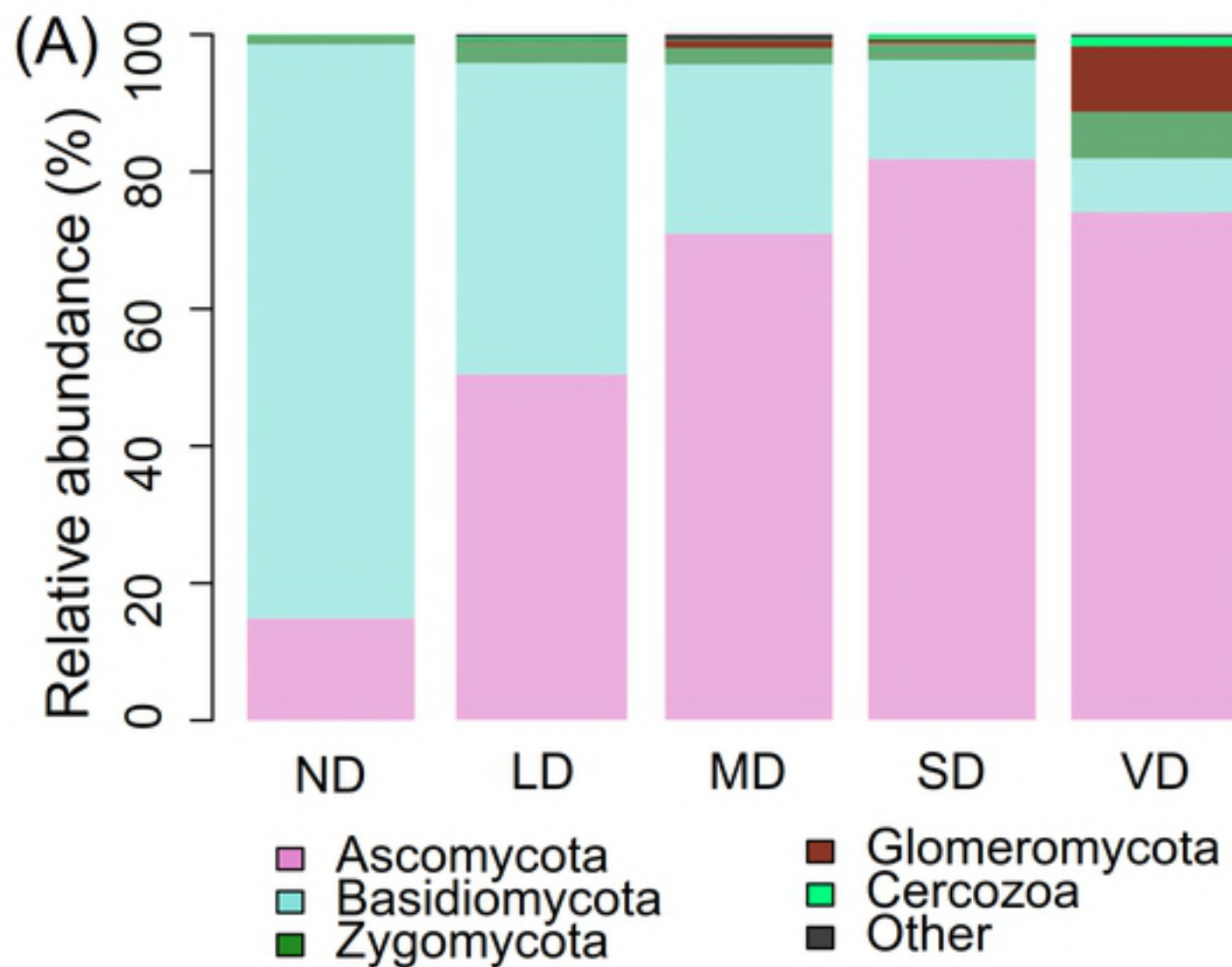


Fig 3A. Relative abundance of the fungal community at the phylum

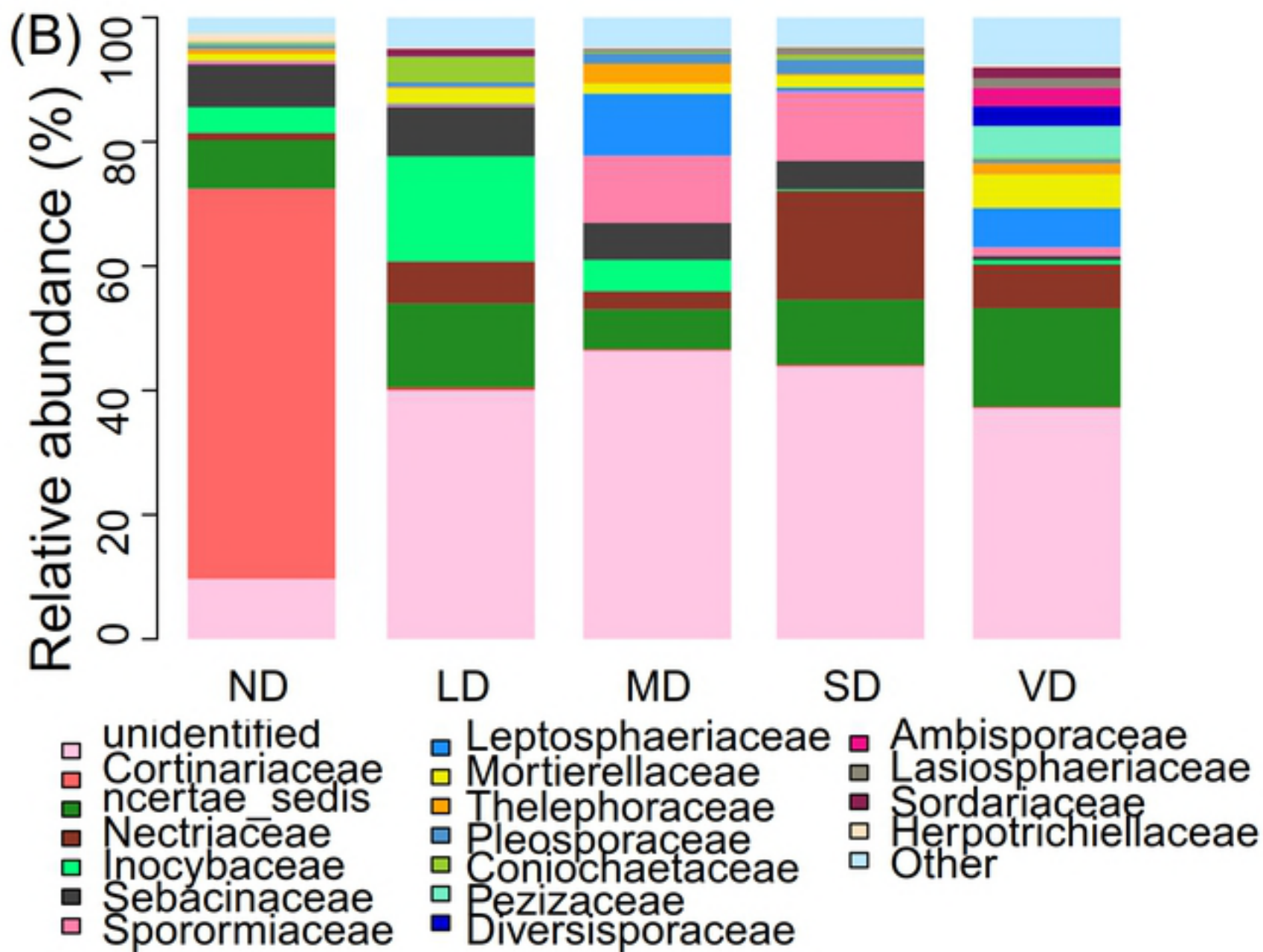


Fig 3B. Relative abundance of the fungal community at the famil

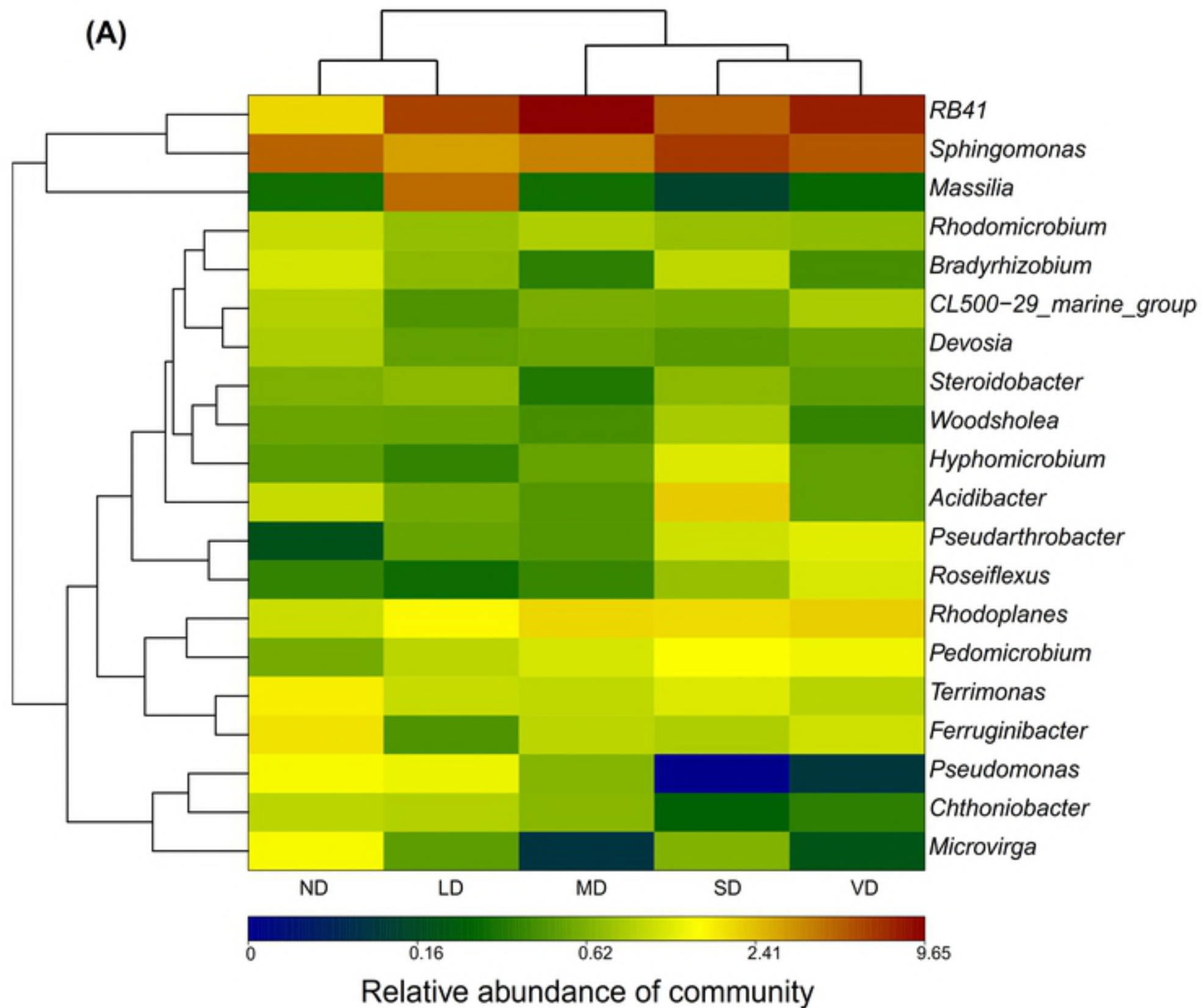


Fig 4A. Heatmaps representation and cluster analysis of the mic



(B)

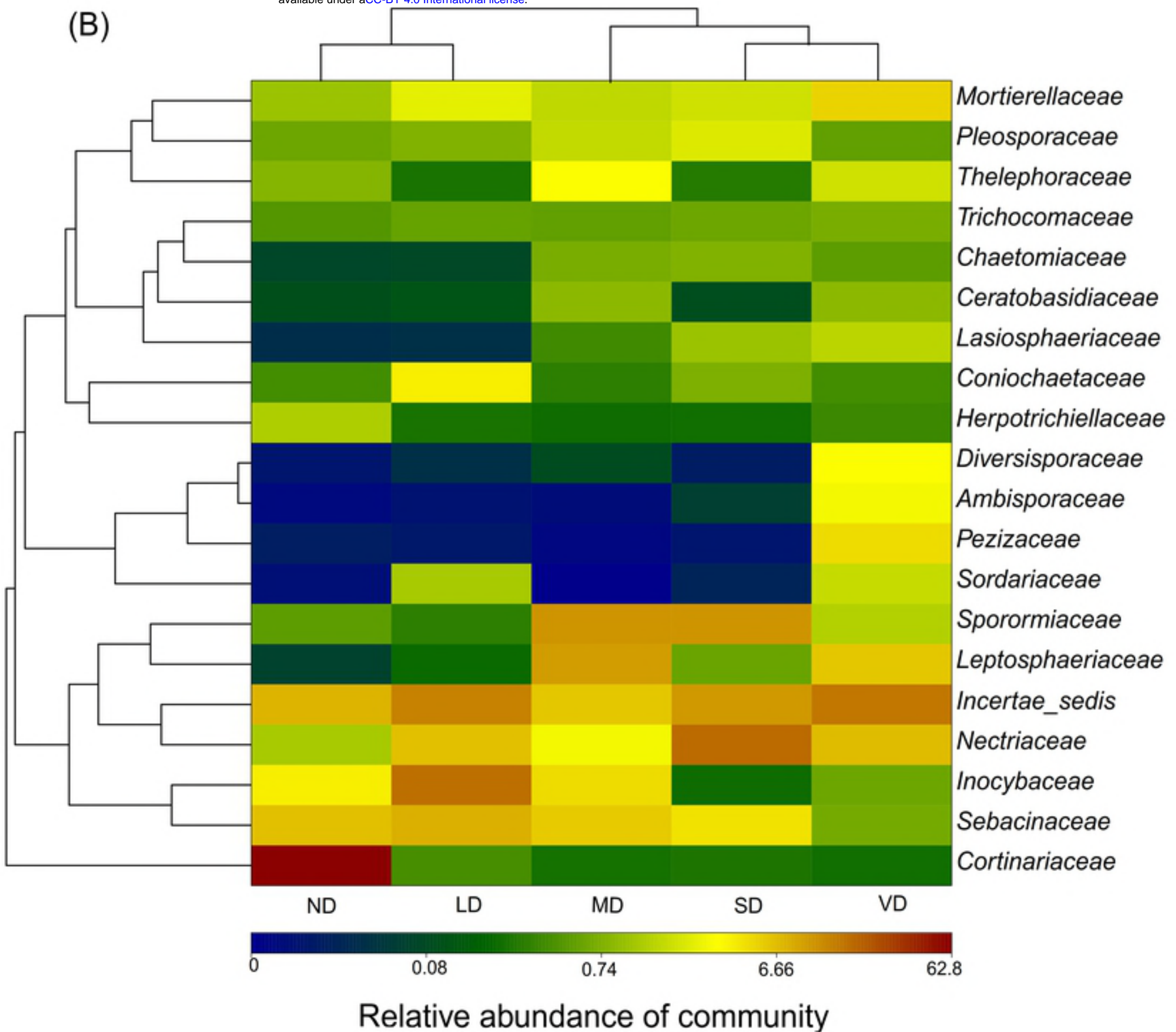


Fig 4B. Heatmaps representation and cluster analysis of the fung

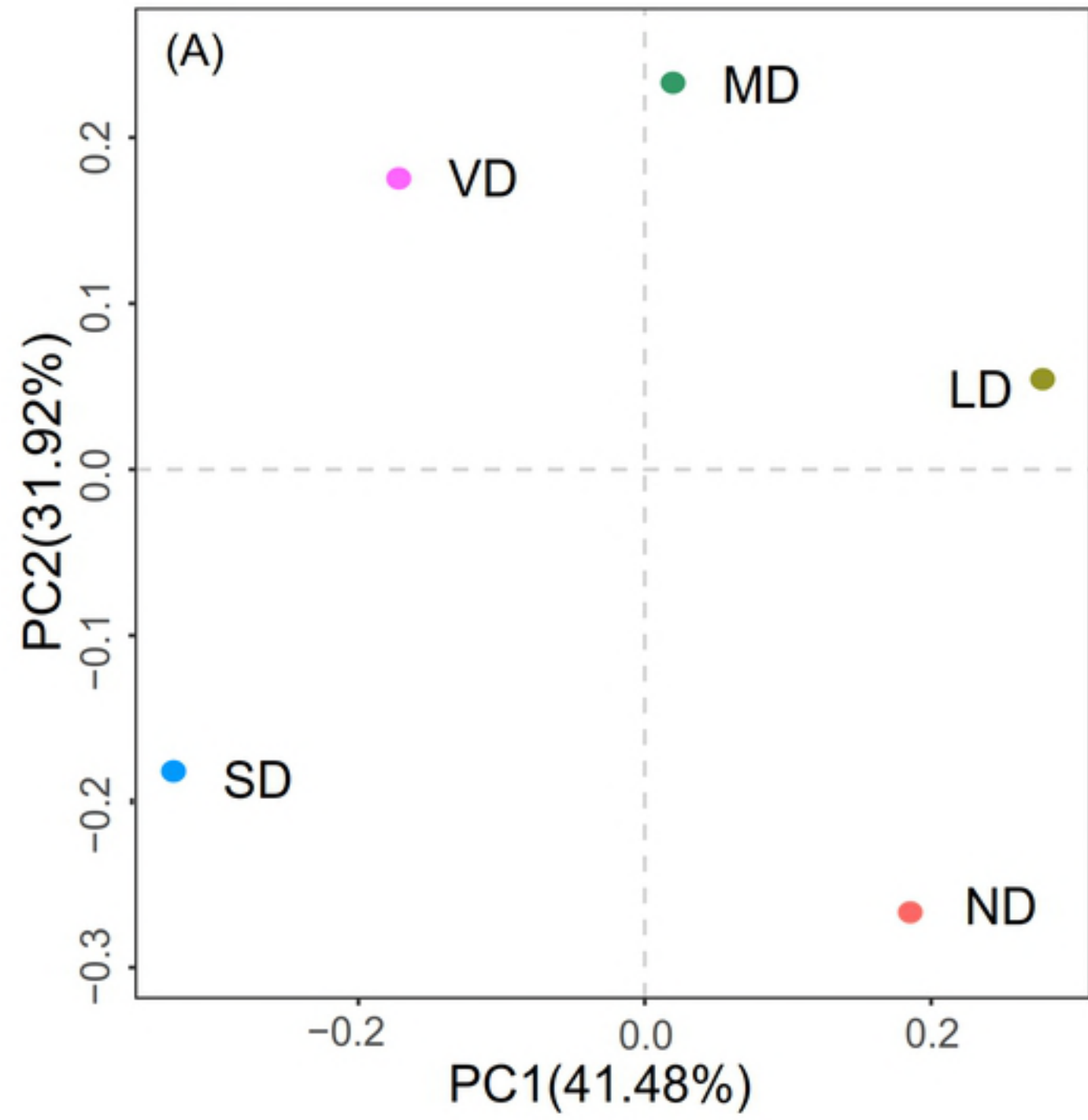


Fig 5A. The results of bacterial (A) communities for the five mixe

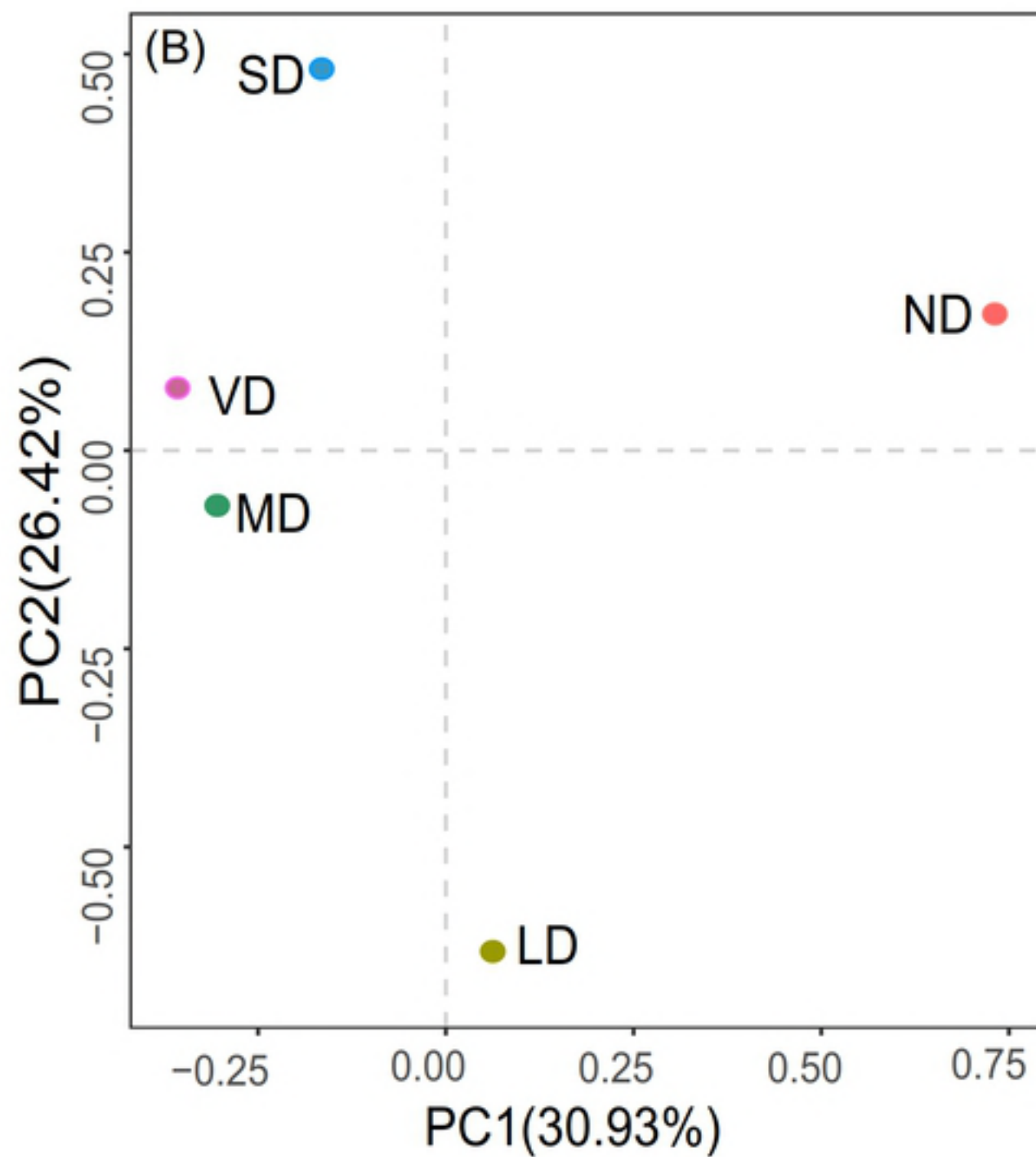


Fig 5B. The results of fungal (B) communities for the five mixed s



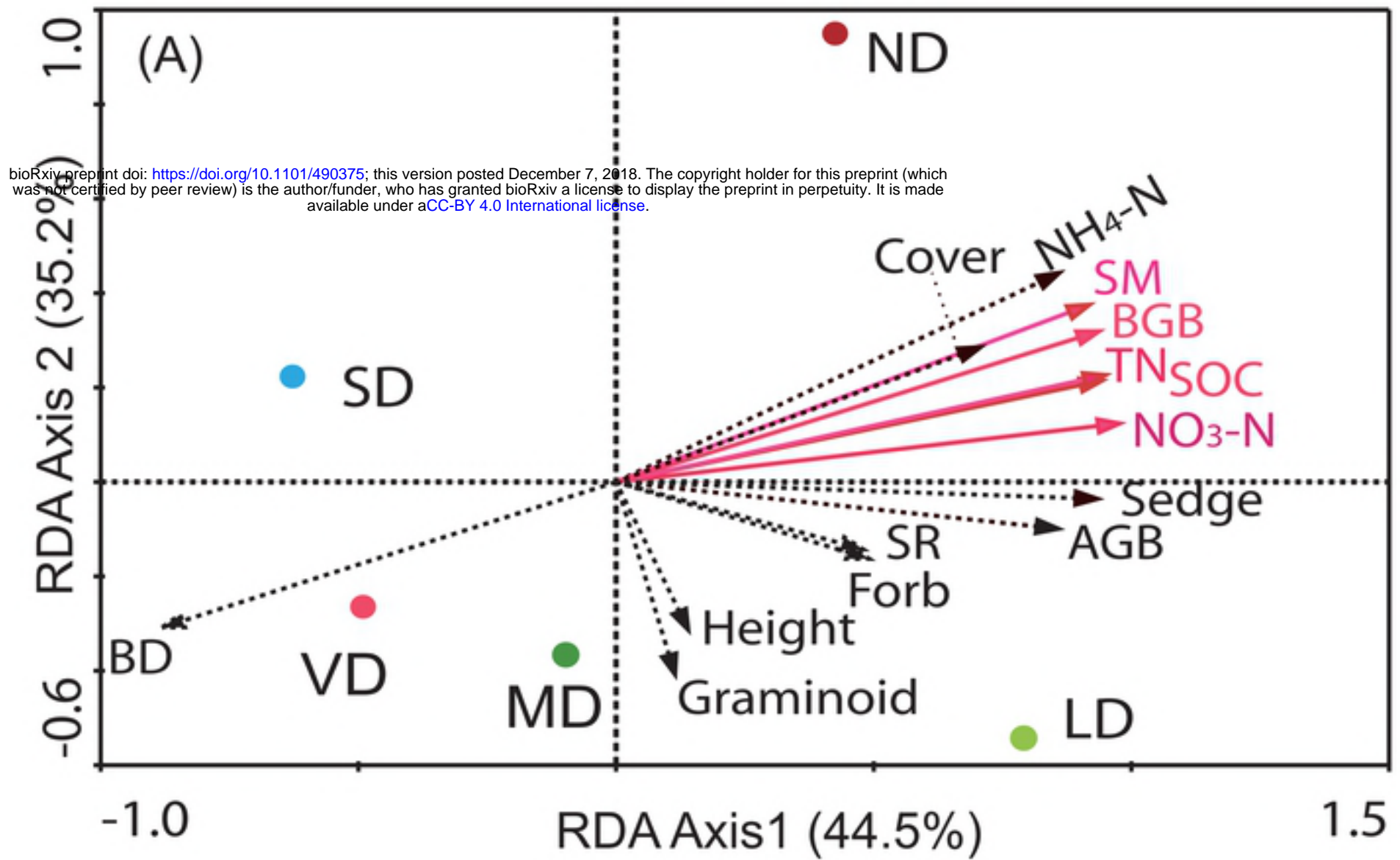


Fig 6A. Relationships between soil and plant properties (arrow)

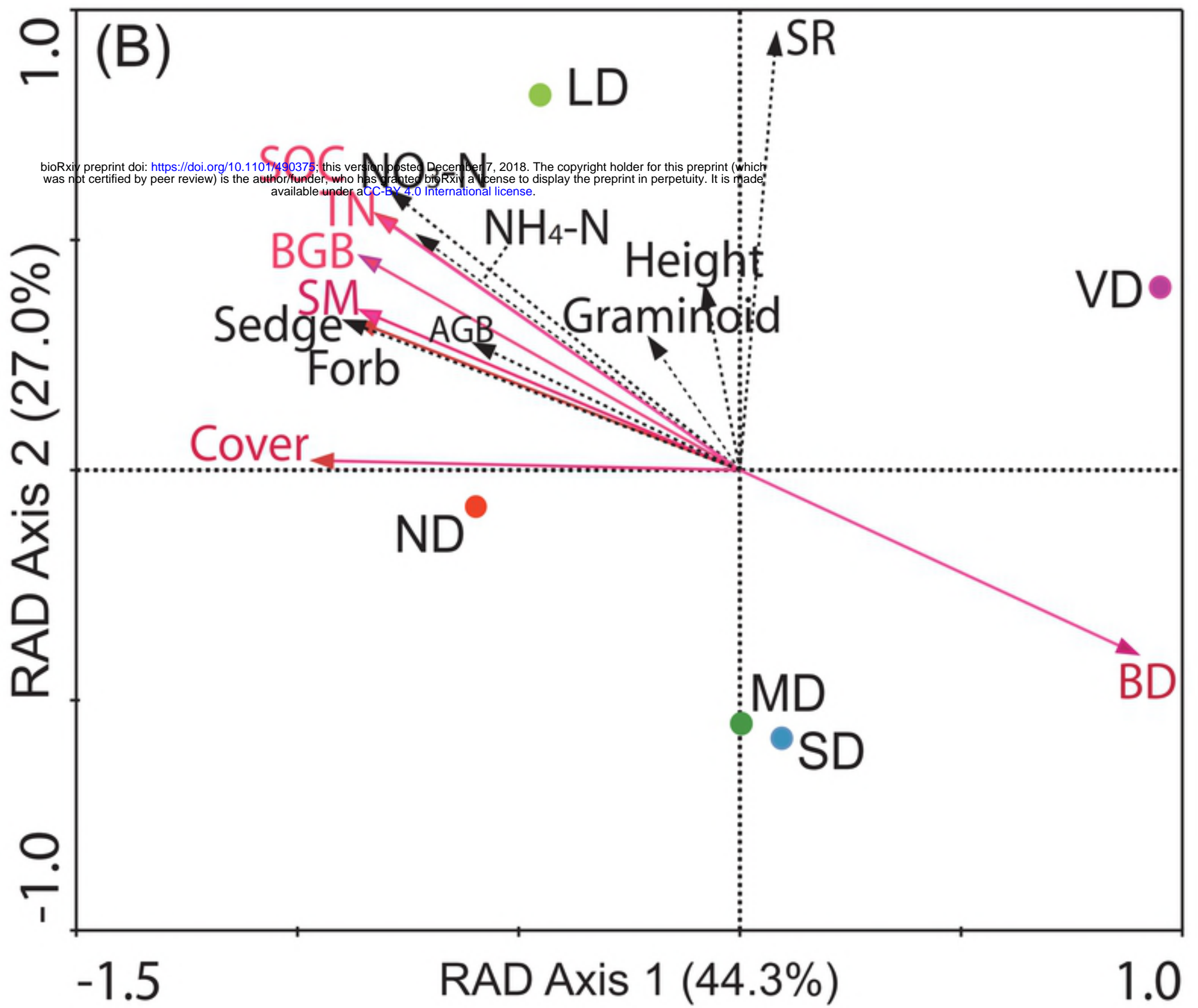


Fig 6B. Relationships between soil and plant properties (arrow

**Table 1. Properties of plant community at different degraded alpine meadow (n=3)**

Items	ND	LD	MD	SD	VD
<b>Plant coverage (%)</b>	91.33±1.78ab	99.67±0.27a	61.67±5.04c	75.33±6.15bc	14±4.49d
<b>Plant height (cm)</b>	1.63±0.27a	2.47±0.08a	1.66±0.06a	2.32±0.33a	1.89±0.17a
<b>Species richness (No./m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	6.67±0.72a	7±0.82a	6±0.82a	6±0.47a	7±0.47a
<b>Above-ground biomass (g/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	241.63±1.81ab	383.85±43.19a	203.11±4.94bc	185.78±50.39bc	60.86±15.39c
<b>Blow-ground biomass (g/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	1918.45±48.36a	1882.14±310.92ab	861.30±205.47abc	759.05±25.54bc	630.79±237.42c

Note: The data at the table are showed by average value ± standard error. Data with the different letter in same row are significantly different (P<0.05). The same below.

**Table 2. Properties of plant AGB and proportion at different degraded alpine meadow (n=3)**

Degradation gradients	Above-ground biomass (g/m <sup>2</sup> )	graminoids		sedges		forbs	
		biomass (g/m <sup>2</sup> )	proportion	biomass (g/m <sup>2</sup> )	proportion	biomass (g/m <sup>2</sup> )	proportion
			(%)		(%)		(%)
ND	241.63±1.81ab	-	-	190.22±5.35ab	78.71±1.87a	51.41±4.36a	21.29±1.87a
LD	383.85±43.20a	24.59±20.08a	16.16±4.40a	261.93±38.21a	67.45±3.96a	97.33±6.81a	27.16±5.33a
MD	203.11±4.94bc	-	-	159.26±7.21ab	78.29±1.75a	43.85±2.46a	21.71±1.75a
SD	185.78±50.40bc	21.96±9.98a	26.36±3.73a	87.19±32.50bc	49.79±10.67 a	76.63±27.80a	41.4±10.04a
VD	60.85±15.39c	3.11±2.54a	19.76±5.38a	28.52±3.97c	50.76±5.39a	29.22±12.52a	42.65±7.83a

**Table 3. Properties of soil at different degraded alpine meadows (n=3, depth=0-10cm)**

Items	ND	LD	MD	SD	VD
Organic carbon (SOC, g/kg)	15.69±1.10a	17.95±0.42a	5.06±0.62b	5.16±0.29b	3.74±0.49b
Total nitrogen (TN, g/kg)	1.27±0.06a	1.4±0.03a	0.48±0.03b	0.44±0.01b	0.38±0.03b
Nitrate nitrogen (mg/kg)	14.07±0.23b	16.37±0.56a	7.26±0.55c	5.58±0.12c	5.96±0.18c
Ammonium nitrogen (mg/kg)	16.81±0.64a	14.73±0.22a	8.75±0.60b	8.39±0.23b	9.54±0.78b
Soil moisture content (%)	27.61±0.69a	23.46±0.42a	15.58±0.84b	9.48±0.79c	9.19±1.00c
Soil bulk density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	0.70±0.01b	0.67±0.02b	0.96±0.03a	0.90±0.04a	1.03±0.02a