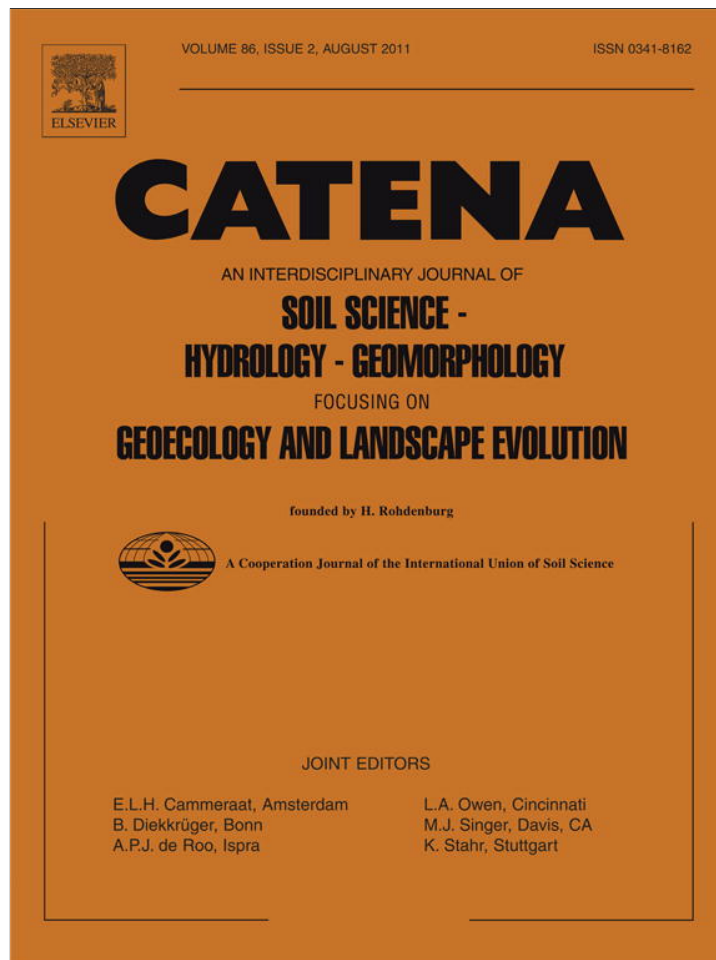


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Changes in soil properties across a chronosequence of vegetation restoration on the Loess Plateau of China

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ABSTRACT

Soil fertility is important for vegetation growth and productivity. The relationship between vegetation and soil fertility is important for both scientific and practical reasons. However, the effects of soil fertility on vegetation development and succession are poorly documented on the Loess Plateau. In this study, we compared soil properties of the Yanhe Watershed in northern Shaanxi across five different land uses (shrubland, farmland, natural grassland, woodland and artificial grassland) and a chronosequence of soils undergoing restoration for 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40 and 45 years. We found that revegetation had a positive effect on soil bulk density decrease, total porosity and capillary porosity increase in the surface soil layers but not in the subsurface layer. Additionally, soil organic matter, total nitrogen, available nitrogen and available potassium were greater at shrubland and woodland sites compared with other land uses. Total phosphorus and available phosphorus were greater at farmland sites. Results of the study indicate that revegetation on eroded soil can produce important increases in soil fertility on older plantations and in areas with natural succession.

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1. Introduction

Past erosion in the Loess Plateau of China has been severe. As a consequence, the plateau's soils are now thin and nutrient poor (Li and Shao, 2003a,b). Additionally, overexploitation of the remaining vegetation further exacerbates land degradation and reduces soil nutrients and the supply of fuel and fodder in this area (Zha and Tang, 2003). Generally, soil structure degradation results in a reduction of total porosity and pore continuity (Dias and Northcliff, 1985), thereby reducing both soil aeration and water transport capabilities (Berger and Hager, 2000). This process yields barren soils that inhibit further plant growth (Wang et al., 2002). Hence, understanding declines in soil fertility is important for vegetation restoration, especially when converting agricultural land to reforested plantations or grassland. Additionally, there is need to understand natural vegetation recovery and its importance in soil rehabilitation on the plateau because very little natural vegetation exists. Better understanding of these processes will help guide current restoration of vegetation in western China.

Soil recovery during secondary vegetation succession has been recently studied (Chang et al., 1999; Lovich and Bainbridge, 1999; Wang et al., 2002). This attention on recovery shifts the focus from the examination of the soil properties of reclaimed lands in the postdefor-

estation process (Zheng and Zhang, 2002) to the contribution of revegetation or natural vegetation recovery (Zhang et al., 2004). Different vegetation types can be found within a short distance from a disturbed area simply because of changes in soil fertility levels (Harrington, 1991). In many ecosystems, especially in semiarid climates, vegetation productivity may be limited by nutrient availability (Aaron et al., 2001; Aerts and Chapin, 2000). In general, biomass and soil nutrients change substantially with plant age, and nutrient limitation is common during plant growth (Anderson and Ingram, 1989; Shao et al., 1996).

Human activities have greatly influenced the ecosystems on the Loess Plateau. Over the past century, population growth has resulted in fragmentation and degradation of the environment (Fu et al., 2000). To withstand further deterioration of the natural ecosystems, the Chinese government has launched a series of nationwide conservation projects focusing on the recovery of damaged ecosystems. One of the most pressing tasks involves the recovery of the vegetation because of its crucial role in the development of sustainable agriculture.

Although the study of degradation usually focuses on anthropogenic influences, the study of recovery is more important because it provides recommendations for eco-environmental reconstruction or rehabilitation. Recent research has addressed the influence of vegetation recovery on soil properties (An et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2003; Stolte et al., 2003). However, changes in soil properties during long-term vegetation recovery on the Loess Plateau still require thorough study. Research investigating changes in soil properties is necessary to understand the ecological consequences of vegetation recovery (Paniagua et al., 1999). In the semiarid area of the plateau,

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vegetation recovery is consistently nutrient limited. Few studies have addressed this issue. Studies of long-term changes in soil properties under natural revegetation regimes on the plateau are particularly needed (Chang et al., 1999). To rehabilitate eroded lands and improve the regional environment, some successful measures have been implemented throughout the Loess Plateau. Large areas of natural grassland on degraded land were reestablished to help hold soil and water to ensure improvement in the local ecosystem by natural succession after the cessation of grazing. The objective of the present study is to identify changes in soil properties associated with five different land uses, namely, shrubland, natural grassland, artificial grassland, farmland and woodland, and changes in soil properties following different intervals of planting for restoration. We hypothesized that local soil properties are largely a consequence of plant growth during secondary succession. The vegetation chronosequence of the grassland was also investigated to examine how soil properties change over time during restoration.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Description of the study area

The study area was located in Yanhe Watershed of the Loess Plateau (36°23'–37°17' N, 108°45'–110°28' E) in northern Shaanxi Province. The area is 287 km in length. Of the total area (7687 km²), 90% is hilly, 3% consists of villages, rivers, and lakes, and only 7% is considered suitable for intensive agriculture. Climate in the study area is semi-arid with heavy seasonal rainfall and periodic flooding followed by drought. Average annual rainfall at the study site is 497 mm (1970–2000, CV 22%) with distinct wet and dry seasons. The rainy season is July to October, with August rainfall amounting to 23% of the annual total. Annual reference evapotranspiration is approximately 1000 mm. Most of the area lies at 900–1500 m altitude. The area's topography is characterized by cliffs and very steep slopes (40%). The topography, soil type, soil and land use patterns of Yanhe Watershed are typical of the Loess Plateau. The study area is composed of forest-steppe and temperate grassland. Typical vegetation includes *Bothriochloa ischaemum*, *Stipa bungeana*, *Artemisia sacrorum*, *A. giraldii* Pamp, and *Lespedeza davurica* (Li and Shao, 2003a,b).

2.2. Study approach and sampling design

Geographic characteristics of the sites are described in Appendix A. Soil samples were collected in August 2006 at 3 different depths: 0–20, 20–40 and 40–60 cm. For each type of land use, an area of 10 m × 10 m was selected at each site. Three 10 m × 3 m subplots were divided into five replicates for sampling. We used a soil sampling auger with a diameter of about 3 cm. An S-shaped soil sampling pattern was used in each subplot. Several 3 cm core samples were taken from each plot and mixed to form a pooled sample of about 1 kg. They were then air-dried and passed through a 2 mm sieve for soil analysis.

International standard methods adopted and published by the Institute of Soil Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences (1978) were used to analyze soil samples. Soil organic matter (SOM) was determined by oxidation with potassium dichromate in a heated oil bath. Total nitrogen (N_t) was measured by the semimicro Kjeldahl method. Available nitrogen (N_{avi}) was measured using the alkali diffusion method. Total phosphorus (P_t) was digested with perchloric acid and sulfuric acid and then measured by colorimetry. Total potassium (K_t) was digested with hydrofluoric acid and perchloric acid. Available phosphorus (P_{avi}) was extracted with sodium bicarbonate and measured with colorimetry. Available potassium (K_{avi}) in soil was extracted with ammonium acetate.

In situ slope angle and direction were determined using a pocket compass (DQY-1, China). Altitude, longitude and latitude were determined using a portable GPS. After removal of the litter and the humus layer, bulk density was measured using three intact soil cores from the surface layer (0–20 cm) and the subsurface layers (20–40 cm and 40–60 cm). Bulk density was determined by oven-drying the cores at 105–110 °C. Total soil porosity was calculated using Eq. (1) based on measured bulk density and assuming a soil particle density of 2.65 g cm⁻³. Soil capillary porosity was subsequently calculated with Eq. (2) using bulk density and soil capillary water capacity data (Huang, 2003).

$$P_t = (1 - B_d / d_s) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Where P_t is the total soil porosity (%); B_d is the soil bulk density (g cm⁻³); d_s is the soil density (g cm⁻³).

$$P_c = W_c \times B_d / V \times 100 \quad (2)$$

Where P_c is the soil capillary porosity (%); W_c is the soil capillary water content (%); V is the volume of soil core (cm³).

A common approach in soil rehabilitation studies investigating vegetative cover is to monitor plant and soil changes along a vegetative chronosequence developed on similar soils under similar climatic conditions (Bhojvaid and Timmer, 1998). This chronological approach has been used widely in applied ecosystem research (Fang and Peng, 1997) and is considered retrospective research because existing conditions are compared with known original conditions and treatments. We used this approach here because nearby vegetation communities were established 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40 and 45 years ago on eroded soils with similar properties. These vegetation communities provide a time gradient of grass occupancy on similar sites. Rates of change in soil properties can be estimated by comparing sites of different ages. Nine sites (5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40 and 45 years of age) that have undergone light livestock grazing in recent years were found at adjacent locations in the study area. Five sites were sampled within each series. Five nearby, nonvegetated sites (farmland) were used as controls for the chronosequence. The geographic characteristics of the sites are described in Appendix B.

2.3. Data analysis

Soil samples were compared among successional stages using analysis of variance (ANOVA). Correlations among soil variables were tested using SPSS, version 11.0. The LSD test (at $p < 0.05$) was used to compare means of soil variables when the results of ANOVA were significant at $p < 0.05$.

3. Results

3.1. Bulk density and total porosity under different land uses

Only in the 0–20 cm layer was soil bulk density associated with the different land uses. Shrubland soils had greater bulk density (1.35 mg m⁻³) compared with other soils. The artificial grassland had the lowest bulk density value (1.24 mg m⁻³) at the 10–20 cm soil depth, whereas the cultivated land had greatest bulk density values at either depth (Table 1). Bulk density was similar in the pasture and forest soils for the topsoil at 0–10 cm but was different at a soil depth of 10–20 cm. Bulk density differed significantly across soil depths in the pasture.

Total porosity and capillary porosity, like soil bulk density, changed in the 0–20 cm layer but not in the 20–40 cm layer under different land uses. Total porosity in the surface layer was greatest (53%) for artificial grassland and lowest (49.2%) for shrubland

Table 1
Successional series and plant communities.

Restoration years	Number of samples	Slope (°)	Community types	Soil type
5	5	21, 26, 13, 29, 8	<i>Artemisia scoparia, Leymus scalinus, Lespedeza davurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
10	5	24, 27, 29, 28, 6	<i>Leymus scalinus, Lespedeza davurica, Stipa bungeana</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
15	5	20, 26, 24, 25, 5	<i>Stipa bungeana, Lespedeza davurica, Artemisia</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
20	5	5,35,28,25,5	<i>Artemisia, Lespedeza davurica, Bothriochloa ischaemun</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
25	5	24, 27, 24, 35, 30	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Stipa grandis, Lespedeza davurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
30	5	27, 28, 20, 21, 35	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Stipa grandis, Lespedeza davurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
35	5	30, 29, 37, 20, 30	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Lespedeza davurica, Artemisia sacrorum</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
40	5	25, 19, 20, 8, 17	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Lespedeza davurica, Stipa grandis</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
45	5	22, 25, 5, 25, 27	<i>Stipa bungeana, Sophora viciifolia, Ziziphus jujuba Mill. var. spin</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols

(Table 1). This result was in contrast to the bulk density changes. Capillary porosity in the surface layer was greatest (19.4%) for shrubland and lowest (17.9%) for artificial grassland (Table 1), in agreement with the results for bulk density. The ratios of capillary porosity to total porosity were similar at the 0–20 and 20–40 cm depths (Table 2).

3.2. Soil nutrient values for different land uses

In the 0–20 cm layer, N_{avi} was highest in farmland, followed by SOM, K_{avi} , P_{avi} , N_t and P_t (Fig. 1). SOM was highest in natural grassland, followed by N_{avi} , N_t , P_{avi} , K_{avi} and P_t (Fig. 1). Compared with the results from farmland and natural grassland, K_{avi} was highest in artificial grassland, N_{avi} and P_{avi} were highest in forest land, and P_t was highest in shrubland soil (Fig. 1).

All soil nutrients within the same type of land use decreased from the 0–20 cm layer to the 20–40 cm layer (Fig. 1). Overall, SOM, N_t , N_{hydro} and K_{avail} declined from the 0–20 cm layer to the 20–40 cm layer (Fig. 1), whereas other parameters, such as P_t and P_{avi} , did not (Fig. 1). Thus, the proportion of macropore space in the soil decreased with soil depth.

3.3. Bulk density and soil nutrient in different restoration years

On average, soil bulk density, total porosity and capillary porosity for the natural grassland were not influenced by vegetational succession over 45 years of restoration (Table 2). Following 5 to 45 years of restoration, SOM, N_t , N_{avi} , P_{avi} and K_{avi} were greater in the 0–20 cm layer ($p < 0.05$). N_{avi} and P_{avi} were significantly different in the 20–40 cm layer at $p < 0.05$, whereas SOM, N_t , P_t , and K_{avi} were not (Fig. 2). These parameters declined ($p < 0.05$) from 5 to 15 years of restoration but then increased ($p < 0.05$) from restoration years 15 through 20. Significant decreases ($p < 0.05$) were found for 20 and 25 years of restoration, and significant increases ($p < 0.05$) were reported for years 25 through 45 (Fig. 2).

Table 2
Means and coefficients of variation of bulk density and total porosity for different land uses.

Item	Soil layer (cm)	Farmland	Artificial grassland	Natural grassland	Woodland	Shrubland	Sig. of ANOVA
Bulk density ($mg\ m^{-3}$)	0–20	1.28 ^{abc} (0.05)	1.24 ^c (0.02)	1.27 ^{bc} (0.09)	1.32 ^{ab} (0.05)	1.35 ^a (0.05)	0.025
	20–40	1.35 (0.04)	1.34 (0.07)	1.34 (0.05)	1.32 (0.03)	1.37 (0.05)	0.535
Total porosity (TP, %)	0–20	51.7 ^{abc} (0.04)	53.2 ^a (0.02)	52.1 ^{ab} (0.08)	50.1 ^{bc} (0.05)	49.2 ^c (0.05)	0.028
	20–40	49.2 (0.04)	49.3 (0.07)	49.6 (0.05)	50.2 (0.03)	48.4 (0.05)	0.522
Capillary porosity (CP, %)	0–20	18.5 ^{abc} (0.05)	17.9 ^c (0.02)	18.3 ^{bc} (0.09)	19.1 ^{ab} (0.05)	19.4 ^a (0.05)	0.027
	20–40	19.4 (0.04)	19.4 (0.07)	19.2 (0.05)	19.0 (0.03)	19.7 (0.05)	0.501
CP/TP (%)	0–20	35.8 ^{abc} (0.09)	33.6 ^c (0.05)	35.5 ^{bc} (0.17)	38.2 ^{ab} (0.10)	39.7 ^a (0.10)	0.028
	20–40	39.5 (0.07)	39.6 (0.15)	38.9 (0.10)	37.9 (0.05)	40.9 (0.10)	0.516

Means with the same letter in the same row are not significantly different at the 0.05 level (LSD). Quantities in parentheses are coefficients of variation.

4. Discussion

4.1. Effect of land uses on soil properties

Estimation of soil properties under different land use systems is helpful in determining the vulnerability of land degradation. This information is important for countries in arid areas with high susceptibility to desertification (Giertz et al., 2006). Tillage causes changes in soil structure that vary with tillage intensity and soil depth. Surface layer changes in soil structure in intensive systems are much more pronounced than in nonintensive systems, but these changes are not statistically different from the soil properties in uncultivated areas. Although bulk density in freshly tilled farmland was very low due to frequent tillage and low long-term input of organic matter, the soil structure in farmlands is usually unstable and can easily be negatively influenced over time (Li and Shao, 2003a,b). This difference might result from compaction of the topsoil (0–10 cm) owing to overgrazing of the pastures. In this study, the loss of SOM resulting from the conversion of the pasture into cultivated fields may have produced a greater bulk density in the cultivated soils (Table 1). In addition, following conversion from pasture to cultivation, a decline in soil aggregation resulted in increased bulk density. This process may be worsened by the continuous use of machinery for either conversion or cultivation.

Human activities and natural disasters may directly affect soil nutrient decomposition and loss (Jonasson and Michelsen, 1996; Xu, 1992). After vegetation implantation, soil nutrients usually increase (Zhang et al., 2004). In our results, SOM, N_t , N_{avi} , and K_{avi} were greater in shrublands and woodlands compared with other land uses, whereas P_t and P_{avi} were greater in farmland soils. After farmland returned to forest, SOM increased 49%, compared with an 18% increase following return to natural grassland. N_{avi} increased 37% and 5%, N_{hydro} increased 68% and 31%, and K_{avi} increased 42% and 16%, respectively. Most research shows that abandoned land is associated with an increase in availability of soil nutrients.

Despite its degradation by grazing, grass can also maintain soil nutrients. However, because of overgrazing, a low amount of biomass

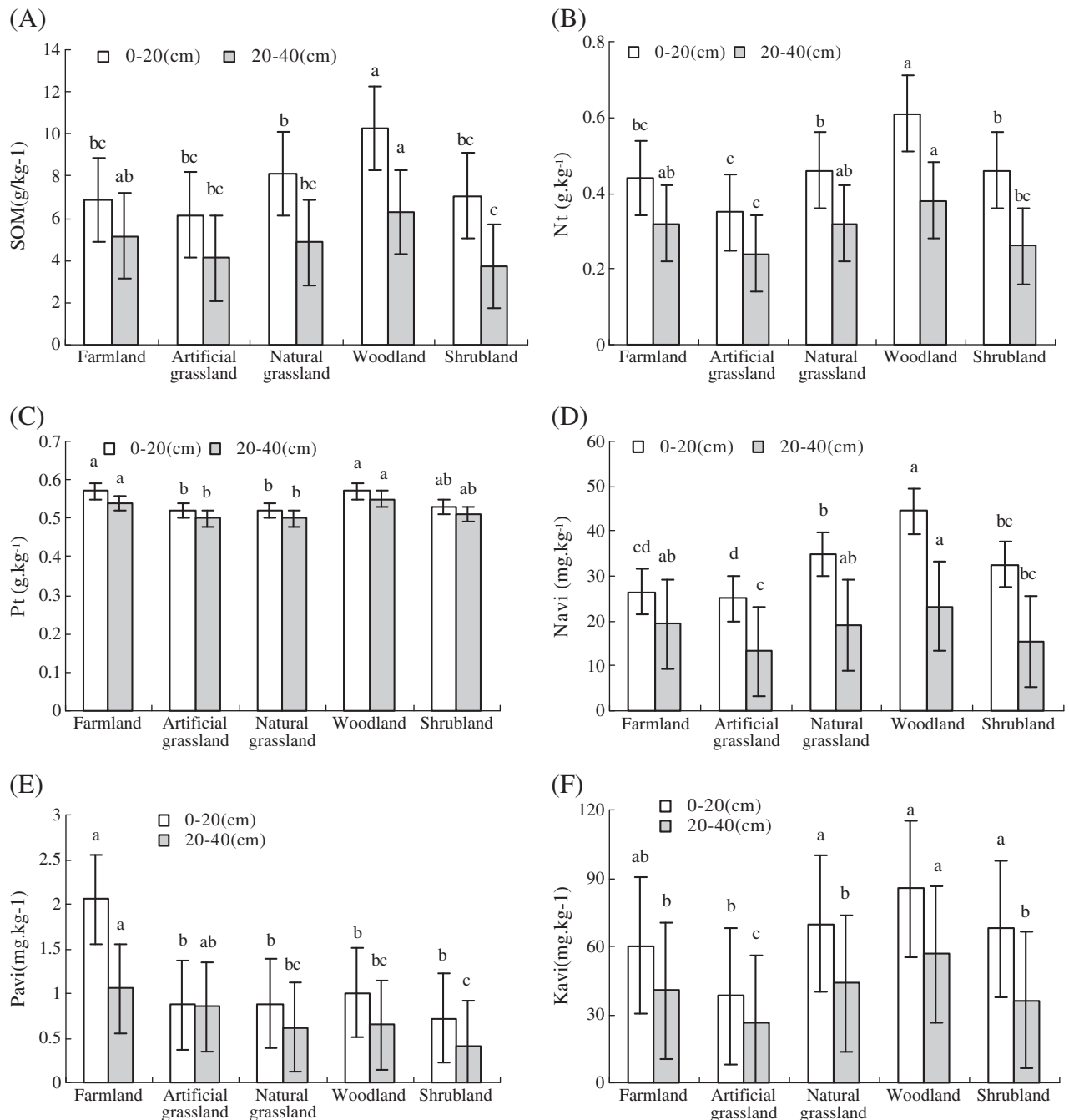


Fig. 1. Means and standard deviations of soil organic matter (SOM) (A), total nitrogen (N_t) (B), total phosphorus (P_t) (C), available nitrogen (N_{avi}) (D), available phosphorus (P_{avi}) (E) and available potassium (K_{avi}) (F) at different revegetation sites. Means with the same letter in the different row are not significantly different at the 0.05 level (LSD).

is returned to the soil each year, and roots occupy shallow soil layers. In the area studied, artificial grassland mainly consists of *A. adsurgens* or alfalfa. These crops are used for stock feeding. Because farmers harvest *A. adsurgens* or alfalfa 3 to 4 times per year, soil nutrients in the artificial grassland are depleted. Soil nutrients in farmland soils varied according to each site's individual characteristics, such as topography. Thus, a majority (52%) of the terraced farmland was found to be high in nutrients.

4.2. Effect of restoration time on soil properties

On the Loess Plateau, water erosion can be reversed through the implementation of conservation measures, including measures that

involve active planting of vegetation (Zhao et al., 2000). Actively planting vegetation provides important protection against soil erosion by water in the Loess Plateau. Here, we show that the establishment and development of vegetation succession on eroded soil result in important changes in soil nutrients, as was also found in the Ansai County of Shaanxi Province in northwestern China (Wang et al., 2003). The results of this study are important for a number of reasons. First, vegetation restoration offers an important safeguard against soil erosion, although it may consume soil nutrients in the beginning stages of restoration of farmland soils (Chen et al., 2005). Second, vegetation succession results in changes in soil nutrients in the eroded soils and a gradual restoration of soil nutrients (Jiao et al., 2005). Third, surface soils recover soil nutrients to a greater extent than

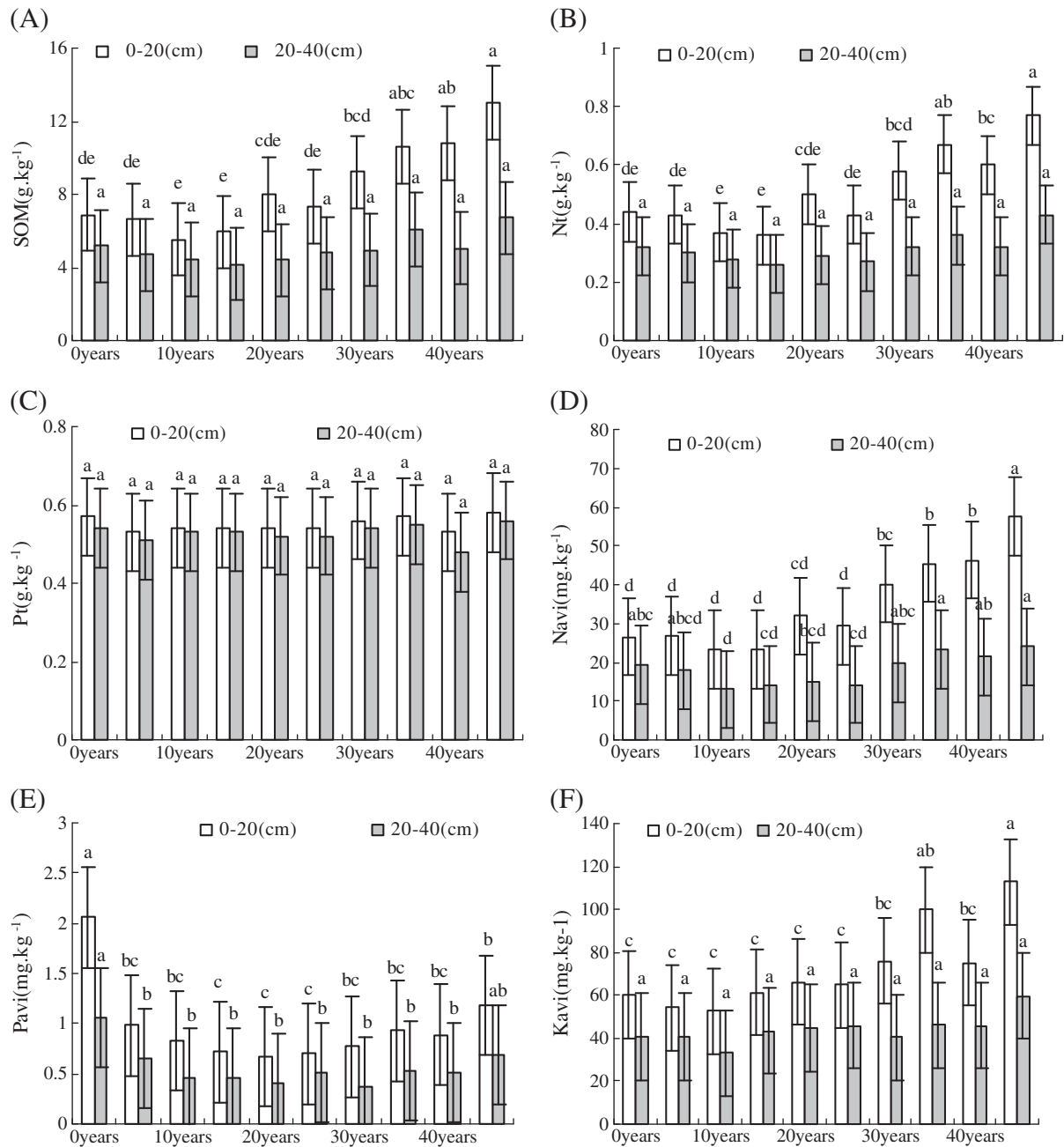


Fig. 2. Means and standard deviations of soil organic matter (SOM) (A), total nitrogen (N_t) (B), total phosphorus (P_t) (C), available nitrogen (N_{avi}) (D), available phosphorus (P_{avi}) (E) and available potassium (K_{avi}) (F) at different time points of restoration. Means with the same letter in the different row are not significantly different at the 0.05 level (LSD).

do deeper soils (Jiao et al., 2006). Human activities and natural disasters could directly affect soil nutrient decomposition and loss (Jonasson and Michelsen, 1996; Xu, 1992). However, differences in stocknutrients of the 5 vegetation types are due to the dominant species at each site, because these plants absorb nutrients at different rates.

5. Conclusion

Land use has an important influence on soil bulk density, total porosity and capillary porosity of only the surface soil layer. Shrubland has greater soil bulk density, capillary porosity and lower total porosity than do other types of land uses. In most cases, terrace land

has low levels of soil fertility, but after long periods of cultivation, the land degrades year after year. Our results indicate that land use changes and revegetation of eroded soils result in significant changes in soil properties. The results also showed that soil fertility recovers more as plantation age increases.

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Appendix A. General properties of selected plots with different land uses

Land use	Topography	Slope (°)	Altitude (m)	Plantation duration (years)	Soil type
Farmland 1	Middle slope	25	1223	0	Gray loessi orthic primosols
Farmland 2	Terrace	2	1282	0	Gray loessi orthic primosols
Farmland 3	Down slope	20	1367	0	Gray loessi orthic primosols
Farmland 4	Upper slope	10	1508	0	Gray loessi orthic primosols
Farmland 5	Middle slope	22	1076	0	Gray loessi orthic primosols
Artificial grassland 1	Middle slope	11	1280	1	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Artificial grassland 2	Upper slope	18	1598	4	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Artificial grassland 3	Middle slope	30	1569	6	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Natural grassland 1	Middle slope	30	1344	30	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Natural grassland 2	Upper slope	20	1267	40	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Natural grassland 3	Middle slope	35	1204	30	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Natural grassland 4	Upper slope	27	1271	22	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Natural grassland 5	Middle slope	30	1358	38	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Woodland 1	Down slope	25	1369	42	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Woodland 2	Upper slope	23	1369	40	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Woodland 3	Upper slope	26	1159	40	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Woodland 4	Middle slope	8	1132	40	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Woodland 5	Down slope	29	1460	21	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Woodland 6	Middle slope	25	1212	4	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Woodland 7	Down slope	27	1212	28	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Shrubland 1	Middle slope	20	1387	42	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Shrubland 2	Down slope	29	1182	30	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Shrubland 3	Upper slope	23	1142	30	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Shrubland 4	Middle slope	25	1392	15	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Shrubland 5	Down slope	33	1585	20	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Shrubland 6	Down slope	18	1212	28	Typic loessi orthic primosols
Shrubland 7	Down slope	20	1212	28	Typic loessi orthic primosols

Appendix B. General information about selected plots for different vegetation communities

Restoration years	Topography	Slope (°)	Altitude (m)	Vegetation types	Soil type
5 years 1	Upper slope	21	1321	<i>Artemisia scoparia</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
5 years 2	Upper slope	26	1344	<i>Leymus secalinus</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
5 years 3	Down slope	13	1148	<i>Lespedeza daurica, Stipa bungeana</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
5 years 4	Upper slope	29	1624	<i>Artemisia scoparia, Bothriochloa ischaemun</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
5 years 5	Down slope	8	1315	<i>Leymus secalinus, Artemisia scoparia</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
10 years 1	Down slope	24	1469	<i>Leymus secalinus</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
10 years 2	Down slope	27	1470	<i>Leymus secalinus, Lespedeza daurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
10 years 3	Middle slope	29	1459	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Stipa bungeana</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
10 years 4	Upper slope	28	1567	<i>Artemisia scoparia</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
10 years 5	Upper slope	6	1392	<i>Lespedeza daurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
15 years 1	Middle slope	18	1363	<i>Stipa bungeana, Lespedeza daurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
15 years 2	Down slope	20	1329	<i>Lespedeza daurica, Artemisia sacroru</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
15 years 3	Middle slope	26	1180	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Lespedeza daurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
15 years 4	Middle slope	24	1379	<i>Lespedeza daurica, Potentilla Chinensis</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
15 years 5	Middle slope	25	1482	<i>Stipa bungeana, Lespedeza daurica</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
20 years 1	Upper slope	5	1337	<i>Stipa bungeana</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
20 years 2	Upper slope	35	1180	<i>Artemisia sacrorum,</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
20 years 3	Upper slope	28	1371	<i>Stipa bungeana</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
20 years 4	Middle slope	26	1344	<i>Artemisia sacrorum, Cleistogenes</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
20 years 5	Upper slope	5	1587	<i>Stipa bungeana, Potentilla acaulis L.</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
25 years 1	Upper slope	27	1205	<i>Lespedeza daurica, Stipa bungeana</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
25 years 2	Down slope	24	1369	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Artemisia scoparia</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
25 years 3	Middle slope	27	1355	<i>Lespedeza daurica, Artemisia sacrorum</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
25 years 4	Upper slope	35	1282	<i>Bothriochloa ischaemun, Artemisia scoparia</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols
25 years 5	Middle slope	30	1358	<i>Artemisia sacrorum, Bothriochloa</i>	Typic loessi orthic primosols

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