

1 **Title:** Biocrust reduced soil water retention and soil infiltration in the alpine *Kobresia* meadow

2 **Running title:** Biocrust reduced soil water retention and soil infiltration

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Biocrust is a key component of ecosystems and plays a vital role in altering hydrological processes

15 in terrestrial ecosystems. The impacts of biocrust on hydrological processes in arid and semi-arid

16 ecosystems has been widely documented. However, the effects and mechanisms of biocrust on soil

17 hydrological processes in alpine ecosystems are still poorly understood. In this study, we selected

18 two meadow types from the northern Qinghai-Tibet Plateau: normal *Kobresia* meadow (NM) and

19 biocrust meadow (BM). Both the soil hydrological and physicochemical properties were examined.

20 We found that in the 0–30 cm soil layer, soil water retention and soil water content in NM were

21 higher than those in BM, whereas the 30–40 cm layer's soil water retention and soil water content

22 in NM were lower than those in BM. The topsoil infiltration rate in BM was lower than that in NM.

23 Furthermore, the physicochemical properties were different between NM and BM. The 0–10 cm
24 soil layer's clay content in BM was 9% higher than that in NM, whereas the 0–30 cm layer's soil
25 capillary porosity in NM was higher than that in BM. In addition, the 0–20 cm layer's soil total
26 nitrogen (TN) and soil organic matter (SOM) in NM were higher than those in BM, implying that
27 the presence of biocrust may not favor the formation of soil nutrients owing to its lower soil
28 microbial biomass carbon and microbial biomass nitrogen. Overall, soil water retention was
29 determined by SOM by altering soil capillary porosity and bulk density. Our findings suggested that
30 the establishment of cyanobacteria crust biocrust may not improve soil water retention and
31 infiltration , and the soil in cyanobacteria crust meadows could be more vulnerable to runoff
32 generation and consequent soil erosion. These results provide a systematic and comprehensive
33 understanding of the effects of biocrust in the soil hydrology of alpine ecosystems.

34 **Keywords:** Alpine meadow; biocrust; soil-soil water retention; soil water infiltration;
35 physicochemical properties

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Biocrusts are composed of living non-vascular plants (mosses, lichen and green algae) and
38 microorganisms (such as cyanobacteria, fungi and bacteria) associated with their bonding soil
39 particles that occur in the uppermost few millimeters (Belnap et al., 2016, Sun et al., 2022). As a
40 crucial part of soil surface, biocrusts plays a vital role in regulating biogeochemical processes,
41 hydrology processes and surface energy balance (Li et al., 2016), which can serve as “ecological
42 engineers” in soil systems. However, to our knowledge, the controlling mechanism of biocrust on
43 soil hydrological processes is still unclear. Most previous studies were conducted in arid and semi-
44 arid ecosystems, such as the Tengger Desert, Negev Deserts, and Loess Plateau hydrological

45 processes where plant are limited by soil moisture. Very few studies have focused on the role of
46 biocrust on hydrological processes (i.e., soil water content, soil water retention, and soil infiltration)
47 in alpine ecosystems where plant are limited by soil temperature. Thus, examining the impact of
48 biocrust on hydrological processes could provide insight on water balance in alpine ecosystems and
49 grassland management policies for maintaining the sustainability of meadow ecosystems.

50 The alpine meadow is an important ecosystem in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP), which plays
51 an important role in water retention (Dai et al., 2019), preventing soil erosion (Qian et al., 2021) and
52 regulating energy exchange (Zhu et al., 2020) by altering soil surface features (i.e. roughness, soil
53 texture, porosity and aggregation) (Li et al., 2016). However, the formation of biocrust in alpine
54 meadows is different from that in arid areas, where the biocrust is formed from intensive land use
55 such as overgrazing. Overgrazing could reduce vegetation coverage, thereby increase soil light
56 condition, which favor the photosynthesis of cyanobacteria crust. Previous study had found a well
57 relationship between biocrust and vegetation coverage, i.e. the occurrence frequency of
58 cyanobacteria crust increased with reducing vegetation coverage owing to overgrazing, (Li et al.,
59 2015). Moreover, the biocrust types vary with the succession stage of alpine meadows (Li et al.,
60 2016b). For instance, as the degree of degradation increases, the moss-dominated crust is
61 transformed into cyanobacteria-dominated crust, followed by lichen-dominated crust from
62 *Graminoid*-dominated vegetation degradation to *Kobresia humilis* meadow (light degradation) and
63 then to *K. pygmaea* meadow (moderate degradation) (Li et al., 2016). Thus, we suggest that the
64 impact of biocrust on hydrologic processes in alpine meadows may differ from that in arid areas,
65 and vice versa.

66 To date, although numerous studies have pointed out that biocrust has substantial effects on

67 soil water retention and soil moisture infiltration processes by altering soil microenvironments, such
68 as soil roughness, soil porosity, and aggregation, no consensus has been reached. For instance, some
69 studies have found that biocrust could increase soil water infiltration and reduce runoff by increasing
70 soil porosity and aggregate stability compared with bare soil in cool desert ecosystems (Kidron and
71 Benenson, 2014; Wei et al., 2015). In contrast, other studies reported that soil water infiltration was
72 significantly reduced in crusted areas compared with non-crusted areas in arid ecosystems (Li et al.,
73 2010; Xiao and Hu, 2017). These discrepancies highlight the necessity to further explore the effects
74 of biocrust on hydrological processes, such as exploring the specific hydrological processes by
75 conducting soil infiltration experiments and soil water retention curve measurements. Furthermore,
76 most previous studies were mainly conducted in arid and semi-arid ecosystems, and very few studies
77 have focused on the effects of biocrust on the soil's hydrological processes in alpine ecosystems.
78 Therefore, it is crucial to assess the role of biocrust in soil water retention and infiltration in alpine
79 meadows.

80 To address these knowledge gaps. In this study, normal *Kobresia* meadow and biocrust meadow
81 in QTP were selected. Both soil and hydrological features were measured, with the aim of exploring
82 the role of biocrust in hydrological processes in alpine ecosystems. Specifically, the objectives of
83 this study were to explore the effect of biocrust on soil-hydrological features in alpine ecosystems,
84 to reveal how biocrust affects soil water retention by altering soil and vegetation properties. Our
85 results could provide insights into the management of biocrust in alpine meadows.

86 **2 Materials and methods**

87 **2.1 Site description**

88 The field test sites were located in the northeastern Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (101° 19' E, 37° 37'

89 N), in Qinghai Province, China (Fig.1a). The area has a continental plateau climate with a mean air
90 temperature of -1.7°C and a mean annual precipitation of approximately 562 mm (Dai et al., 2020).
91 It should be noted that approximately 80% of the precipitation occurs during the growing season
92 (between May and September), and the other 20% occurs during the non-growing season. The main
93 vegetation type in this region is the *Kobresia* meadow, which is dominated by *Kobresia humilis*
94 (Fig.1b). The soil type in the study area is silt loam according to the in the USDA soil taxonomy
95 system of classification (Cusack and others 2018), with a soil thickness of approximately 60–80 cm.
96 The pH and EC is 7.5 m s m^{-1} and 6.7 in the study area, respectively. (Li et al., 2016).

97 **2.2 Experimental design and soil sampling**

98 In August 2020, we choose two study sites on the northeastern Qinghai-Tibet Plateau to avoid
99 pseudoreplication, and two types of soil surfaces were selected in each study site, i.e. normal
100 *Kobresia* meadow (NM, Fig. 1b) and biocrust meadow (BM, Fig. 1c). To reduce the differences
101 caused by spatial heterogeneity, the BM was selected adjacent to the NM. The vegetation cover in
102 BMs is usually less than 20% with a thick turf but no litter layer in topsoil, and the BM type is
103 dominated by cyanobacteria crust (ca. 80%) (Li et al., 2016). In contrast, NM has a dense vegetation
104 cover and is mainly dominated by *Kobresia pygmaea*, with average plant heights of 1–3 cm.
105 Furthermore, a clear typical turf horizon and litter layer was observed within the topsoil in NM, that
106 is, the Afe horizon. BM had a higher root biomass than that of NM, owing to its thick turf (Table 1).

107 We obtained the disturbed soil samples (i.e. non-ring knife soil sample) in NM and BM. Four
108 quadrats ($1 \times 1 \text{ m}$) were randomly selected for soil sampling with a depth of 10 cm in each treatment
109 using an earth boring auger, and then brought back to the laboratory to measure and analyze soil
110 organic matter (SOM), soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC), microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN),

111 total carbon (TC), total nitrogen (TN), and soil texture (PSD). Undisturbed cylindrical ring samples
112 (i.e. ring knife soil sample) were also obtained in each treatment to determine the soil bulk density
113 (BD), soil porosity, and soil hydraulic properties (i.e., soil water retention and soil water supply
114 capacity). The soil infiltration rates were measured using a double-ring infiltrometer for each
115 treatment.

116 **2.3 Laboratory measurements and analyses**

117 First, the disturbed soil samples were sieved through 0.25 mm and 2-mm soil sieves to remove
118 debris and roots for the analysis of soil properties. SOM was measured based on the Walkley &
119 Black procedure (Nelson and Sommers, 1982), MBC and MBN were measured by the chloroform
120 fumigation-direct extraction method (Vance et al., 1987), and TC and TN were measured using an
121 element analyzer (Elementar Vario EL III, Hanau, Germany). PSD was determined using a
122 Mastersizer 2000 (Malvern Instruments, UK). BD was measured as the ratio of the oven-dry soil
123 mass to the core volume (100 cm³). The soil total porosity, soil capillary porosity, and soil non-
124 capillary were measured using the following equation (Dai et al., 2020):

$$125 \quad TP = \left(1 - \frac{BD}{d_s}\right) \times 100\% \quad (1),$$

$$126 \quad CP = CWC \times BD \quad (2),$$

$$127 \quad NCP = TP - CP \quad (3),$$

128 where TP, CP, and NCP represent soil total porosity (%), soil capillary porosity (%), and soil non-
129 capillary porosity (%), respectively; CWC represents soil capillary water capacity; d_s is the soil
130 particle density, which was assumed to be 2.65 (g cm⁻³).

131 The soil water retention curves (SWRCs) were measured using a pressure plate apparatus (1500
132 F1, Soil Moisture Equipment Corp., SEC, USA), and the relationship between soil water content

133 and matric potential was fitted by the Gardner model. The formula of the Gardner model is as
134 follows (Gardner et al., 1970):

135
$$h = A\theta^B ,$$

136 where h is the soil water content (%), θ is the matric potential (kPa), and A and B are the fitting
137 parameters. Higher values of A*B and A indicate a higher soil water supply capacity and soil water
138 retention capacity, respectively.

139

140 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

141 In this study, to compare the differences between BM and NM on soil water retention and soil
142 properties, we conducted one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical tests to determine
143 differences in plant and soil properties for the same soil layers between the BM and NM, and a least-
144 significant-difference test ($P<0.05$) was conducted when significant differences were detected by
145 ANOVA. To explore the relationship between soil properties and soil water retention, and
146 quantitative evaluation of the effects of soil properties on soil-soil water retention, Pearson's
147 correlation and variance partition in the analysis were used by R software version 3.4.3 (R
148 Development Core Team, 2006) with the "hier.part" and "corrplot" packages. Furthermore,
149 structural equation modeling was used to examine the soil properties' direct and indirect effects on
150 soil water retention.

151

152 **3 Results**

153 **3.1 Soil textureSoil texture among two surface soil types**

154 Silt content dominated the soil texture in the 0–40 cm soil layer across the two surface soil

155 types (mean 61.69%), followed by sand (mean 30.13%), and clay (mean 8.18%) (Fig. 2).
156 Specifically, the 0–10 cm clay content in BM was 9% higher than that in NM, whereas the 10–40
157 cm clay content in BM was 16% lower than that in NM, especially for the 10–20 cm soil layer
158 ($P<0.001$). In contrast, the 0–40 cm silt content in BM was higher than that in NM, especially for
159 the 20–30 cm soil layer ($P<0.05$). However, no clear pattern was observed for the sand content
160 between BM and NM. Overall, 0–40 cm clay content (8.62%) in NM was 11% higher than that in
161 BM (7.69%), whereas in the 0–40 cm silt content (61.24%) in NM was nearly equal to that in BM
162 (62.13%).

163 **3.2 Soil physicochemical properties among two surface soil types**

164 There were no significant differences for 0–40 cm BD, 0–40 cm TP, 0–40 cm CP and 0–40 cm
165 NCP ($P>0.05$) (Fig.3), but the 0–20 cm BD in NM was 13% lower than that of BM, and the TP and
166 CP in NM were 7% and 5% higher than that of BM. No clear pattern was observed for NCP in NM
167 and BM (Fig.3). Furthermore, the 0–20 cm TN and SOM in NM were much higher than those in
168 BM and reached a significant level at 0–10 cm ($P<0.05$), whereas the 30–40 cm TN and SOM in
169 NM were lower than those in BM (Fig.3). Similarly, the 0–10 cm TC and C: N ratio in NM were
170 significantly higher than those in BM, whereas the 30–40 cm TC and C: N ratio in NM were lower
171 than those in BM (Fig.3). Additionally, the 0–40 cm MBC and MBN in NM were higher than those
172 in BM and reached a significant level at 0–10 cm ($P<0.05$) (Fig. 4).

173 **3.3 Soil hydrological processes among two surface soil types**

174 The soil hydrological processes varied between crust BM and NM (Fig.5 and Table 1). Given
175 that parameter A fitted by the Gardner model represents the soil water retention (a higher A value
176 indicates higher soil water retention), the soil water content was reduced with decreasing matrix

177 potential and reduced sharply at high matric potential, but remained stable at low matric potential
178 (Fig. 5). The 0–30 cm layer’s soil water content and soil water retention in NM were higher than
179 those in BM, whereas the 30–40 cm layer’s soil water content and soil water retention in NM were
180 lower than those in BM (Table 1 and Fig. 6b). Similarly, the 0–10 and 20–30 cm soil water supply
181 capacity (i.e., A*B fitted by the Gardner model) in NM was higher than that in BM, while the 10–
182 20 and 30–40 cm soil water supply capacity in NM was lower than that in BM (Fig. 6a).
183 Furthermore, the surface infiltration rate in the BM was significantly lower than that in the NM
184 (Table 1).

185 **3.4 Dominated factors affecting soil-soil water retention**

186 Pearson correlation analysis showed that soil water retention was significantly negatively
187 related to BD, but significantly positively related to TP, CP, and SOM (Fig.7a), whereas soil texture
188 exerted weak soil water retention (Fig.7a). Furthermore, the variance partition showed that SOM
189 explained the greatest variability in soil-soil water retention (24.40%), followed by CP (21.24%),
190 BD (18.22), and TP (18.22%) (Fig. 8b), and structural equation modeling showed that the effect of
191 SOM on soil water retention was achieved by altering CP and BD (Fig. 8).

192 **4 Discussion**

193 **4.1 Effect of biocrust on soil properties**

194 The effects of biocrust on soil properties have been widely explored in previous studies (Guo
195 et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2019). Compared with non-biocrust and most studies conducted in arid
196 regions, the presence of biocrust could improve soil aggregation and stability (Wu et al., 2020),
197 increase soil fertility (Zhou et al., 2020) and reduce soil erosion (Chamizo et al., 2017). In this study,
198 however, we found that the presence of cyanobacteria crust could improve topsoil texture compared

199 with normal meadow, but not that of deep soil. The 0–10 cm clay content in cyanobacteria crust
200 meadow was higher than that for normal meadow, whereas the 10–40 cm clay content in
201 cyanobacteria crust meadow was lower than that for normal meadow, which is in line with previous
202 studies conducted in arid and semi-arid regions (Liu et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2020). The higher clay
203 content in cyanobacteria crust meadow was attributed to the exudation and cohesiveness of the
204 biocrust, which promoted clay and silt formation and reduced sand content (Wang et al., 2021).
205 Furthermore, we found that the 0–20 cm soil bulk density in normal meadow was lower than that in
206 cyanobacteria crust meadow, thereby leading to higher soil porosity and total capillary porosity in
207 normal meadow. Such higher soil capillary porosity in normal meadow was attributed to its higher
208 soil organic matter content, which was also confirmed by the significant positive relationship
209 between soil organic matter and soil capillary porosity (Fig. 7). Because it has been well documented
210 that a higher soil organic matter could improve soil aggregation and stability and subsequently
211 increase soil capillary porosity (Cui et al., 2021).

212 Moreover, most previous indicated that the presence of cyanobacteria crust can also improve
213 soil nutrient conditions in the process of mobile sand fixation (Belnap et al., 2004; Guo et al., 2008;
214 Li et al., 2005a). However, we found that the presence of cyanobacteria crust reduces the 0–10 cm
215 soil total carbon, total nitrogen, and C: N ratio compared with normal meadow, which is in contrast
216 to most previous studies conducted in arid and semi-arid regions (Chamizo et al., 2012b; Zhao et
217 al., 2010). A possible reason for these differences may ascribe to the environmental differences. It
218 is well documented that the formation of biocrust is a changing process from simple to complex in
219 its morphology, the early cyanobacteria crust was formed only under favorable hydrothermal
220 conditions such as temperature, soil water, solar radiation, and nutrient content (Belnap et al., 2004;

221 Li et al., 2005b). For instance, biocrust is metabolically active when the external environment is wet,
222 and its metabolically active environment is sensitive to temperature (Belnap et al., 2004; Li et al.,
223 2005b), otherwise the biocrust may choose to enter the dormant stage when the external
224 environment is under unfavorable conditions. Therefore, compared to the higher soil temperatures
225 in arid and semi-arid lands, the biocrust in alpine ecosystems may be in a dormant stage owing to
226 its lower temperature and less available nutrients. Moreover, the biocrust in our study was mostly
227 dominated by cyanobacteria crust, which was vulnerable to external disturbances such as grazing
228 activity. Thus, the biocrust may choose dormancy when it is subjected to grazing pressure, this
229 evidence was also confirmed by the significantly lower microbial soil carbon and microbial soil
230 nitrogen content in cyanobacteria crust meadow compared with normal meadow (Fig. 4).

231 **4.2 Effect of biocrust on soil hydrology and their underlying mechanisms**

232 We found that soil water infiltration was greatly reduced in cyanobacteria crust meadow
233 compared with that in normal meadow, which was consistent with the results of a previous study
234 conducted in alpine meadows (Li et al., 2016b). However, it is in contrast to other studies conducted
235 in cool desert ecosystems where biocrust increased soil water infiltration and reduced runoff by
236 increasing soil porosity and aggregate stability compared with physical crusts and non-crusts bare
237 soils (Kidron and Benenson, 2014; Wei et al., 2015). These discrepancies were associated with soil
238 texture and biocrust developmental stage. In general, soil water infiltration in coarse-textured soils
239 is higher than that in fine-textured soils owing to its large pores compared with the narrow pores in
240 fine-textured soils, which reduces the movement of water into the soil (Belnap, 2006). However, we
241 found that the establishment of cyanobacteria crust increased clay content and subsequently reduced
242 soil macropores, which hindered soil water infiltration. Therefore, we conclude that the soil in the

243 cyanobacteria crust meadow may be more vulnerable to runoff generation and consequent soil
244 erosion, owing to its lower soil water infiltration and soil water retention capacity. On the other hand,
245 biocrust can reduce available pore spaces for water to infiltrate by clogging the soil surface
246 conductive pores owing to its higher water absorption and swelling of biocrust (Fischer et al., 2010),
247 and consequently reduce soil infiltration. In addition, soil water infiltration was also affected by the
248 developmental stage of the biocrust in homogeneous soil. A previous study found that soil hydraulic
249 parameters differed significantly between cyanobacterial biocrust and moss biocrust (Wang et al.,
250 2017). For instance, Chamizo et al. (2012a) reported that the incipient-cyanobacterial crust had a
251 lower soil infiltration rate than that of the cyanobacterial crust, whereas the dark-colored mosses'
252 crust had higher surface soil infiltration capacity by increasing macroporosity and unsaturated
253 hydraulic conductivity in the grasslands (Jiang et al., 2018). In our study, the biocrust was dominated
254 by incipient-cyanobacterial crust, which had low biological activity and low porosity owing to the
255 predominance of vesicle pores, thereby leading to a lower soil infiltration rate.

256 Furthermore, the soil water retention and soil water supply capacity varied significantly
257 between the biocrust and normal meadows. We found that in the 0–10 cm soil water retention and
258 soil water supply capacity in normal meadow were higher than that in cyanobacteria crust meadow,
259 which was not in line with previous studies conducted in drylands in which biocrusts enhanced
260 surface soil water retention capacity and water availability (Sun et al., 2022). We speculate that the
261 lower soil water retention in the cyanobacteria crust meadow was related to its lower soil organic
262 matter; this evidence was also confirmed by the lower microbial biomass carbon (Fig. 4a). Furthermore,
263 the structural equation model indicated that the effect of soil organic matter on water retention was
264 mainly achieved by altering soil bulk density and soil porosity (Fig. 8) because higher soil organic

265 matter could reduce soil bulk density and thereby increase soil porosity (Liu et al., 2019), leading
266 to higher soil water retention. This result was also confirmed by the significant positive relationship
267 between soil organic matter and soil water retention (Fig. 7). **Considering soil organic matter was**
268 derived from vegetation litter and root biomass, whereas the vegetation litter in cyanobacteria crust
269 meadow was lower than that in normal meadow owing to its lower aboveground biomass and
270 vegetation coverage, ultimately resulting in lower soil organic matter in cyanobacteria crust meadow.

271 **4.3 Implications for the effect of biocrust in alpine meadows**

272 Grassland ecosystems cover more than 60% of the QTP and provide important ecosystem
273 services, such as biodiversity conservation, carbon storage, and water conservation (Dong et al.
274 2020). However, in recent decades, grasslands in the QTP have suffered from serious degradation
275 due to increasing human activity (Cao et al. 2019). Biocrust is an important surface feature of the
276 degraded alpine meadows. It is acknowledged that biocrust has a positive effect on soil nutrient and
277 soil water content retention in arid regions. In contrast, we found that the presence of cyanobacteria
278 crust decreased soil water retention and soil infiltration rate, which did not improve water
279 conservation in alpine meadows. Therefore, the soil in the cyanobacteria crust region may be more
280 vulnerable to runoff generation and consequent soil erosion. Moreover, soil nutrients, such as SOM,
281 TC, and TN, were reduced significantly in the cyanobacteria crust meadow, suggesting that the
282 growth of vegetation in the cyanobacteria crust meadow may be limited by soil nutrients.
283 Considering the negative effects of biocrust on alpine meadows, some steps should be taken to
284 reduce the formation of cyanobacteria crust in degraded alpine meadows, such as reducing grazing
285 intensity. Nevertheless, our study results were only obtained by conducting in site scale, which may
286 not sufficiently to extrapolate the whole QTP owing to its high spatial heterogeneity. Thus, a larger

287 scale or more study sites is necessary to have a generalizability conclusion regarding the effects of
288 biocrust on hydrological processes in alpine meadow of QTP.

289 **5 Conclusions**

290 Soil hydrological processes were significantly affected by the establishment of cyanobacteria
291 crust, and we found that the cyanobacteria crust could reduce topsoil water and infiltrate topsoil,
292 which suggested that the establishment of cyanobacteria crust may not favor soil hydrological
293 processes in alpine meadows. Furthermore, the presence of cyanobacteria crust increased topsoil
294 clay content, while the 0–30 cm layer's soil capillary porosity in NM was higher than that in BM,
295 indicating that the presence of cyanobacteria crust reduced soil porosity and thereby reduced topsoil
296 water infiltration. This suggested that the discrepancies in soil water retention and topsoil infiltration
297 were close to physicochemical properties, and that SOM plays a role in soil water retention by
298 affecting CP and BD. Our study may helpful for making reasonable management policies to
299 maintaining the sustainability of meadow ecosystems in the long run, especially under intensity
300 human activity and climate change in QTP.

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305 **Author contribution**

306 Licong Dai: Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis. Ruiyu Fu :
307 Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis, Visualization. Xiaowei Guo
308 and Zhongmin Hu: Investigation, Data curation, Project administration, Supervision. Yangong Du:

309 Writing – original draft, review & editing. Guangmin Cao: Conceptualization, Methodology,
310 Funding acquisition, Supervision.

311 **Declaration of competing interest**

312 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
313 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper

314 **Data availability statement**

315 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author
316 upon reasonable request.

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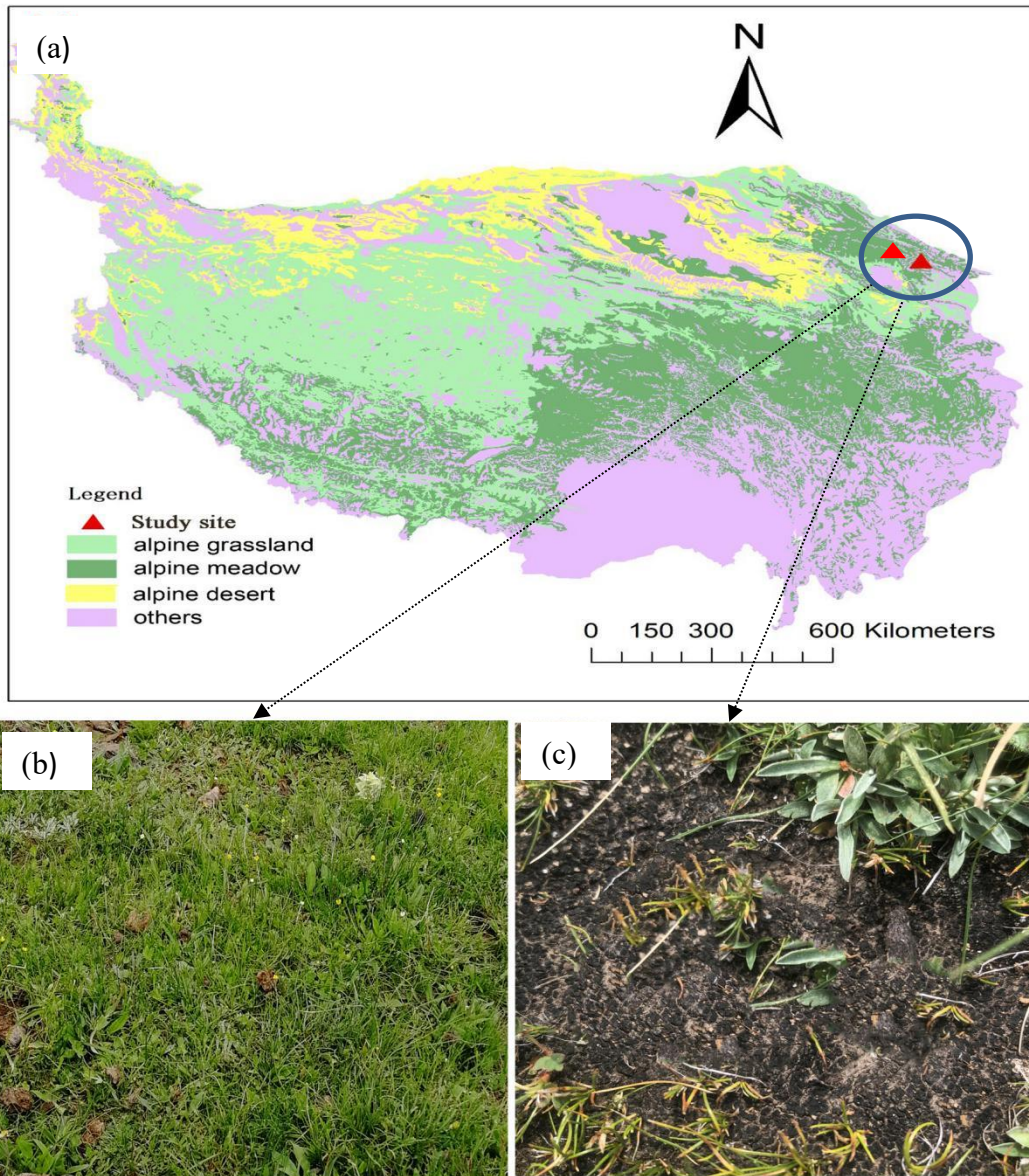
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429 Fig.1 The study site (a) and two type meadows in this study: normal *Kobresia* meadow (b) and

430 biocrust meadow (c)

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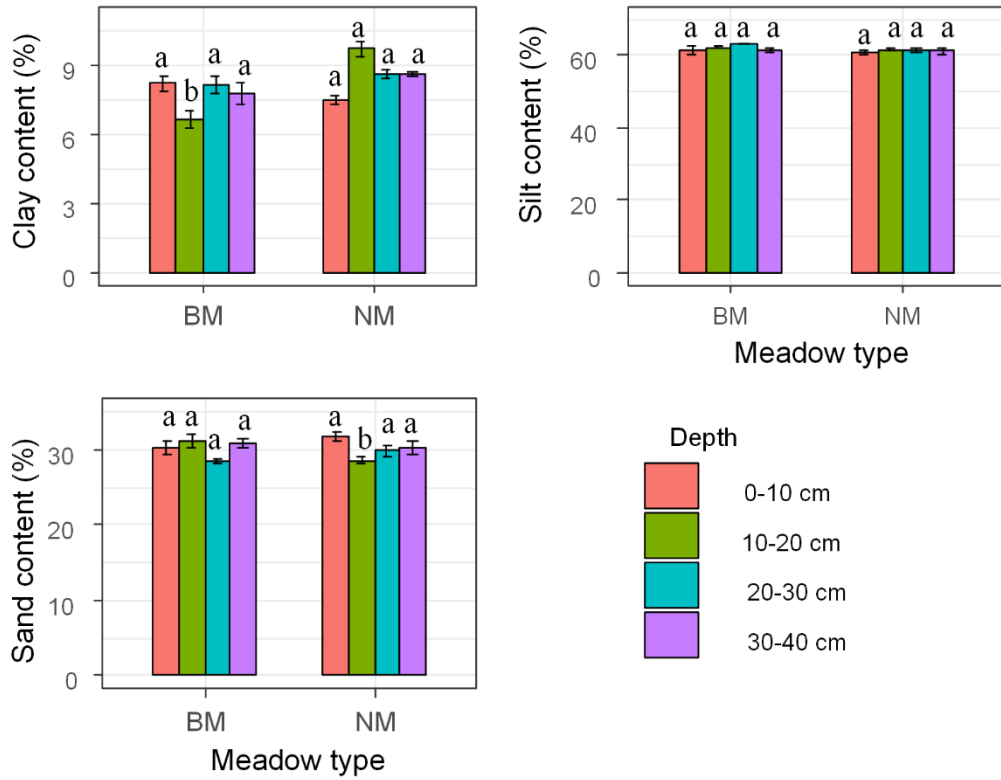
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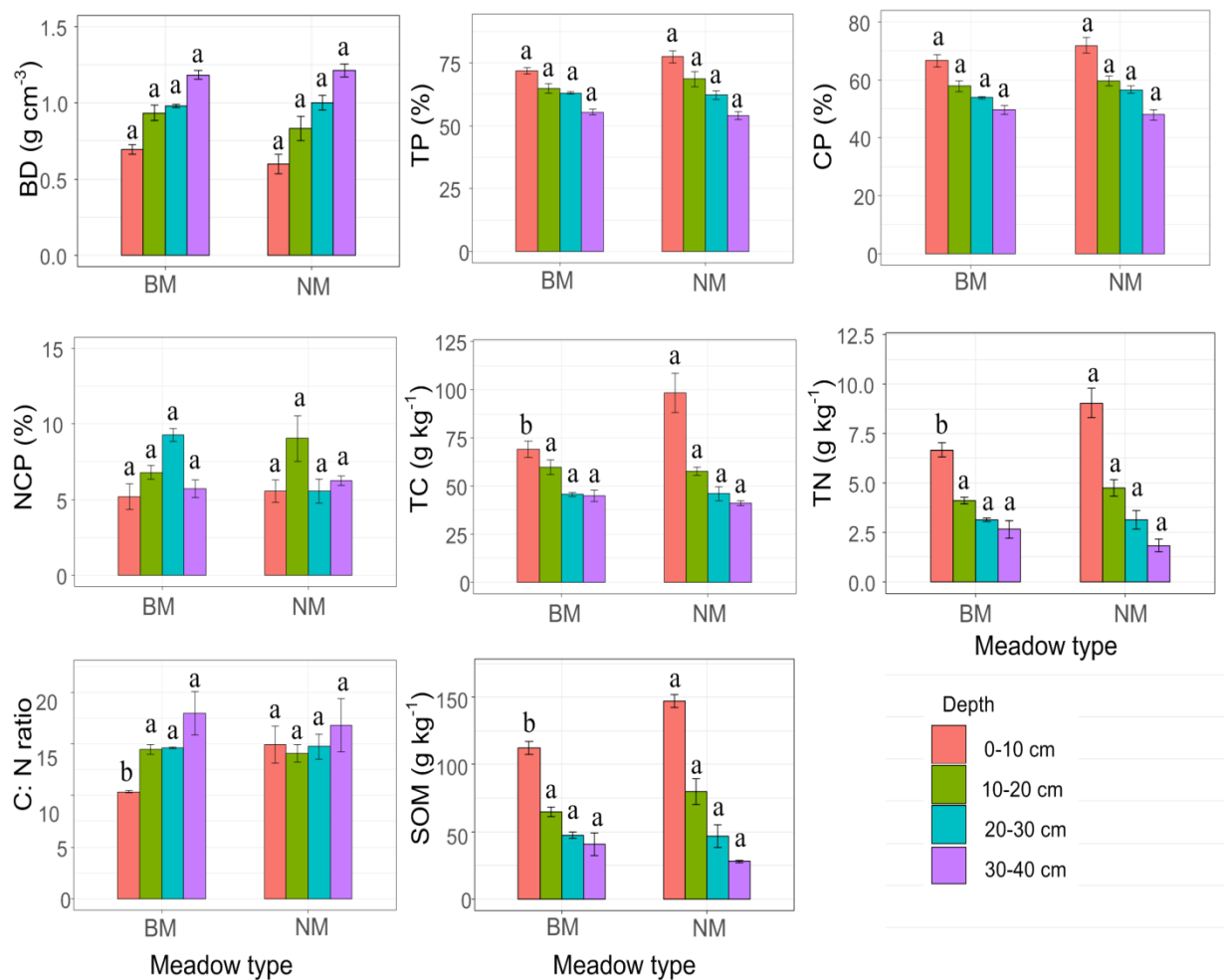
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439 Fig.2 Soil texture among two surface soil types. Note: NM, normal *Kobresia* meadow; BM,
 440 biocrusts meadow, the different letters mean significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between normal
 441 *Kobresia* meadow and crust meadow at the same soil layer.

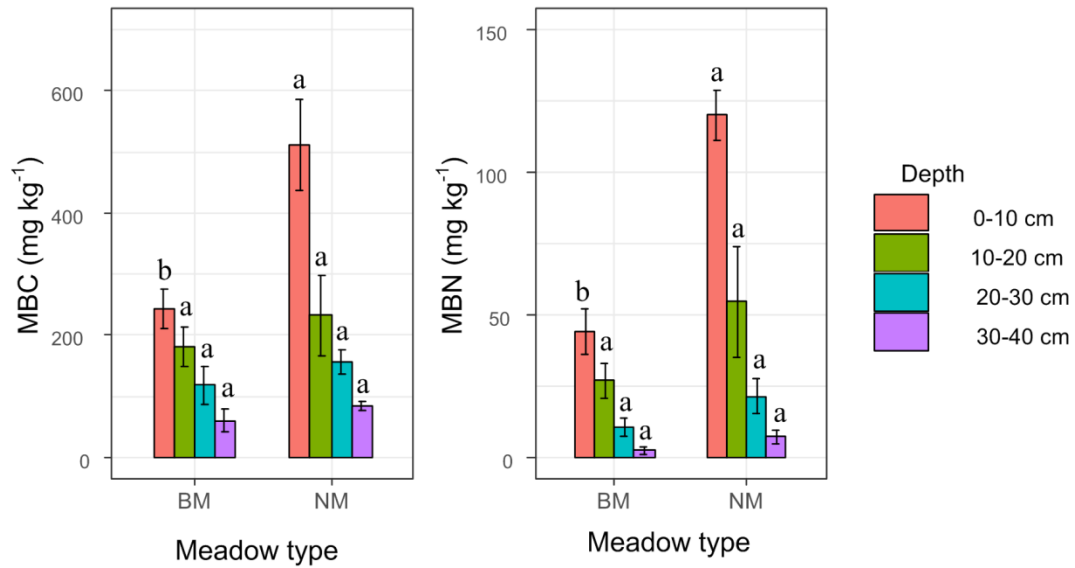


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443 Fig.3 The soil physicochemical among two surface soil types, BD: soil bulk density, TP: soil total
 444 porosity, CP: soil capillary porosity, NCP: non-capillary porosity, TN: soil total nitrogen, TC: soil
 445 total carbon, C:N: soil C: N ratio, SOM: soil organic matter, the different letters mean significant
 446 differences ($P < 0.05$) between normal *Kobresia* meadow and crust meadow at the same soil layer

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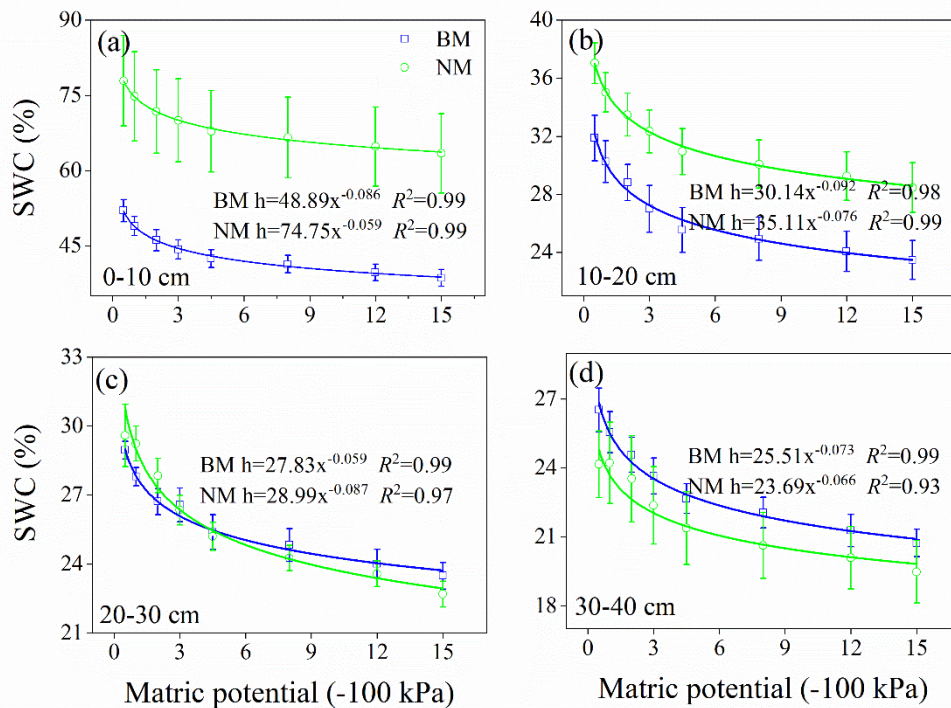
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450 Fig. 4 Soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC) and microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) among two
 451 surface soil types, the different letters mean significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between normal
 452 *Kobresia* meadow and crust meadow at the same soil layer

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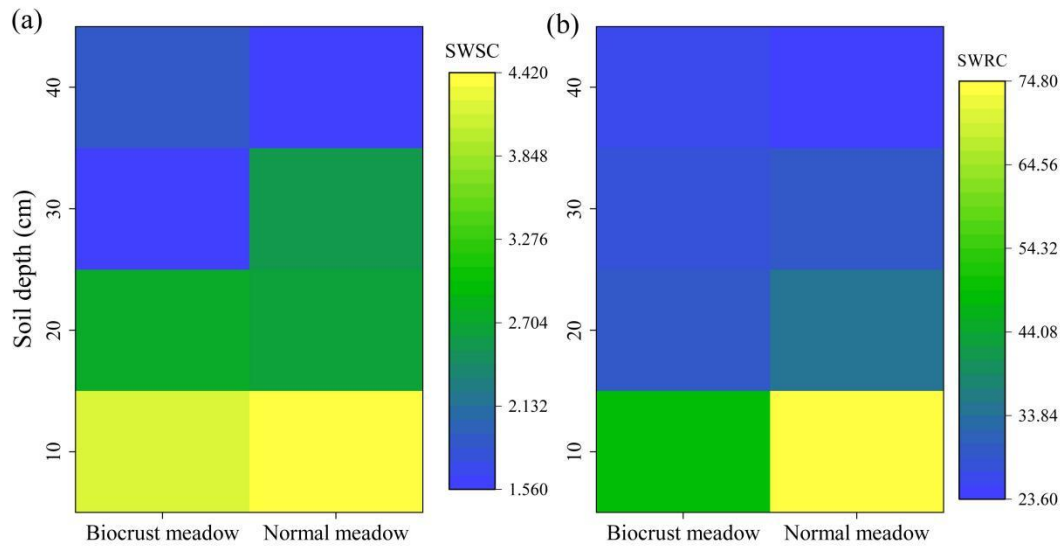


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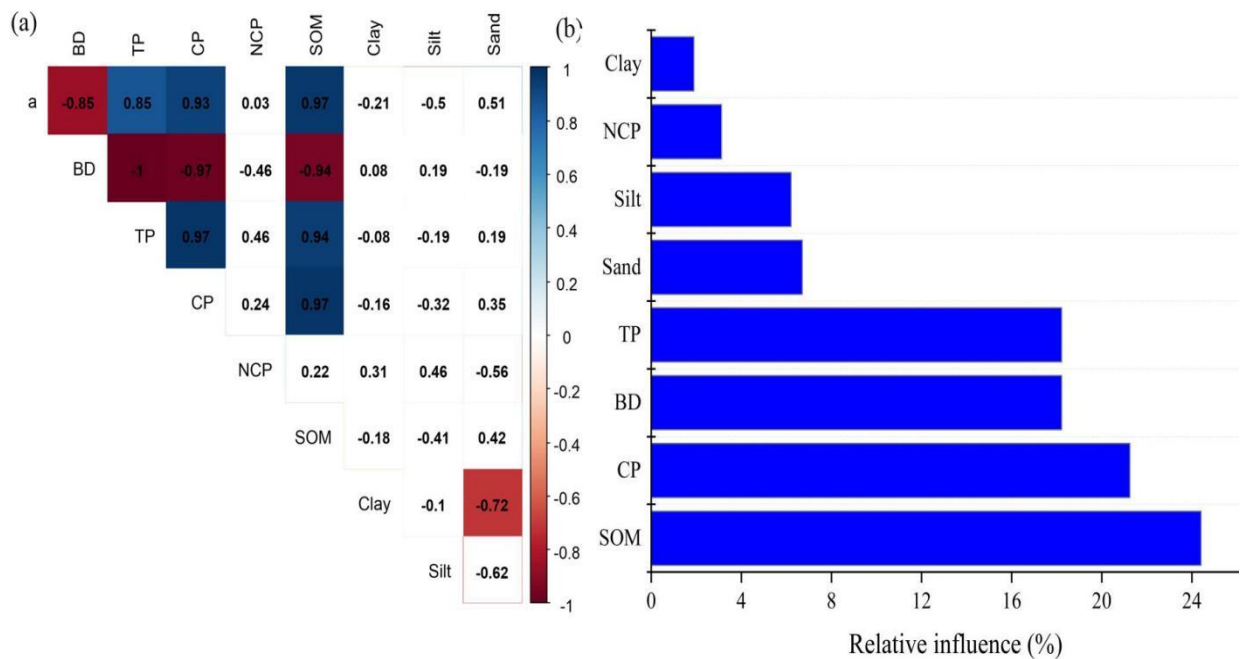
455 Fig.5 Soil water retention curve of different soil layer (a: 0-10 cm, b: 10-20 cm, c: 20-30 cm, d: 30-
 456 40 cm) among two surface soil types between soil water content (SWC) and matric potential. Note:

457 NM, normal Kobresia meadow; BM, biocrusts meadow, the soil water retention curve was fitted by

458 Gardner model (i.e. $h = A\theta^{-B}$), A and B are the fitting parameters; a higher value of A indicated a
 459 higher soil water-holding capacity.
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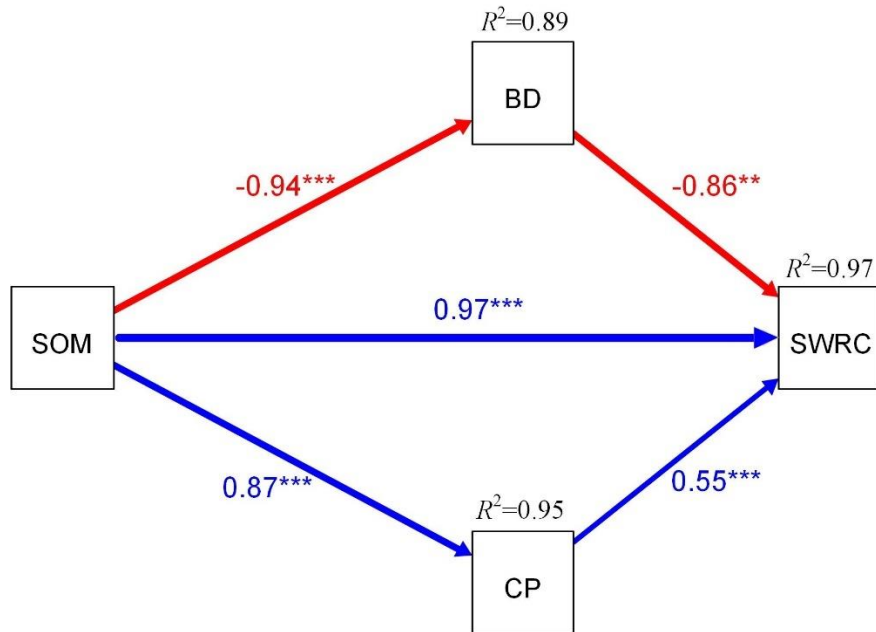
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 462 Fig.6 Soil water supply capacity (SWSC) (a) and soil water retention capacity (SWRC) (b) of
 463 different soil layer among two surface soil types, the SWSC was represent the A*B from Gardner
 464 model, the SWRC represent the A from Gardner model, a higher value of A*B and A indicated a
 465 higher soil water supply capacity and soil water retention capacity, respectively.
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 468 Fig. 7 Pearson correlation between soil water retention and soil properties (a) among two surface
 25

469 soil types, and the relative influence of soil properties on soil water retention (b). Note: the “*”,
 470 “***” and “****” indicated significant at 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 level, respectively. Note: a: the
 471 parameter fitted by Gardner model, BD: soil bulk density, TP: soil total porosity, CP: capillary
 472 porosity, NCP: non-capillary porosity, SOM: soil organic matter.

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476 Fig. 8 Structural equation modeling of the direct and indirect effects of soil properties on soil water
 477 retention capacity (SWRC) among two surface soil types. Standardized path coefficients, adjacent
 478 to arrows, are analogous to partial correlation coefficients, and indicative of the effect size of the
 479 relationship. Continuous blue and red lines represent positive and negative correlations, respectively.
 480 Model fit: Fisher.C=5.48, $df=2$, P -value=0.065.

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489 Table 1 The soil saturated hydraulic conductivity, soil water content and root density across two
 490 type meadow
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	NM	BM
K_s (mm min ⁻¹)	1.36	0.80
Soil water content (%)		
0-10 cm	41.58	18.77
10-20 cm	41.88	27.70
20-30 cm	35.93	29.45
30-40 cm	29.34	29.59
Root density (g m ⁻²)		
0-10 cm	3012.62	4917.89
10-20 cm	622.63	1431.53
20-30 cm	154.18	194.25
30-40 cm	93.01	142.02

492 Note: NM, normal Kobresia meadow; BM, biocrusts meadow
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