

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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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Biocrust is a key component of ecosystems and plays a vital role in altering hydrological processes
16 in terrestrial ecosystems. The impacts of biocrust on hydrological processes in arid and semi-arid
17 ecosystems has been widely documented. However, the effects and mechanisms of biocrust on soil
18 hydrological processes in alpine ecosystems are still poorly understood. In this study, we selected
19 two meadow types from the northern Qinghai-Tibet Plateau: normal *Kobresia* meadow (NM) and
20 biocrust meadow (BM). Both the soil hydrological and physicochemical properties were examined.
21 We found that in the 0–30 cm soil layer, soil water retention and soil water content in NM were
22 higher than those in BM, whereas the 30–40 cm layer's soil water retention and soil water content

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

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

37 **1 Introduction**

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

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

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

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

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

87 **2 Materials and methods**

88 **2.1 Site description**

89 The field test sites were located in the northeastern Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (101° 19' E, 37° 37'
90 N), in Qinghai Province, China (Fig.1a). The area has a continental plateau climate with a mean air
91 temperature of -1.7°C and a mean annual precipitation of approximately 562 mm (Dai et al., 2020).
92 It should be noted that approximately 80% of the precipitation occurs during the growing season
93 (between May and September), and the other 20% occurs during the non-growing season. The main
94 vegetation type in this region is the *Kobresia* meadow, which is dominated by *Kobresia humilis*
95 (Fig.1b). The soil type in the study area is silt loam according to the in the USDA soil taxonomy
96 system of classification (Cusack and others 2018), with a soil thickness of approximately 60–80 cm.
97 The pH and EC is 7.5 m s m⁻¹ and 6.7 in the study area, respectively. (Li et al., 2016).

98 **2.2 Experimental design and soil sampling**

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

109 We obtained the disturbed soil samples (i.e. non-ring knife soil sample) in NM and BM. Four
110 quadrats (1 × 1 m) were randomly selected for soil sampling with a depth of 10 cm in each treatment

111 using an earth boring auger, and then brought back to the laboratory to measure and analyze soil
112 organic matter (SOM), soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC), microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN),
113 total carbon (TC), total nitrogen (TN), and soil texture (PSD). Undisturbed cylindrical ring samples
114 (i.e. ring knife soil sample) were also obtained in each treatment to determine the soil bulk density
115 (BD), soil porosity, and soil hydraulic properties (i.e., soil water retention and soil water supply
116 capacity). The soil infiltration rates were measured using a double-ring infiltrometer for each
117 treatment.

118 **2.3 Laboratory measurements and analyses**

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

$$127 \quad TP = \left(1 - \frac{BD}{d_s}\right) \times 100\% \quad (1),$$

$$128 \quad CP = CWC \times BD \quad (2),$$

$$129 \quad NCP = TP - CP \quad (3),$$

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

133 The soil water retention curves (SWRCs) were measured using a pressure plate apparatus (1500
134 F1, Soil Moisture Equipment Corp., SEC, USA), and the relationship between soil water content
135 and matric potential was fitted by the Gardner model. The formula of the Gardner model is as
136 follows (Gardner et al., 1970):

$$137 \quad h = A\theta^B ,$$

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

141

142 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

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

153

154 **3 Results**

155 3.1 Soil texture among two surface soil types

156 Sand content dominated the soil texture in the 0–40 cm soil layer across the two surface soil
157 types (mean 61.69%), followed by sand (mean 30.13%), and clay (mean 8.18%) (Fig. 2).
158 Specifically, the 0–10 cm clay content in BM was 9% higher than that in NM, whereas the 10–40
159 cm clay content in BM was 16% lower than that in NM, especially for the 10–20 cm soil layer
160 ($P<0.001$). In contrast, the 0–40 cm silt content in BM was higher than that in NM, especially for
161 the 20–30 cm soil layer ($P<0.05$). However, no clear pattern was observed for the sand content
162 between BM and NM. Overall, 0–40 cm clay content (8.62%) in NM was 11% higher than that in
163 BM (7.69%), whereas in the 0–40 cm silt content (61.24%) in NM was nearly equal to that in BM
164 (62.13%).

165 3.2 Soil physicochemical properties among two surface soil types

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

175 3.3 Soil hydrological processes among two surface soil types

176 The soil hydrological processes varied between crust BM and NM (Fig.5 and Table 1). Given

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

186 **3.4 Dominated factors affecting soil-soil water retention**

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

193 **4 Discussion**

194 **4.1 Effect of biocrust on soil properties**

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

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

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

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

232 **4.2 Effect of biocrust on soil hydrology and their underlying mechanisms**

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

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

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

265 mainly achieved by altering soil bulk density and soil porosity (Fig. 8) because higher soil organic
266 matter could reduce soil bulk density and thereby increase soil porosity (Liu et al., 2019), leading
267 to higher soil water retention. This result was also confirmed by the significant positive relationship
268 between soil organic matter and soil water retention (Fig. 7). Considering soil organic matter was
269 derived from vegetation litter and root biomass, whereas the vegetation litter in cyanobacteria crust
270 meadow was lower than that in normal meadow owing to its lower aboveground biomass and
271 vegetation coverage, ultimately resulting in lower soil organic matter in cyanobacteria crust meadow.

272 **4.3 Implications for the effect of biocrust in alpine meadows**

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

287 not sufficiently to extrapolate the whole QTP owing to its high spatial heterogeneity. Thus, a larger
288 scale or more study sites is necessary to have a generalizability conclusion regarding the effects of
289 biocrust on hydrological processes in alpine meadow of QTP.

290 **5 Conclusions**

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

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306 **Author contribution**

307 Licong Dai: Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis. Ruiyu Fu :
308 Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis, Visualization. Xiaowei Guo

309 and Zhongmin Hu: Investigation, Data curation, Project administration, Supervision. Yangong Du:
310 Writing – original draft, review & editing. Guangmin Cao and Huakun Zhou: Conceptualization,
311 Methodology, Funding acquisition, Supervision.

312 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

315 **Data availability statement**

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

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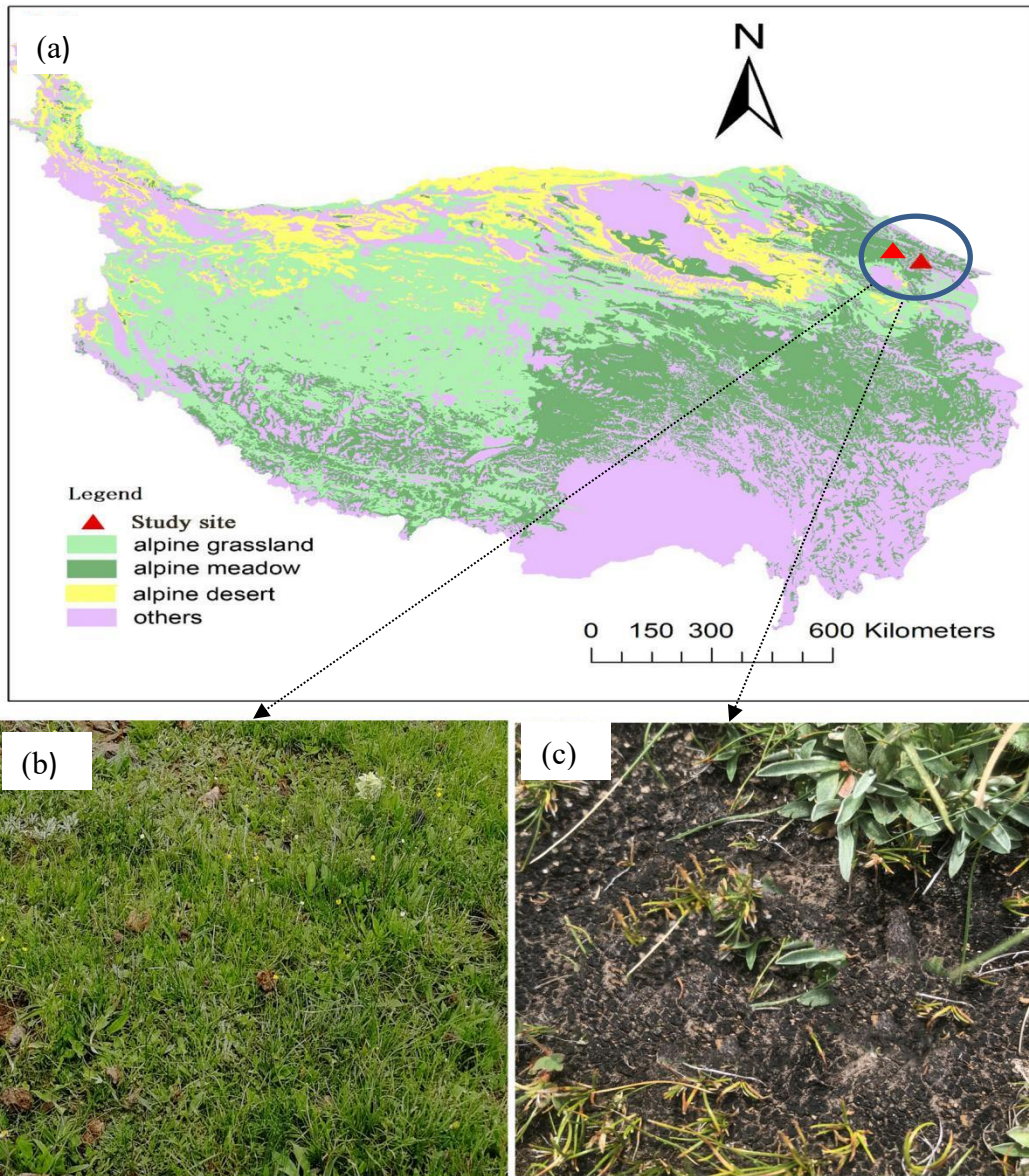
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430 Fig.1 The study site (a) and two type meadows in this study: normal *Kobresia* meadow (b) and

431 biocrust meadow (c)

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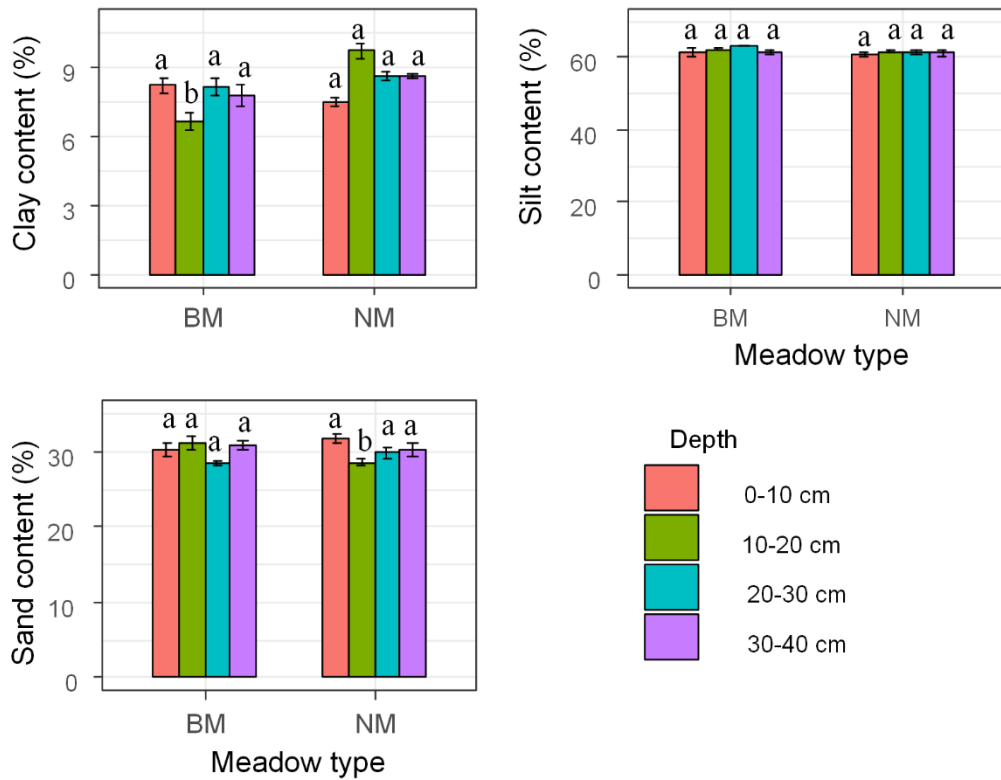
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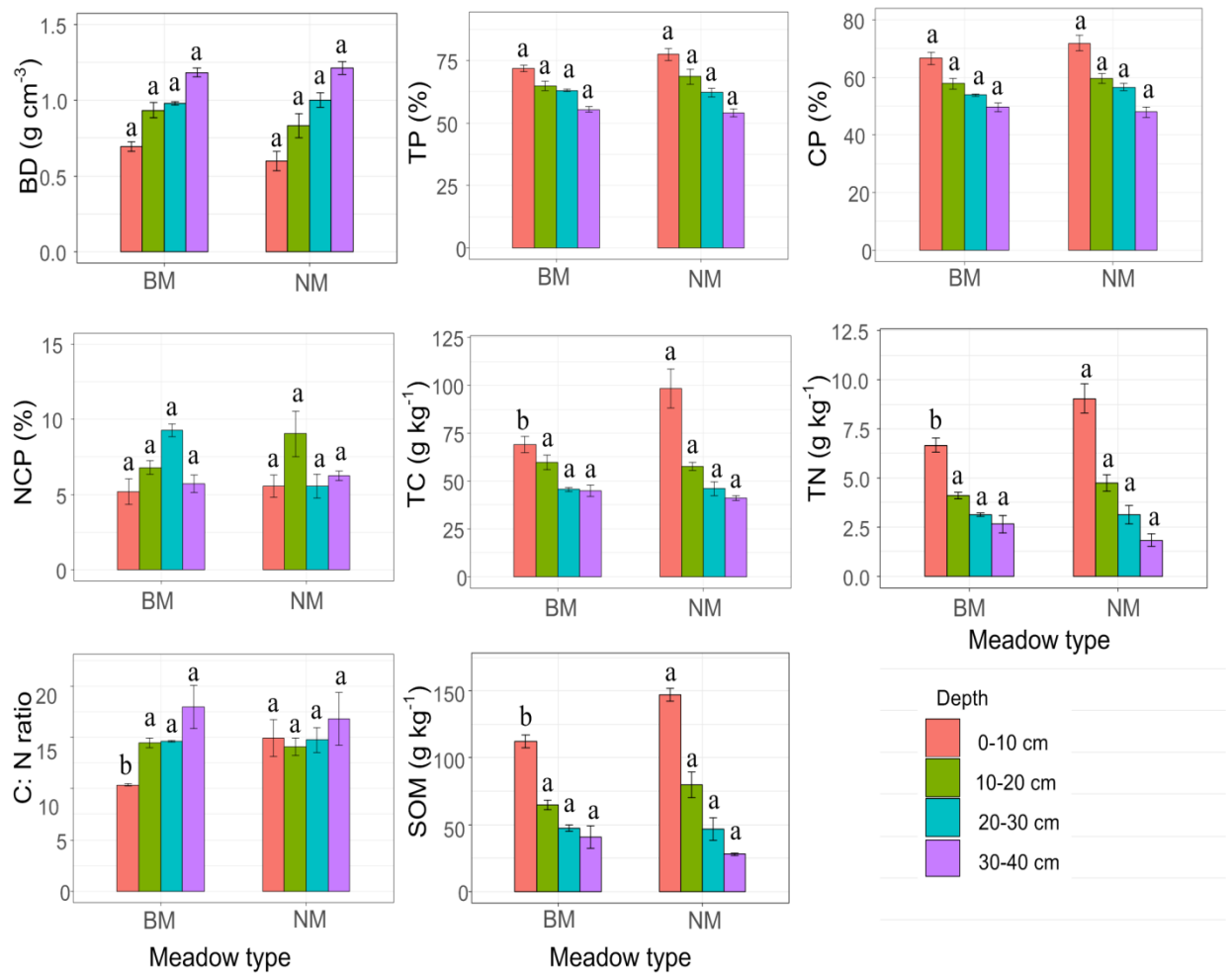
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440 Fig.2 Soil texture among two surface soil types. Note: NM, normal *Kobresia* meadow; BM,
 441 biocrusts meadow, the different letters mean significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between normal
 442 *Kobresia* meadow and crust meadow at the same soil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

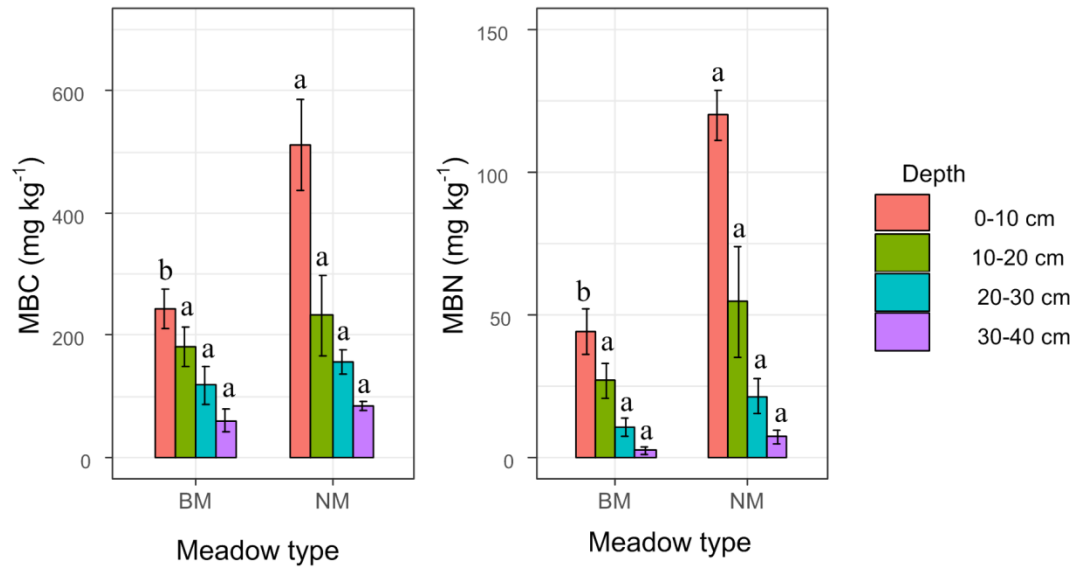


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444 Fig.3 The soil physicochemical among two surface soil types, BD: soil bulk density, TP: soil total
 445 porosity, CP: soil capillary porosity, NCP: non-capillary porosity, TN: soil total nitrogen, TC: soil
 446 total carbon, C:N: soil C: N ratio,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

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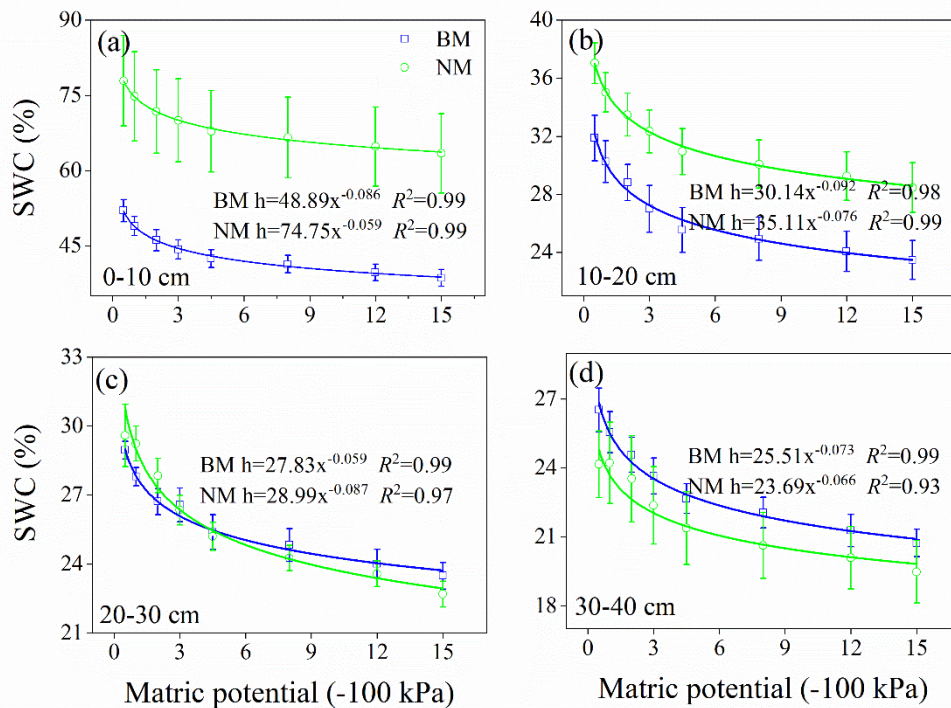
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451 Fig. 4 Soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC) and microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) among two
 452 surface soil types, the different letters mean significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between normal
 453 *Kobresia* meadow and crust meadow at the same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

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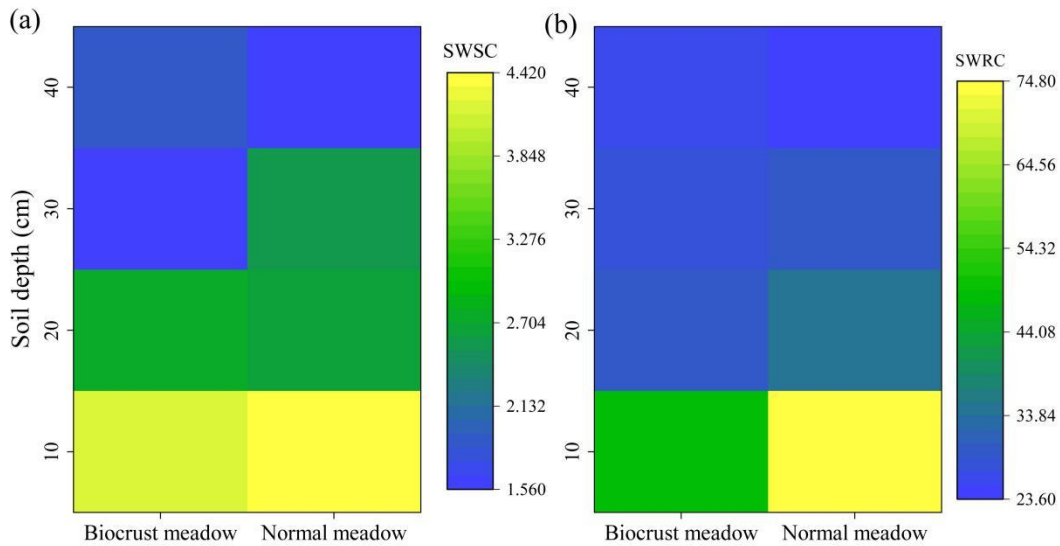


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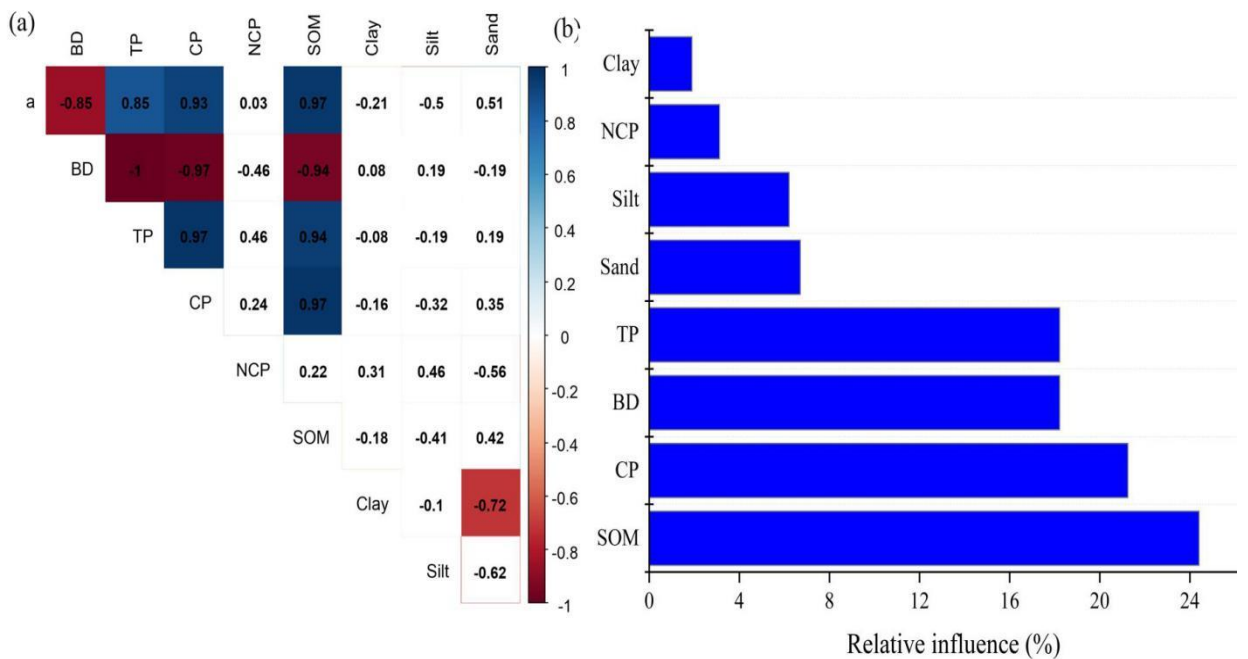
456 Fig.5 Soil water retention curve of different soil layer (a: 0-10 cm, b: 10-20 cm, c: 20-30 cm, d: 30-
 457 40 cm) among two surface soil types between soil water content (SWC) and matric potential. Note:

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

459 Gardner model (i.e. $h = A\theta^{-B}$), A and B are the fitting parameters; a higher value of A indicated a
 460 higher soil water-holding capacity.
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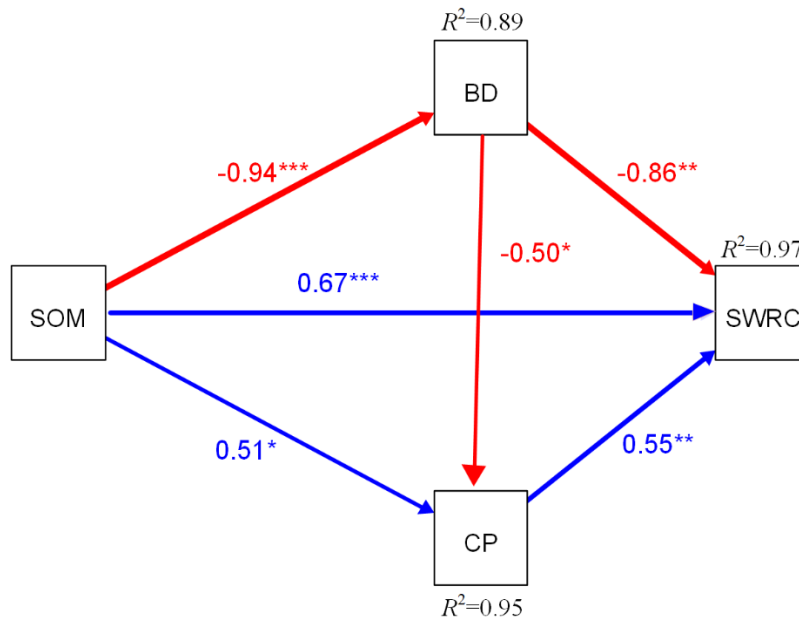


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 463 Fig.6 Soil water supply capacity (SWSC) (a) and soil water retention capacity (SWRC) (b) of
 464 different soil layer among two surface soil types, the SWSC was represent the A*B from Gardner
 465 model, the SWRC represent the A from Gardner model, a higher value of A*B and A indicated a
 466 higher soil water supply capacity and soil water retention capacity, respectively.
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 469 Fig. 7 Pearson correlation between soil water retention and soil properties (a) among two surface
 25

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

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491 Table 1 The soil saturated hydraulic conductivity, soil water content and root density across two
492 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

494 Note: NM, normal *Kobresia* meadow; BM, biocrusts meadow

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