



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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11

12 **Abstract**

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

14 in terrestrial ecosystems. The role of biocrust on hydrological properties in arid and semi-arid

15 ecosystems has been widely documented; however, the effects and mechanisms of biocrust on soil

16 hydrological properties in alpine ecosystems are still poorly understood. In this study, we selected

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

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

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

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

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

22 Furthermore, the physicochemical properties were different between NM and BM. The 0–10 cm



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

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

### 35 **1 Introduction**

36 Soil biocrust is the special soil structure in the terrestrial ecosystem, which is widely  
37 distributed in arid and semiarid regions throughout the world, and it plays a vital role in regulating  
38 biogeochemical processes, hydrology processes, and surface energy balance, such as improving soil  
39 aggregation and stability, increasing the soil fertility, reducing soil erosion and thus maintaining  
40 water availability (Li et al., 2016), which can serve as “ecological engineers” in systems. However,  
41 to our knowledge, the controlling mechanism of biocrust on soil hydrological processes is still  
42 unclear, and most previous studies were conducted in arid and semi-arid ecosystems, such as the  
43 Tengger Desert, Negev Deserts, and Loess Plateau, and display a positive effect on soil hydrological  
44 properties. Very few studies have focused on the role of biocrust on hydrological properties (i.e.,



45 soil water content, soil water retention, and soil infiltration) in high-altitude alpine ecosystems, and  
46 the mechanisms are poorly understood. Thus, examining the impact of biocrust on hydrological  
47 properties could have substantial effects on water balance in alpine ecosystems.

48 The alpine meadow is an important ecosystem in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP), which plays  
49 an important role in water retention (Dai et al., 2019), in preventing soil erosion (Qian et al., 2021)  
50 and in regulating energy exchange (Zhu et al., 2020) by altering soil surface features such as  
51 roughness, soil texture, porosity, and aggregation (Li et al., 2016), thereby modifying evaporation,  
52 soil water retention, and water infiltration processes. However, the formation of biocrust in alpine  
53 meadows is different from that in arid areas, where the biocrust is formed from intensive land use  
54 such as overgrazing, and the biocrust types vary with the succession stage of alpine meadows (Li et  
55 al., 2016b). For instance, as the degree of degradation increases, the moss-dominated crust is  
56 transformed into cyanobacteria-dominated crust, followed by lichen-dominated crust from  
57 *Graminoid*-dominated vegetation degradation to *Kobresia humilis* meadow (light degradation) and  
58 then to *K. pygmaea* meadow (moderate degradation) (Li et al., 2016). Thus, we suggest that the  
59 impact of biocrust on hydrologic processes in alpine meadows may differ from that in arid areas,  
60 and vice versa.

61 To date, the effects of biocrust on plant growth and seed germination in alpine meadows have  
62 been reported (Li et al., 2016b; Letendre et al., 2019), whereas the impact of biocrust on soil  
63 hydrology processes, such as soil water retention and soil infiltration, remains poorly understood.  
64 Although numerous studies have pointed out that biocrust has substantial effects on soil water  
65 retention and soil moisture infiltration processes by altering soil microenvironments, such as soil  
66 roughness, soil porosity, and aggregation, no consensus has been reached. For instance, some studies



67 have found that biocrust could increase soil water infiltration and reduce runoff by increasing soil  
68 porosity and aggregate stability in cool desert ecosystems (Kidron and Benenson, 2014; Wei et al.,  
69 2015). In contrast, other studies found that soil water infiltration was significantly reduced in crusted  
70 areas compared with non-crusted areas in arid ecosystems (Li et al., 2010; Xiao and Hu, 2017).  
71 These discrepancies highlight the necessity to further explore the effects of biocrust on hydrological  
72 processes, such as exploring the specific hydraulic properties by conducting soil infiltration  
73 experiments and soil water retention curve measurements. Furthermore, most previous studies were  
74 mainly conducted in arid and semi-arid ecosystems, and very few studies have focused on the effects  
75 of biocrust on the soil's hydrological properties in high-altitude alpine ecosystems. Therefore, it is  
76 crucial to assess the role of biocrust in soil water retention and infiltration in alpine meadows.

77 To address these knowledge gaps, both soil and hydrological features were measured with the  
78 aim of exploring the role of biocrust in hydrological processes in alpine ecosystems. Specifically,  
79 the objectives of this study were to explore the effect of biocrust on soil-hydrological features in  
80 alpine ecosystems, to reveal how biocrust affects soil water retention by altering soil and vegetation  
81 properties, and provide insights into the management of biocrust in alpine meadows.

## 82 **2 Materials and methods**

### 83 **2.1 Site description**

84 The field test sites were located in the northeastern Qinghai-Tibet Plateau ( $101^{\circ} 19' E$ ,  $37^{\circ} 37'$   
85 N), in Qinghai Province, China (Fig. 1a). The area has a continental plateau climate with a mean air  
86 temperature of  $-1.7^{\circ}C$  and a mean annual precipitation of approximately 562 mm (Dai et al., 2020).  
87 It should be noted that approximately 80% of the precipitation occurs during the growing season  
88 (between May and September), and the other 20% occurs during the non-growing season. The main



89 vegetation type in this region is the *Kobresia* meadow, which is dominated by *Kobresia humilis*  
90 (Fig.1b). The soil type in the study area is silt loam according to the in the USDA soil taxonomy  
91 system of classification (Cusack and others 2018), with a soil thickness of approximately 60–80 cm.  
92 The pH and EC is 7.5 m s m<sup>-1</sup> and 6.7 in the study area, respectively. (Li et al., 2016).

## 93 2.2 Experimental design and soil sampling

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

103 We obtained the disturbed soil samples in

104

105 in NM and BM and four quadrats (1 × 1 m) were randomly selected for soil sampling with a  
106 depth of 10 cm in each treatment using an earth boring auger, and then brought back to the laboratory  
107 to measure and analyze soil organic matter (SOM), soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC), microbial  
108 biomass nitrogen (MBN), total carbon (TC), total nitrogen (TN), and soil particle size distribution  
109 (PSD). Undisturbed cylindrical ring samples were also obtained in each treatment to determine the  
110 soil bulk density (BD), soil porosity, and soil hydraulic properties (i.e., soil water retention and soil



111 water supply capacity). The soil infiltration rates were measured using a double-ring infiltrometer  
112 for each treatment.

### 113 2.3 Laboratory measurements and analyses

114 First, the disturbed soil samples were sieved through 0.25 mm and 2-mm soil sieves to remove  
115 debris and roots for the analysis of soil properties; SOM was measured based on the Walkley &  
116 Black procedure (Nelson and Sommers, 1982), MBC and MBN were measured by the chloroform  
117 fumigation-direct extraction method (Vance et al., 1987), and TC and TN were measured using an  
118 element analyzer (Elementar Vario EL III, Hanau, Germany). PSD was determined using a  
119 Mastersizer 2000 (Malvern Instruments, UK). BD was measured as the ratio of the oven-dry soil  
120 mass to the core volume (100 cm<sup>3</sup>). The soil total porosity, soil capillary porosity, and soil non-  
121 capillary were measured using the following equation (Dai et al., 2020):

$$122 \quad TP = \left(1 - \frac{BD}{d_s}\right) \times 100\% \quad (1),$$

$$123 \quad CP = CMC \times BD \quad (2),$$

$$124 \quad NCP = TP - CP \quad (3),$$

125 where TP, CP, and NCP represent soil total porosity (%), soil capillary porosity (%), and soil non-  
126 capillary porosity (%), respectively; CMC represents soil capillary water capacity;  $d_s$  is the soil  
127 particle density, which was assumed to be 2.65 (g cm<sup>-3</sup>).

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

$$132 \quad h = A\theta^{-B},$$



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

136

## 137 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

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

148

## 149 **3 Results**

### 150 **3.1 Soil particle size distribution among two surface soil types**

151 Silt content dominated the soil particle size distribution in the 0–40 cm soil layer across the  
152 two surface soil types (mean 61.69%), followed by sand (mean 30.13%), and clay (mean 8.18%)  
153 (Fig. 2). Specifically, the 0–10 cm soil layer's clay content in BM was 9% higher than that in NM,  
154 whereas the 10–40 cm soil layer's clay content in BM was 16% lower than that in NM, especially



155 for the 10–20 cm soil layer ( $P<0.001$ ). In contrast, the 0–40 cm soil layer's silt content in BM was  
156 higher than that in NM, especially for the 20–30 cm soil layer ( $P<0.05$ ). However, no clear pattern  
157 was observed for the sand content between BM and NM. Overall, in the 0–40 cm soil layer, clay  
158 content (8.62%) in NM was 11% higher than that in BM (7.69%), whereas in the 0–40 cm soil layer,  
159 silt content (61.24%) in NM was nearly equal to that in BM (62.13%).

### 160 3.2 Soil physicochemical properties among two surface soil types

161 There were no significant differences for 0–40 cm BD, 0–40 cm TP, 0–40 cm CP and 0–40 cm  
162 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  
163 CP in NM were 7% and 5% higher than that of BM. No clear pattern was observed for NCP in NM  
164 and BM (Fig.3). Furthermore, the 0–20 cm TN and SOM in NM were much higher than those in  
165 BM and reached a significant level at 0–10 cm ( $P<0.05$ ), whereas the 30–40 cm TN and SOM in  
166 NM were lower than those in BM (Fig.3). Similarly, the 0–10 cm soil layer's TC and C: N ratio in  
167 NM were significantly higher than those in BM, whereas the 30–40 cm soil layer's TC and C: N  
168 ratio in NM were lower than those in BM (Fig.3). Additionally, the 0–40 cm soil layer's MBC and  
169 MBN in NM were higher than those in BM and reached a significant level at 0–10 cm ( $P<0.05$ )  
170 (Fig. 4).

### 171 3.3 Soil hydrological properties among two surface soil types

172 The soil hydrological properties varied between crust BM and NM (Fig.5 and Table 1). Given  
173 that parameter A fitted by the Gardner model represents the soil water retention (a higher A value  
174 indicates higher soil water retention), the soil water content was reduced with decreasing matric  
175 potential and reduced sharply at high matric potential but remained stable at low matric potential  
176 (Fig. 5), the 0–30 cm layer's soil water content and soil water retention in NM were higher than



177 those in BM, whereas the 30–40 cm layer's soil water content and soil water retention in NM were  
178 lower than those in BM (Table 1 and Fig. 6b). Similarly, the 0–10 and 20–30 cm layers' soil water  
179 supply capacity (i.e.,  $A^*B$  fitted by the Gardner model) in NM was higher than that in BM, while  
180 the 10–20 and 30–40 cm layers' soil water supply capacity in NM was lower than that in BM (Fig.  
181 6a). Furthermore, the surface infiltration rate in the BM was significantly lower than that in the NM  
182 (Table 1).

### 183 **3.4 Dominated factors affecting soil-soil water retention**

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

## 190 **4 Discussion**

### 191 **4.1 Effect of biocrust on soil properties**

192 The effects of biocrust on soil properties have been widely explored in previous studies (Guo  
193 et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2019), and most studies conducted in arid regions have found that the presence  
194 of biocrust could improve soil aggregation and stability (Wu et al., 2020), increase soil fertility  
195 (Zhou et al., 2020), and reduce soil erosion (Chamizo et al., 2017). In this study, however, we found  
196 that the presence of biocrust could improve topsoil texture, but not that of deep soil. The 0–10 cm  
197 soil layer's clay content in BM was higher than that for NM, whereas the 10–40 cm soil layer's clay  
198 content in BM was lower than that for NM, which is in line with previous studies conducted in arid



199 and semi-arid regions (Liu et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2020). The higher clay content in BN was  
200 attributed to the exudation and cohesiveness of the biocrust, which promoted clay and silt formation  
201 and reduced sand content (Wang et al., 2021). Furthermore, we found that the 0–20 cm soil layer’s  
202 soil bulk density in NM was higher than that in BM, thereby leading to higher soil porosity and total  
203 capillary porosity in NM. The higher soil capillary porosity in NM was mainly attributed to its  
204 higher soil organic matter content, which was also confirmed by the significant positive relationship  
205 between soil organic matter and soil capillary porosity (Fig. 7). It has been well documented that a  
206 higher soil organic matter could improve soil aggregation and stability and subsequently increase  
207 soil capillary porosity (Cui et al., 2021).

208         Moreover, an increasing number of studies have found that the presence of biocrust can also  
209 improve soil nutrient conditions in the process of mobile sand fixation (Belnap et al., 2004; Guo et  
210 al., 2008; Li et al., 2005a). In comparison, we found that the presence of biocrust reduces the 0–10  
211 cm layer’s soil total carbon, total nitrogen, and C: N ratio, which is in contrast to most previous  
212 studies conducted in arid and semi-arid regions, where soil nutrient conditions were improved under  
213 biocrust (Chamizo et al., 2012b; Zhao et al., 2010). A probable reason for these differences may be  
214 environmental differences. Considering that the formation of biocrust is a changing process from  
215 simple to complex in its morphology, the early cyanobacteria crust was formed only under favorable  
216 hydrothermal conditions such as temperature, soil water, solar radiation, and nutrient content  
217 (Belnap et al., 2004; Li et al., 2005b). For instance, biocrust is metabolically active when the external  
218 environment is wet, and its metabolically active environment is sensitive to temperature (Belnap et  
219 al., 2004; Li et al., 2005b), otherwise the biocrust may choose to enter the dormant stage when the  
220 external environment is under unfavorable conditions. Therefore, compared to the higher



221 temperatures in arid and semi-arid lands, the biocrust in alpine ecosystems may be in a dormant  
222 stage owing to its lower temperature and less available nutrients. Moreover, the biocrust in our study  
223 was mostly dominated by cyanobacteria crust, which was vulnerable to external disturbances such  
224 as grazing activity; thus, the biocrust may choose dormancy when it is subjected to grazing pressure,  
225 which was confirmed by the significantly lower microbial soil carbon and microbial soil nitrogen  
226 content (Fig. 4).

#### 227 **4.2 Effect of biocrust on soil hydrology and their underlying mechanisms**

228 In this study, we found that soil water infiltration was greatly reduced in BM compared with  
229 that in NM, which was consistent with the results of a previous study conducted in alpine meadows  
230 (Li et al., 2016b). However, it is in contrast to other studies conducted in cool desert ecosystems  
231 where biocrust increased soil water infiltration and reduced runoff by increasing soil porosity and  
232 aggregate stability (Kidron and Benenson, 2014; Wei et al., 2015). These discrepancies were  
233 associated with soil texture and biocrust developmental stage. In general, soil water infiltration in  
234 coarse-textured soils is higher than that in fine-textured soils owing to its large pores compared with  
235 the narrow pores in fine-textured soils, which reduces the movement of water into the soil (Belnap,  
236 2006). However, we found that the establishment of biocrust increased clay content and  
237 subsequently reduced soil macropores, which hindered soil water infiltration. Therefore, we can  
238 conclude that the soil in the BM may be more vulnerable to runoff generation and consequent soil  
239 erosion, owing to its lower soil water infiltration and soil water retention capacity. On the other hand,  
240 biocrust can reduce available pore spaces for water to infiltrate by clogging the soil surface  
241 conductive pores owing to its higher water absorption and swelling of biocrust (Fischer et al., 2010),  
242 and consequently reduce soil infiltration. In addition, soil water infiltration was altered by the



243 developmental stage of the biocrust in homogeneous soil. A previous study indicated that soil  
244 hydraulic parameters differed significantly between cyanobacterial biocrust and moss biocrust  
245 (Wang et al., 2017). For instance, Chamizo et al. (2012a) reported that the incipient-cyanobacterial  
246 crust had a lower soil infiltration rate than that of the cyanobacterial crust, whereas the dark-colored  
247 mosses' crust had higher surface soil infiltration capacity by increasing macroporosity and  
248 unsaturated hydraulic conductivity in the grasslands dominated by *A. splendens* (Jiang et al., 2018).  
249 In our study, the biocrust was dominated by incipient-cyanobacterial crust, which had low biological  
250 activity and low porosity owing to the predominance of vesicle pores, thereby leading to a lower  
251 soil infiltration rate.

252 Furthermore, the soil-soil water retention and soil water supply capacity varied significantly  
253 between the biocrust and normal meadows. We found that in the 0–10 cm soil layer, soil water  
254 retention and soil water supply capacity in NM was higher than that in BM, which was in contrast  
255 to the results of previous studies conducted in drylands in which biocrusts enhanced surface soil  
256 water retention capacity and water availability (Sun et al., 2022). We speculate that the lower soil  
257 water retention in the BM was due to lower soil organic matter; this was verified by the presence of  
258 lower microbial biomass carbon (Fig. 4a). The structural equation model indicated that the effect of  
259 soil organic matter on water retention was mainly achieved by altering soil bulk density and soil  
260 porosity (Fig. 8) because higher soil organic matter could reduce soil bulk density and increase soil  
261 porosity (Liu et al., 2019), leading to higher soil water retention, which also confirmed a significant  
262 positive relationship between soil organic matter and soil water retention (Fig. 7). Soil organic  
263 matter was derived from vegetation litter and root biomass, whereas the vegetation litter in BM was  
264 lower than that in NM owing to its lower aboveground biomass and vegetation coverage, ultimately



265 resulting in lower soil organic matter in BM.

### 266 **4.3 Implications for the role of biocrust in alpine meadows**

267 Grassland ecosystems cover more than 60% of the QTP and provide important ecosystem  
268 services, such as biodiversity conservation, carbon storage, and water conservation (Dong et al.  
269 2020). However, in recent decades, grasslands in the QTP have suffered from serious degradation  
270 due to increasing human activity (Cao et al. 2019). Biocrust is an important surface feature of the  
271 degraded alpine meadows. It is acknowledged that biocrust has a positive effect on soil nutrient and  
272 soil water content retention in arid regions. In contrast, we found that the presence of biocrust  
273 decreased soil water retention and soil infiltration rate, which did not improve water conservation  
274 in alpine meadows. Therefore, the soil in the biocrust region may be more vulnerable to runoff  
275 generation and consequent soil erosion. Moreover, soil nutrients, such as SOM, TC, and TN, were  
276 reduced significantly in the biocrust meadow, suggesting that the growth of vegetation in the  
277 biocrust region may be limited by soil nutrients. Considering the negative effects of biocrust on  
278 alpine meadows, some steps should be taken to reduce the formation of biocrust in degraded alpine  
279 meadows, such as reducing grazing intensity.

### 280 **5 Conclusions**

281 Soil hydrological properties were significantly affected by the establishment of biocrust, and  
282 we found that the biocrust could retain topsoil water and infiltrate topsoil, which suggested that the  
283 establishment of biocrust did not favor soil hydrological properties in alpine meadows, and the soil  
284 in the BM might be more vulnerable to runoff generation when a heavy rainfall event occurs.  
285 Furthermore, the presence of biocrust increased topsoil clay content, while the 0–30 cm layer's soil  
286 capillary porosity in NM was higher than that in BM, indicating that the presence of biocrust reduced



287 soil porosity and thereby reduced topsoil water infiltration. We thus concluded that the discrepancies  
288 in soil water retention and topsoil infiltration were close to physicochemical properties, and that  
289 SOM plays a role in soil water retention by affecting CP and BD. Our study provides insight into  
290 the role of biocrust in soil hydrological processes in alpine ecosystems.

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#### 294 **Author contribution**

295 Licong Dai: Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis. Ruiyu Fu :  
296 Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Formal analysis, Visualization. Xiaowei Guo  
297 and Zhongmin Hu: Investigation, Data curation, Project administration, Supervision. Yangong Du:  
298 Writing – original draft, review & editing. Guangmin Cao: Conceptualization, Methodology,  
299 Funding acquisition, Supervision.

#### 300 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

#### 303 **Data availability statement**

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

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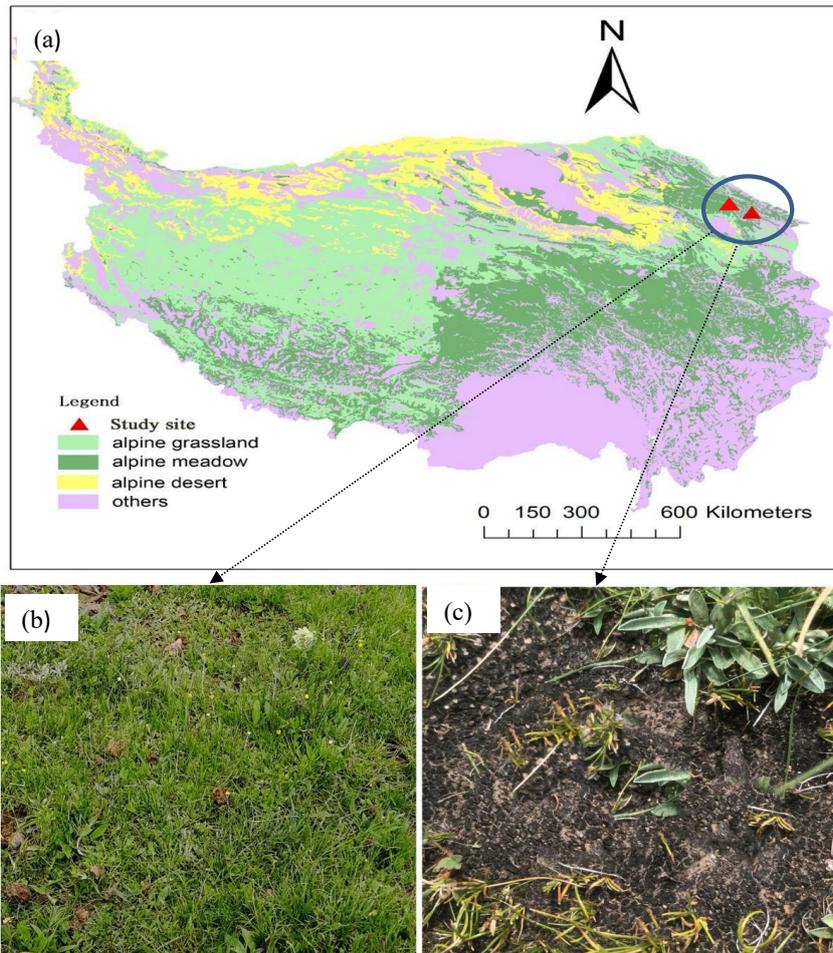
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416 Fig.1 The study site (a) and two type meadows in this study: normal *Kobresia* meadow (b) and

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biocrust meadow (c)

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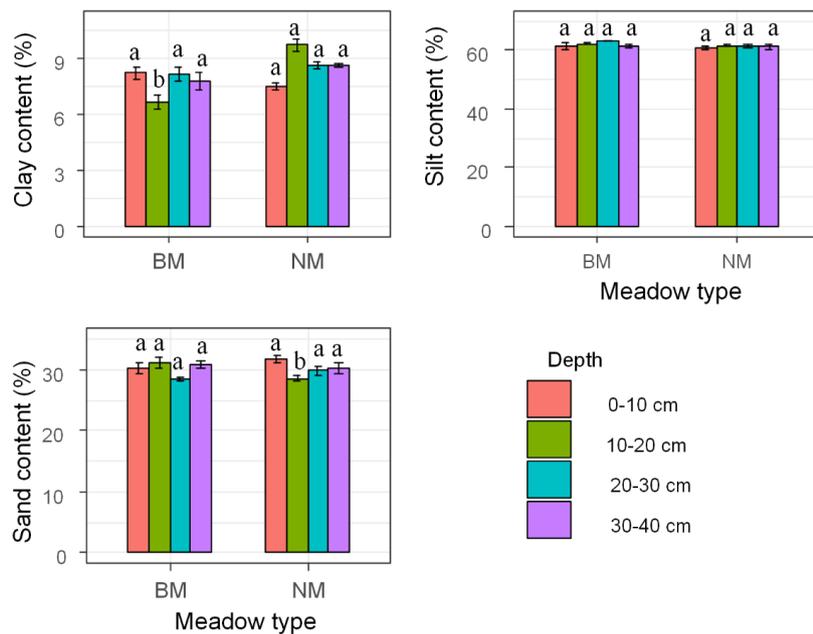
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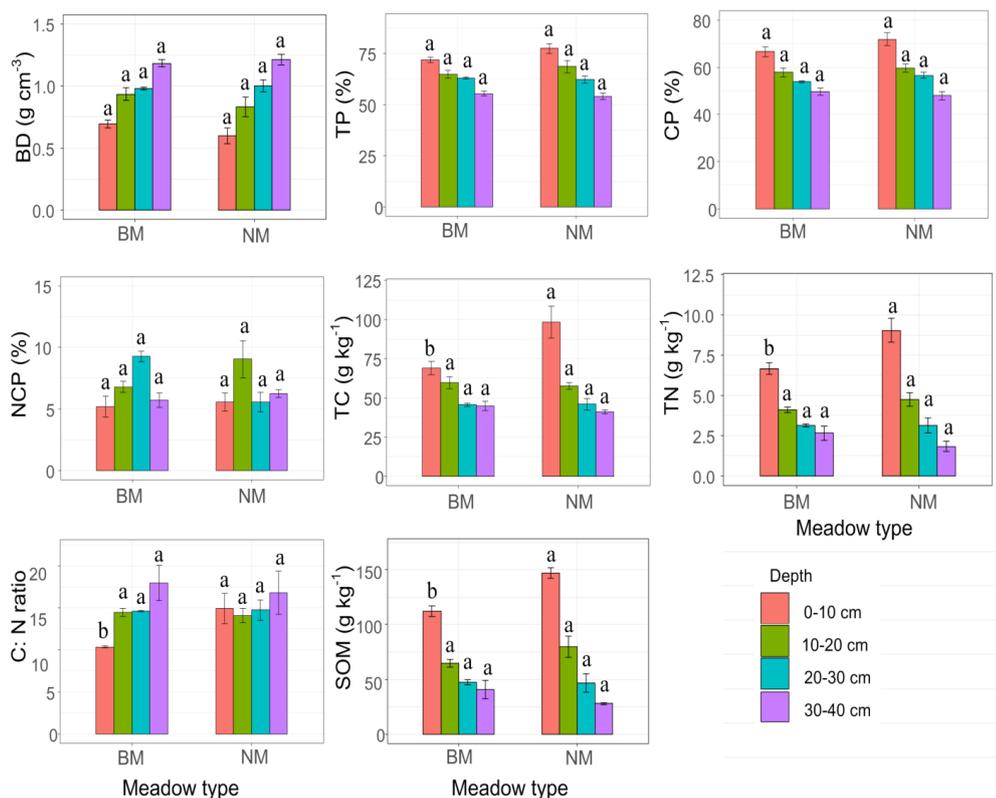
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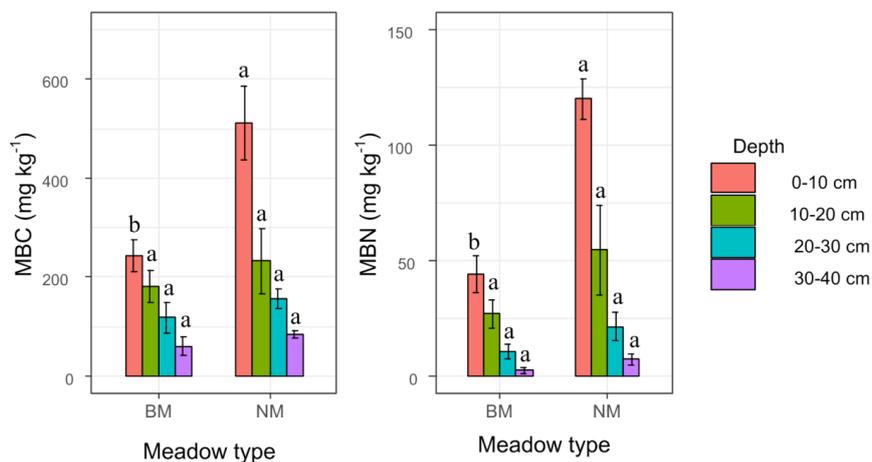


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426 Fig.2 Soil particle size distribution among two surface soil types. Note: NM, normal *Kobresia*  
427 meadow; BM, biocrusts meadow, the different letters mean significant differences ( $P<0.05$ ) between  
428 normal *Kobresia* meadow and crust meadow at the same soil layer



429  
 430 Fig.3 The soil physicochemical among two surface soil types, BD: soil bulk density, TP: soil total  
 431 porosity, CP: soil capillary porosity, NCP: non-capillary porosity, TN: soil total nitrogen, TC: soil  
 432 total carbon, C:N: soil C: N ratio, SOM: soil organic matter, the different letters mean significant  
 433 differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) between normal *Kobresia* meadow and crust meadow at the same soil layer  
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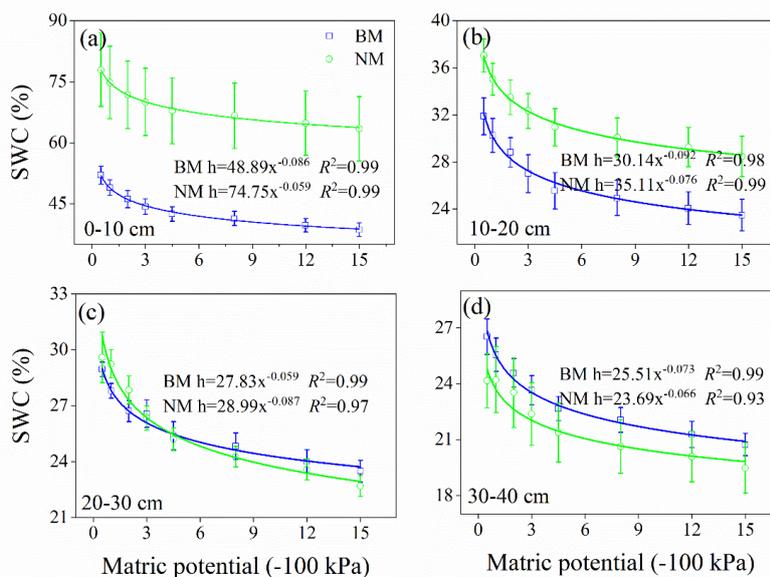
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437 Fig. 4 Soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC) and microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) across two

438 type meadow, the different letters mean significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) between normal *Kobresia*

439 meadow and crust meadow at the same soil layer

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442 Fig.5 Soil water retention curve of different soil layer (a: 0-10 cm, b: 10-20 cm, c: 20-30 cm, d: 30-

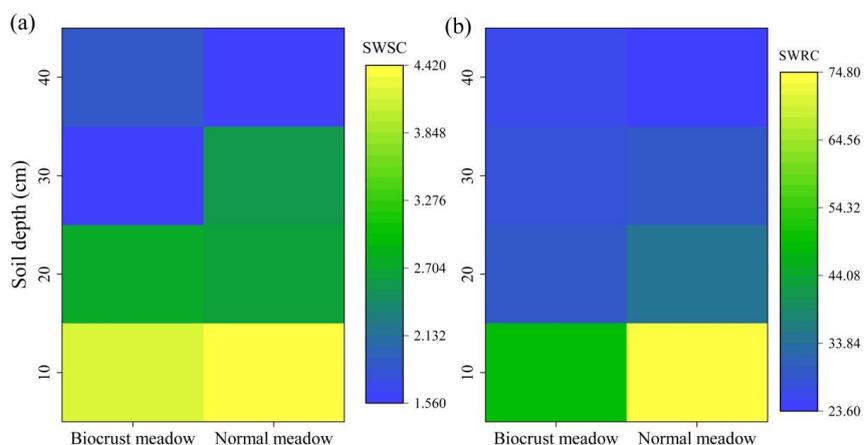
443 40 cm) across two type meadow between soil water content (SWC) and matric potential. Note: NM,

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

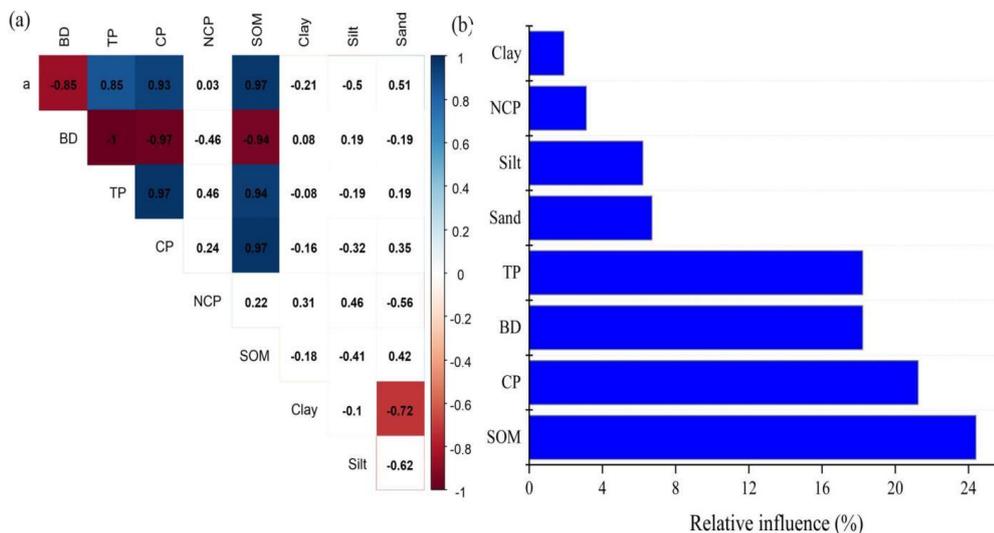
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445 Gardner model (i.e.  $h = A\theta^B$ ), A and B are the fitting parameters; a higher value of A indicated a  
 446 higher soil water-holding capacity.  
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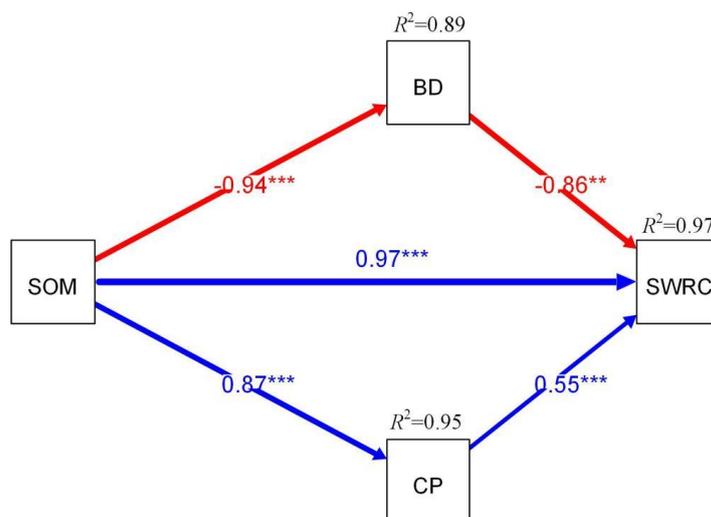
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 449 Fig.6 Soil water supply capacity (SWSC) (a) and soil water retention capacity (SWRC) of different  
 450 soil layer across two type meadows, the SWSC was represent the  $A*B$  from Gardner model, the  
 451 SWRC represent the A from Gardner model, a higher value of  $A*B$  and A indicated a higher soil  
 452 water supply capacity and soil water retention capacity, respectively.  
 453



454  
 455 Fig. 7 Pearson correlation between soil water retention and soil properties (a), and the relative  
 24



456 influence of soil properties on soil water retention. Note: “\*”, “\*\*” and “\*\*\*” indicated significant  
457 at 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 level, respectively. Note: a: the parameter fitted by Gardner model, BD:  
458 soil bulk density, TP: soil total porosity, CP: capillary porosity, NCP: non-capillary porosity,  
459 SOM: soil organic matter.  
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463  
464 Fig. 8 Structural equation modeling of the direct and indirect effects of soil properties on soil water  
465 retention capacity (SWRC). Standardized path coefficients, adjacent to arrows, are analogous to  
466 partial correlation coefficients, and indicative of the effect size of the relationship. Continuous blue  
467 and red lines represent positive and negative correlations, respectively. Model fit: Fisher.C=5.48,  
468  $df=2$ ,  $P$ -value=0.065.  
469  
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