

1 **EFFECT OF BIOCRUSTS ON BACTERIAL COMMUNITY COMPOSITION AT DIFFERENT**
2 **SOIL DEPTHS IN MEDITERRANEAN SEMI-ARID ECOSYSTEMS.**

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10 **ABSTRACT**

11 This study analyzed the influence of biocrusts on the chemical properties and bacterial diversity and
12 community composition in the underlying soils along a depth gradient (the biocrust (C1), middle (S2) and
13 deep (S3) soil layers) in two semi-arid Mediterranean ecosystems. Organic carbon, pH, electric conductivity
14 and calcium carbonate content were estimated by wet oxidation, potentiometrically (pHmeter), with a
15 conductivity-meter and volumetrically with a Bernard calcimeter, respectively. Bacterial diversity and
16 community composition were estimated by 16S rRNA gene high-throughput amplicon sequencing.
17 Chemical properties in C1 were significantly different from the other soil layers, showing higher organic
18 carbon content and lower pH ($p < 0.05$). The relative abundance of several bacterial taxa, such as *Bryocella*,
19 *Methylobacterium*, *Segitebacter* and *Actinomycetospora* showed significant positive correlations with
20 organic carbon ($r = 0.53$ to 0.75) and negative with pH ($r = -0.72$ to -0.84), and were also highly correlated
21 with each other ($p < 0.01$), suggesting a bacterial co-occurrence pattern associated with the biocrust. On the
22 contrary, other bacterial taxa, such as *Euzebyaceae*, *Truepera*, *Alphaproteobacteria* and *Caldinilaceae*,
23 showed positive correlations with electrical conductivity and calcium carbonate, and were also correlated

24 with each other ($p < 0.01$), in a second type of co-occurrence pattern associated with bare soil. The C1 and
25 S2 layers had several taxa in common, while S3 layers had taxa common to bare soil, suggesting that the
26 effect of biocrusts was limited to the first centimeters of soil and progressively decreased in depth. Bacterial
27 diversity was lower in C1 than in the underlying layers and increased progressively from biocrust to deeper
28 soil layers. The results suggest that the diversity and composition of soil microbial communities in
29 biologically crusted sites in Mediterranean semi-arid environments are mainly controlled by chemical
30 properties which in turn are modified by the biocrust along a depth gradient.

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32 **Keywords:** Soil bacterial co-occurrence patterns, high-throughput sequencing, pH, salinity, soil organic
33 carbon, calcium carbonate content.

34

35 1, INTRODUCTION

36 About 41% of the Earth's land surface is drylands, which are exposed to expanding degradation and
37 desertification as a consequence of global climate change and the exponential growth of the human
38 population (Maestre et al., 2012). According to Huang et al. (2016), drylands will increase 23% globally
39 by the end of the 21st century. Biological soil crusts (hereinafter "biocrusts") are a highly representative
40 dryland community of organisms which live in the upper millimeters of the soil surface, occupying up to
41 70% of the surface in arid and semi-arid areas around the world (Belnap, 2003; Belnap et al., 2001).
42 Biocrusts are made up of different types of organisms like mosses, soil lichens, green algae, fungi,
43 cyanobacteria and other bacteria (Belnap et al., 2016), closely bound to soil particles (Belnap and Gardner,
44 1993). These highly specialized organisms can survive and develop under the extreme conditions of arid
45 environments (Coe et al., 2014) where vascular vegetation cannot thrive (Bowker et al., 2016). Their role
46 in arid and semi-arid ecosystems is essential (Belnap and Lange, 2001; Xiao et al., 2014), affecting soil
47 functionality (Bastida et al., 2014).

48 Biocrusts influence the physical and chemical properties of the underlying soil by reducing erosion (Guo
49 et al., 2007; Maestre et al., 2005) and improving primary productivity, stability and fertility of soil for plants
50 (Ferrenberg et al., 2017). Soil colonized by biocrusts has better nutrient storage (C, N and P) than bare soil
51 (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2015), as they contribute to increasing aggregate stability and water content at
52 33 and 1500 kPa in the soil surface (Chamizo et al., 2012a), which is also less saline (Kakeh et al., 2018)
53 than bare soil. Biocrusts influence soil hydrological cycles (Warren, 2001; Whitney et al., 2017), screen the
54 soil from high solar radiation (Miralles et al., 2012) and improve cation exchange capacity and soil porosity
55 (Belnap, 2006). Moreover, biocrusts , increase soil enzymatic activities involved in carbon (β -glucosidases,
56 invertases, cellulases), nitrogen (protease BAA, protease-cellulase, nitrate reductase, urease) and
57 phosphorus cycles (phosphodiesterase, phosphatase) (Castillo-Monroy et al., 2011; Miralles et al., 2012a),
58 and are therefore essential to biogeochemical cycles (Bastida et al., 2014; Elbert et al., 2012; García-Pichel
59 et al., 2003; Miralles et al., 2012a). Biocrusts also secrete secondary acid metabolites (e.g., lecanoric acid
60 and usnic acid; Jorge-Villar et al., 2011), enriching labile C in the underlying soil (Bastida et al., 2014),
61 carbohydrates and polyphenols (Miralles et al., 2013), and leading, in turn, to an increase in the size of the
62 microbial communities in them (Miralles et al., 2012b; Bastida et al., 2014).

63 Chemical soil properties, such as pH, soil organic carbon and salinity have been shown to have an
64 essential role in the diversity and composition of soil microbial communities (Canfora et al., 2014; Fierer
65 et al., 2012, 2007; Fierer and Jackson, 2006; Goldfarb et al., 2011; Lauber et al., 2009; Upchurch et al.,
66 2008). Thus, biocrusts could indirectly influence the microbial communities in the underlying soil through
67 their effect on chemical soil properties. Nevertheless, the potentially important effect of biocrusts on the
68 diversity and composition of the microbial communities in the underlying soil has scarcely been explored.
69 Biocrust influence on chemical and biochemical soil properties is known to be limited to the first
70 millimeters of the colonized substrate, with gradual decrease in total organic carbon content, total nitrogen
71 and hydrolytic enzymes, and increase in soil pH from biocrust to deeper soil layers (Kakeh et al., 2018;
72 Miralles et al., 2012a). Kakeh et al. (2018) also found vertical variation in other chemical soil properties,
73 such as the carbonate content, which decreased with depth under the biocrust. However, despite their

74 influence on chemical soil properties, which could, in turn, modify the microbial communities of the soil,
75 there are still few studies analyzing the effect of biocrusts on the bacterial composition of the underlying
76 soil in a vertical depth gradient. High-throughput sequencing and metagenomic techniques enable detailed
77 study of microbial communities associated with biocrusts and changes in these communities from biocrusts
78 to deeper soil layers. This could greatly improve our understanding of the ecological processes in the
79 biologically crusted arid and semi-arid ecosystems today so seriously threatened.

80 The aim of this study was to analyze the influence of biocrusts on chemical soil properties, soil microbial
81 community composition and diversity, and their relationships in a vertical soil depth gradient underlying
82 the biocrusts, comparing two different areas with similar environmental conditions, but in different stages
83 of degradation in a Mediterranean semi-arid ecosystem. We hypothesized that biocrusts influence the
84 chemical properties of the underlying soil substrate, and thereby, indirectly the bacterial communities
85 associated with the local conditions generated by them with respect to bare soils. In turn, the effect of
86 biocrusts on the chemical soil properties and soil microbial communities is diluted in deeper soil layers
87 under biocrusts.

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89 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

90 **2.1 Study areas**

91 Two study areas, Amoladeras (AMO) (36°50'5''N, 2°15'1''W) and Balsa Blanca (BB) (36°56'26''N,
92 2°01'58.8''W), both located in the Cabo de Gata-Níjar Natural Park (Almería, SE Spain) were selected as
93 representative of Mediterranean semi-arid environments. Both study areas are coastal-steppe ecosystems
94 widely distributed in a piedmont area with a landscape of alluvial fans (glacis) formed by flat open areas
95 with a gentle slope (2-6%) in the Cabo de Gata Natural Park. In both areas, the climate is semi-arid with
96 random rainfall patterns and mean annual precipitation of about 240 mm falling mainly in winter. The high
97 interannual variation is mainly recorded during the spring and autumn. The mean annual temperature is
98 about 18°C, with long warm, dry summers and annual evapotranspiration of 1390 mm (Aranda and

99 Oyonarte, 2005; Rey et al., 2011). The predominant soils are shallow Calcaric Lithic Leptosols (WRB,
100 2006) with lithic contact (a very powerful petrocalcic horizon) no more than 25 cm deep, and a silty-to-
101 sandy loam texture, with a predominantly sandy granulometric fraction (58.56% at AMO and 58.56% at
102 BB), followed by silt (31.03% at AMO and 31.73% at BB) and clay (10.51% at AMO and 9.7% at BB)
103 (Miralles et al., 2012d). The vegetation is grassland/shrub with predominance of *Stipa tenacissima* L., but
104 with a large number of other species, such as *Chamaerops humilis* L., *Rhamnus lycioides* L., *Asparagus*
105 *horridus* L., *Olea europaea* L. var. *plants sylvestris* Brot., *Pistacia lentiscus* L. and *Rubia peregrina* L. In
106 general, the dispersed vegetation cover (between 18 and 65%; Rey et al. 2011) is heterogeneous, forming
107 complex vegetation patterns with open areas between plants. These are often colonized by biocrusts, mainly
108 lichens, such as *Diploschistes diacapsis* (Ach.) Lumbsch, cyanobacteria and moss, or occupied by rock
109 fragments, regolith outcrops or bare soil (Maestre and Cortina, 2002; Rey et al., 2011). At AMO perennial
110 plants cover about 20% of the surface and annual plants about 10%, with biocrusts in the open spaces
111 between plants covering about 27% of the soil surface, and abundant stones (around 13%) and rocky
112 outcrops (around 14%) (Miralles et al. 2012d). At BB, perennials cover about 45% of the soil surface and
113 annuals about 5%. Biocrusts cover about 25% of the surface surrounding plants, and stones about 8%
114 (Miralles et al., 2012d). At both AMO and BB, *Diploschistes diacapsis* is one of the most abundant and
115 representative lichens colonizing the bare space on the soil substrate (Chamizo et al., 2012b; Ladrón de
116 Guevara et al., 2015; Miralles et al., 2012d).

117

118 **2.2 Experimental design and sampling**

119 These two study areas were selected because: (i) They are representative of Mediterranean semi-arid
120 ecosystems, (ii) biocrusts are very well represented, covering a high percentage of the total surface of the
121 soil in the clearings between plants at both sites, (iii) biocrusts dominated by the lichen *D. diacapsis* are
122 very abundant at both AMO and BB, and (iv) both sites have similar geology, topography, vegetation,
123 climate and soil types. However, AMO is more degraded than BB (López-Ballesteros et al., 2018; Rey et

124 al., 2011), and has less plant cover, rocky outcrops on the calcareous crust surface and more gravel and
125 biocrust cover (Rey et al., 2011). The soil was also shallower at AMO than at BB (Rey et al., 2011). Soil at
126 AMO and BB have basic pH, but the calcium carbonate content is higher at AMO than at BB and, on the
127 contrary, the soil humic acid content is higher at BB than at AMO (Miralles et al., 2012d). Worse
128 degradation at AMO than BB may be due to its proximity to urban populations and human economic
129 activity until the late 50s. Land was used for wood, fiber and extensive agriculture, and later abandoned,
130 resulting in the area's degradation, and leaving only this vestige of its historical uses (López-Ballesteros et
131 al., 2018).

132 Sampling was done in June 2016 at both the AMO and BB sites, following a factorial design in which three
133 composite samples (a mixture of seven subsamples) were taken from the following layers: i) Biocrust (C1)
134 dominated by the lichen *D. diacapsis* was extracted with a small spatula from the upper few centimeters of
135 the surface (over 0.5 cm) in large clearings (over 2×2 m with no significant vegetation); ii) Middle soil
136 layers (S2): samples were taken from right below where the biocrusts had been removed down to a depth
137 of three centimeters; iii) Deep soil layers (S3): samples were collected from a depth of 3 to 10-15 cm along
138 the same profile; iv) Bare soil (BS) without biocrusts was collected from the surface to a depth of 10-15 cm
139 in areas close to the crusted clearings previously sampled. Then, a total of 24 samples (12 samples at AMO
140 and 12 at BB) were taken to the laboratory in isothermal bags. Samples, including biocrusts, were
141 homogenized and sieved through a 2-mm screen (C1). A part of these samples was stored in polythene
142 containers at -80°C for later DNA extraction and next-generation sequencing (NGS) analysis.

143 144 **2.3 Chemical soil properties** 145

146 Soil organic carbon (OC) was determined by the Walkey and Black (1934) method (modified by
147 Mingorance et al., 2007). Soil pH and electrical conductivity (EC) were measured in a 1:1 aqueous
148 suspension using a pHmeter (Crison BASIC 20 Crison, Barcelona, Spain) for soil pH measurements and a
149 digital conductivity meter (Crison 522, Barcelona, Spain) for EC measurements. Soil calcium carbonate
150 content was measured with a Bernard calcimeter (Loeppert and Suarez, 1996).

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2.4 DNA extraction, high-throughput sequencing and bioinformatics analysis

DNA was extracted from 0.5 g of soil using the DNeasy PowerSoil kit (QIAGEN-MoBio Laboratories, Carlsbad CA) following the manufacturer's protocol (Mo-Bio, 2016). Blank controls were included to check for any contamination during DNA extraction. DNA concentration and purity were estimated spectroscopically using Nanodrop 2000 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

A Miseq sequencing platform (Illumina) with paired reads and V3 kit chemistry (300 + 300 cycles) was used for amplicon sequencing of 16S rRNA gene libraries (V4-V5 domains). PCR negative controls were used (1 for every 96-well plate = 4 per MiSeq run). PCR were checked for contamination (no bands present) and then sequenced on the MiSeq to be sure that no substantial reads were coming through on this barcode combination. Multiplexing used a dual indexing strategy with eight Nextera XTv2 kit base pair indexes. Primers and library construction were as previously described (Sánchez-Marañón et al., 2017). Bioinformatic analyses were carried out using Mothur v.1.39.5 (Schloss et al., 2009). Identification and elimination of chimeras was performed with CHIMERA-UCHIME.

Bacterial community diversity was assessed by number of observed Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) (Sobs) and the Chao1, Shannon and Pielou (J') indices. All indices were calculated with the number of OTUs defined at an evolutionary distance of 0.03 (97% similarity of 16S rRNA sequences) with the equations described and implemented in Mothur.

Sequence taxonomic classification was done using a Bayesian classifier (Wang et al., 2007) with Silva v.123 (https://www.arb-silva.de/no_cache/download/archive/release_123/) as the reference database. Bacterial abundance was expressed as a percentage of the total number of sequences in each sample. Taxa with total abundance over 0.1% were selected for statistical analysis. Sequences classified as Archaea, Mitochondria or Chloroplast were removed from the respective datasets.

175 2.5 Statistical analysis

176 Samples were grouped by a two-factor (fixed-effect) design: (i) Study sites (Amoladeras, AMO, and
177 Balsa Blanca, BB) and (ii) sampling layer (biocrusts dominated by *Diploschistes Diacapsis* lichen (C1),
178 soil under the biocrust at two different depths (middle layer, S2, and deep layer, S3), and bare soil (BS).

179 Differences in chemical parameters, relative abundance of soil bacterial taxa and diversity indices
180 between groups of samples were assessed using two-way Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance
181 (PERMANOVA) and the above mentioned two-factors and their interactions (Anderson et al. 2008). Then
182 pairwise comparisons were made using a multivariate analogue of the *t* test, and finding the probability
183 levels by permutation (Eldridge et al., 2016). Partial pairwise tests were performed on subgroups of samples
184 to compare each layer to the same one at the other site or different layers at the same site. PERMANOVA
185 uses geometric partitioning of multivariate variation in the space of a chosen dissimilarity measure by
186 means of permutation tests to find the P values. The similarity matrix of the samples was constructed using
187 Bray Curtis distances for multivariate PERMANOVA. Moreover, two-way Permutational Univariate
188 Analysis of Variance (PERANOVA) was also performed using Euclidean distances to check the effects of
189 the two factors on each individual variable. Both statistical analyses are nonparametric tests that retain the
190 advantages of the classical partitioning methods, such as ANOVA, without the parametric assumptions
191 (Anderson, 2001). Canonical Analysis of Principal Coordinates (CAP) was performed to group by biocrusts
192 and soil layers and also by site according to the bacterial communities. The Monte Carlo test was used in
193 reduced models assigning unrestricted permutations to assess the statistical significance of the first and
194 second canonical axes (Zhang et al., 2011).

195 Pearson's correlation coefficients (*r*) were used to assess the relationship between chemical soil
196 properties and soil bacteria abundance and diversity at the lowest classification level (subgroup-to-genus).
197 The soil bacteria with highest significant correlations at $p < 0.01$ and positive correlation coefficients ($r > 0.8$)
198 were grouped together in co-occurrence patterns to simplify the correlations found for the different
199 variables.

200 Network analysis was used to show graphically the relationships between the variables found from the
201 Pearson's correlations. A network study based on modularity methods (Blondel et al., 2008) was carried
202 out for this purpose using the Force Atlas 2 algorithm (Jacomy et al., 2014).

203 The statistical package PRIMER-E + PERMANOVA software (PRIMER-E Ltd., Plymouth Marine
204 Laboratory, UK) for Windows was used for PERMANOVA, PERANOVA and CAP analysis. Correlations
205 were performed with the R software (<http://www.R-project.org>) and “ggplot2” package (Viechtbauer, 2010;
206 Wickham, 2009). Gephi 0.9.2 software was used to obtain the network analysis (Bastian et al., 2009).

207

208 **3. RESULTS**

209 **3.1 Chemical properties in biocrusts, underlying soil and bare soil.**

210 The OC content was comparatively higher in biocrusts (7.29% at AMO and 5.95% at BB) than in the
211 rest of the soil layers and progressively decreased downward to deeper soil layers at both AMO and BB
212 (Table 1). pH was acidic in C1 (5.94 at AMO and 5.54 at BB), but basic in the soil layers at both study
213 sites. CaCO₃ content was also lower in C1 than in the soil layers at both AMO and BB. EC was generally
214 higher in all layers at AMO than at BB, and highest in AMO BS (Table 1).

215 PERMANOVA analysis comparing the chemical properties showed significant differences in both
216 factors (site and layers), but not in their interaction. Nevertheless, significant differences were observed in
217 the partial Pairwise Test in S2 layer chemical properties at AMO and BB (Supplementary Table 1). In
218 particular, the two-way univariate PERANOVA showed that soil carbonate content was significantly higher
219 in S2 at AMO than at BB, however, there were no significant differences in chemical properties in the rest
220 of the layers between AMO and BB (Supplementary Table 2).

221 The partial Pairwise Test comparing chemical properties between layers at each study site separately
222 showed that the chemical properties in the biocrust (C1) were significantly different from the soil layers
223 (S2, S3 and BS) at AMO and BB (Supplementary Table 1). The univariate PERANOVA analysis showed
224 that C1 layers had a significantly higher OC and significantly lower pH than S2, S3 and BS layers both at

225 AMO and BB. The soil carbonate content was significantly lower in C1 than in S2 and BS soil layers at
226 AMO, but it was only significantly lower in C1 than in S3 at BB (Supplementary Table 2).

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228 **3.2 Diversity of the bacterial communities in biocrusts, underlying soils and bare soils.**

229 Sequencing the 16S rRNA gene (V4-V5) amplicons with the Illumina MiSeq system resulted in a total
230 of 768882 sequences after eliminating those nonaligned and chimeras with an average length of 370 base
231 pairs (bp). High-quality sequences ranged from 17721 to 50711, using the lowest value to calculate alpha-
232 diversity parameters. The diversity indices (Sobs, Chao1, Shannon and Pielou) were comparatively lower
233 in biocrusts (C1) than in the soil layers (S2, S3 and BS) and progressively increased with depth from upper
234 to deeper soil layers at both AMO and BB (Table 2). These indices were also comparatively higher in soils
235 underlying biocrusts (S2 and S3 layers) than in bare soil (BS) at both AMO and BB (Table 2). Nevertheless,
236 PERMANOVA analysis diversity indices did not show significant differences between AMO and BB
237 (Supplementary Table 1). The univariate PERANOVA analysis did not show any significant differences
238 between AMO and BB in the Chao1, Shannon and Pielou indices in the partial Pairwise Test layer-by-layer
239 comparison (C1, S2, S3 and BS), although the Sobs was significantly higher in the S2 layer at AMO than
240 at BB (Supplementary Table 2).

241 The partial Pairwise Test comparing the diversity indices between the layers at each study site
242 separately, showed significant differences only in the Sobs and the Chao1 index between C1 and soil layers
243 at both AMO and BB, even though the Chao1 index did not show significant differences between C1 and
244 BS at AMO (Supplementary Table 2). The Shannon index showed significant differences between C1 and
245 the S3 and BS soil layers, but C1 was not significantly different from S2 at AMO. At BB, C1 was not
246 significantly different from the soil layers, while S3 was significantly different from S2 and BS. The Pielou
247 index did not show any significant differences between the biocrust and soil layers at AMO, but did show
248 significant differences between S3 and BS at BB (Supplementary Table 2).

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250 3.3 Bacterial community composition in biocrusts, underlying soil and bare soil.

251 The taxonomic analysis detected a total of 16 dominant phyla, of which *Acidobacteria*, *Proteobacteria*,
252 *Bacteroidetes*, *Planctomycetes* and *Actinobacteria* dominated in both study areas, although in different
253 proportions (Supplementary Figure 1). The most abundant phylum in C1 was *Bacteroidetes*, while in the
254 S2, S3 and BS soil layers it was *Acidobacteria* (Supplementary Figure 1) at both AMO and BB. The
255 Cyanobacteria phylum decreased progressively with depth, and was much less abundant in S2 than in C1
256 and practically non-existent in S3. The relative abundance of this phylum was very low in BS layers at
257 AMO and BB (Supplementary Figure 1).

258 The taxonomic analysis showed a total of 150 taxa at the lowest classification level (subgroup to genus)
259 with a relative abundance over 0.1%. The PERMANOVA statistical analysis showed significant differences
260 between bacterial taxa at the lowest classification level (subgroup-to-genus) in the two factors: site (AMO
261 and BB) and layer (C1, S2, S3 and BS) (Supplementary Table 1).

262 The CAP analysis confirmed clear differentiation of the two study sites (AMO and BB) by soil bacterial
263 genus composition. Axes 1 and 2 (CAP1, CAP2) distinguished AMO (lower left cluster) and BB (upper
264 right cluster) (Figure 1a). Although boxplots also showed that most of the bacterial taxa were found at both
265 sites, some bacterial communities were relatively more abundant at one site than the other. Thus,
266 *Pirellulaceae unclassified*, *Actinobacteria uncultured*, *Planctomycetales uncultured* and *Rizhobiales*
267 *uncultured* were more abundant at AMO, and on the contrary, *Isosphaeraceae unclassified*,
268 *Solibrubacteraceae unclassified*, *Solibrubacter* and *Tychonema CCAP 1459.11B* were more abundant at
269 BB (Figure 2). Moreover, the CAP analysis showed that all samples were clearly clustered by biocrust and
270 soil layer (Figure 1b). Soil bacterial composition was a highly significant explanatory feature, separating
271 samples along the first and second axes (Figure 1b). Cross-validation of the CAP method was up to 95.83%
272 accurate for the layer factor (Supplementary Table 3). The results also showed that biocrusts (C1 samples,
273 upper right cluster) and soil immediately underlying biocrusts (S2 samples; lower right cluster) were

274 different from the deeper soil layers and bare soil (S3 and BS samples respectively, upper left cluster). On
275 the contrary, S3 and BS samples were similar to each other.

276 The boxplots showed also that some soil microbial communities were more abundant or exclusive
277 according to the different biocrusts and soils layers. Thus, the bacterial taxa *Methylobacterium*, *Bryocella*,
278 *Proteobacteria-1174-901-12*, *Oxyphotobacteria*, *Acidobacteriaceae subgroup 1 unclassified*,
279 *Geodermatophilaceae unclassified*, *Actinomycetospora*, *Acetobacteraceae uncultured* and *Acidipila* were
280 exclusive in C1 (Figure 3). However, *Pontibacter*, *Euzebyaceae uncultured*, *Truepera*, *Planctomycetales*
281 *unclassified* and *Rhodothermaceae uncultured* were exclusive in BS and practically absent in the rest of
282 layers (C1, S2 and S3) (Figure 3), while other bacteria, such as *Alphaproteobacteria unclassified*,
283 *Caldilineaceae uncultured*, *Longimicrobiaceae* and *Gammaproteobacteria unclassified* were more
284 abundant in BS (Figure 3). The S2 layers had a larger number of bacterial taxa, such as *Beijerinckiaceae*,
285 *Bryobacter*, *Rhodocytophaga*, *FBP ge*, *Ferruginibacter*, *Microvirga* and *Nostocales* in common with C1
286 (Supplementary Figure 2). But more bacterial taxa in S3, such as *0319.7L14*, *Gaiellales*, *Rhodoplanes*,
287 *Gaiella*, *S085*, *Rokubacteria sp.*, *MB.A2.108*, *Xanthobacteraceae* and *Actinobacteria sp.* were in common
288 with BS (Supplementary Figure 3). Some bacterial taxa gradually decreased from C1 to the deepest soil
289 layers (C1 > S2 > S3 ≥ BS) (Supplementary Figure 2), while others showed the opposite pattern, gradually
290 increasing from C1 to the deepest soil layers (C1 < S2 < S3 ≤ BS) (Supplementary Figure 3).

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292 **3.4 Relationship between bacterial taxa and chemical soil properties in biocrusts and soil layers.**

293 A large number of bacterial taxa were significantly correlated ($p < 0.05$) with chemical soil parameters
294 in the samples from both AMO and BB (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). In general, exclusive soil bacteria
295 in C1 (Figure 3) and soil bacteria more abundant in C1 and S2 (Supplementary Figure 2) had significant
296 positive correlations with OC and negative with soil pH and calcium carbonate content. On the contrary,
297 the soil bacteria more abundant in BS (Figure 3) showed significant positive correlations with EC and
298 calcium carbonate content, while the soil bacteria more abundant in S3 and BS (Supplementary Figure 3)

299 were negatively correlated with OC and positively with pH and calcium carbonate content. Table 3
300 summarizes the correlations between chemical soil properties and the most dominant bacterial taxa.

301 The soil bacterial genera had a large number of significant correlations with each other. In this group of
302 correlations between soil bacterial genera, seven co-occurrence patterns were found by selecting those
303 bacteria with correlations over 0.8, and selecting the bacterial taxa with the highest correlation ($r > 0.98$) in
304 each group of bacteria as representative of each co-occurrence pattern (Supplementary Table 6). Two
305 groups of co-occurrence patterns were clearly differentiated in this way: i) the first one (Co-occurrence
306 Group 1), led by the bacteria *Acidobacteraceae Subgroup 1 unclassified*, *Pseudonocardia*, *Caldilineacea*
307 *uncultured*, *Actynomycespora* and *Acidipila* (Figure 4), grouped exclusive or majority soil bacteria in C1,
308 and ii) the second group of co-occurrence patterns (Co-occurrence Group 2), led by the *Rhodotermaceae*
309 *uncultured*, *Euzebyaceae uncultured* and *Caldilineacea uncultured* bacteria (Figure 4), grouped exclusive
310 or majority soil bacteria in BS. The network graphic in the network modularity study confirmed the
311 presence of both co-occurrence sets found in the correlation analysis described above (Figure 4).

312

313 4. DISCUSSION

314 4.1 Factors controlling differences in microbial diversity and soil bacterial composition between two 315 different biologically crusted areas in a semi-arid ecosystem

316 The results did not show any significant differences in the diversity indices between the two study sites,
317 except for the number of observed OTUs (Sobs) index which was significantly higher in S2 at AMO than
318 at BB (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2), possibly because both study sites are in semi-arid ecosystems
319 conditioned by similar environmental factors (climate, geomorphology, vegetation, geological material)
320 and, therefore, subject to similar environmental conditions (Rey et al., 2011).

321 Both study sites showed the same majority phyla, although in different proportions. Proteobacteria and
322 Bacteroidetes were in the majority at AMO and Acidobacteria and Actinobacteria at BB. Cyanobacteria
323 were also well represented at both sites (Supplementary Figure 1). In general, the phyla found at both study

324 sites are also predominant in biocrusts and their underlying soils in other arid and semi-arid areas
325 worldwide, such as Nyngan, New South Wales, Australia, the Colorado Plateau and Tabernas Desert (SE
326 Spain) (Liu et al., 2017; Steven et al., 2013; Miralles et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the CAP analysis confirmed
327 the clear separation between the samples at AMO and BB by their soil bacterial composition at the lowest
328 classification level (subgroup to genus) (Figure 1a). So some bacterial taxa were more abundant at AMO,
329 whereas others were dominant at BB (Figure 2). The differences between the two study sites in relative
330 abundances and the Sobs index in some microbial communities could be due to differences in some
331 chemical soil properties, such as CE and soil carbonate content, which were significantly higher at AMO
332 than at BB (Table 1 and Supplementary Table 2). Canfora et al., (2014) found that the relative abundance
333 of a number of taxonomic groups changed significantly at different soil sites depending on the soil salt
334 content, although other taxa were almost unaffected by salinity level. The presence of some bacterial genera
335 capable of precipitating calcium carbonate (García et al., 2016) could also be related to the significantly
336 higher concentration of calcium carbonate in the soils at AMO. Some authors have also found different
337 species and microbial genera in secondary calcium carbonate deposits (Achal et al., 2010; Chekroun et al.,
338 2004; García et al., 2016; Rivadeneyra et al., 2006; Rusznyák et al., 2012). On the other hand, some
339 differences in organic carbon pools between study areas might also be influencing the proliferation of
340 different bacterial communities at AMO and BB. Miralles et al., (2012d) found that biocrusts and
341 underlying soils at AMO accumulated a comparatively lower proportion of humic acids and had a lower
342 Humic Acid/Fulvic Acid ratio than at BB. Moreover, the organic matter at BB was associated with higher
343 aromaticity and lower oxidation, whereas at AMO aliphatic and carboxyl content were higher. These
344 differences in soil organic matter at the two study areas could condition a certain specialization in the soil
345 microbial communities, some of which could be more efficient in degrading labile and/or chemically
346 recalcitrant C (Goldfarb et al., 2011).

347

348 **4.2 Influence of biocrusts on the microbial diversity at different soil depths in two semi-arid**
349 **ecosystems.**

350 The bacterial richness and alpha-diversity at each study site increased from the biocrust to the deeper
351 soil layers and bare soil (C1<BS<S2<S3) in all indices analyzed (Table 2). Maier et al. (2014) found similar
352 results in the Tabernas Desert (SE Spain), where species diversity and richness (number of recovered
353 OTUs) were significantly higher in below-biocrust soil than in the biocrusts colonized by lichens. One of
354 the possible explanations justifying the lower microbial diversity and biocrust richness (C1) both at AMO
355 and BB could be the production of secondary lichen compounds with antibiotic effects (Boustie and Grube,
356 2005; Burkholder et al., 1944; Francolini et al., 2004). In fact, several authors have suggested that bacterial
357 growth is controlled in lichens (Boustie and Grube, 2005; Francolini et al., 2004; Ingólfssdóttir et al., 1998),
358 contributing to the production of secondary antibiotic metabolites to prevent the degradation of lichen thalli
359 by fungal, bacterial or other organisms (Grube and Berg, 2009). The progressive increase in the Sobs and
360 Chao1 from the biocrusts to the highest values in deeper soil layers under the biocrusts (C1<S2<S3) at
361 AMO and BB (Table 2), could be because the vertical movement of these antibiotic metabolites by washing
362 is attenuated with depth, still partly affecting the middle soil layer below biocrusts (S2) and only barely in
363 the deepest soil layer (S3). Another possible complementary explanation of the changes in microbial
364 richness and diversity in the vertical gradient from the biocrusts (C1) to the deeper underlying soil layers
365 (S2 and S3) and bare soil (BS) at both AMO and BB, could be the significant differences found in the
366 chemical soil properties between the biocrusts and the soil layers (C1 had a significantly more acidic pH
367 than S2, S3 and BS in both study areas; Table 1 and Supplementary Table 2). Chemical soil properties can
368 have a profound effect on microbial diversity and soil bacterial community composition in semi-arid
369 Mediterranean soils (Sánchez-Marañón et al., 2017). Moreover, the biocrusts dominated by lichens promote
370 surface wetness duration and soil moisture retention in the underlying soil (Chamizo et al., 2012a; Kidron
371 et al., 2009; Kidron and Benenson, 2014). Soil moisture has a strong effect on microbial communities
372 (Moyano et al., 2013) because microorganisms are strongly dependent on water and cannot sustain their
373 normal cell activity below a certain water potential, depending on the species (Angel and Conrad, 2013).
374 Therefore, the favorable moisture conditions in soils underlying biocrusts dominated by lichens could
375 contribute to increasing the microbial richness and diversity in S2 and S3.

376 **4.3 Factors explaining changes in the composition of bacterial communities in biocrusts, soil**
377 **underlying the biocrusts at different depths and bare soil in two semi-arid ecosystems.**

378 The composition of microbial communities at phylum level was different in all the layers at both AMO
379 and BB sites. The Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria and Cyanobacteria phyla gradually
380 decreased with depth while Acidobacteria progressively increased from C1 to the deeper soil layers
381 (Supplementary Figure 1). At the lowest classification level (subgroup-to-genus), differences in microbial
382 community composition were also observed in biocrusts and soil layers (Supplementary Figure 1). Thus,
383 some bacterial taxa were more abundant or exclusive in C1, at both AMO and BB (Figure 3). Changes in
384 chemical soil properties partly caused by biocrusts, could favor these changes in soil microbial composition.
385 Our results showed that chemical soil properties in biocrusts (C1) were significantly different from the soil
386 layers (Supplementary Table 1), with a significantly higher OC content ($p < 0.05$) than the underlying soils
387 (S2 and S3) or adjacent bare soil (BS) (Supplementary Table 2), which decreased progressively from C1 to
388 the deeper soil layers underlying the biocrusts ($C1 > S2 > S3$) at both AMO and BB (Table 1). Biocrusts
389 dominated by *D. diacapsis* lichen were characterized by their high production of labile organic carbon,
390 especially carbohydrates and polyphenols (Miralles et al., 2014, 2013), which could explain the high OC
391 content in the C1 layers at AMO and BB. Some authors have shown that the quantity and quality of C
392 substrates are primary drivers influencing soil microbial community composition (Fierer et al., 2007;
393 Goldfarb et al., 2011). Therefore, the differences in OC between C1 and the soil layers could have a crucial
394 role in the soil bacteria composition at AMO and BB. *D. diacapsis* lichen produces certain acidic organic
395 compounds (Jorge-Villar et al., 2011), which could be responsible for the acidic pH in biocrusts and
396 subjacent soil layers being attenuated with depth. The CO₂ generated by the biocrust metabolism (Miralles
397 et al., 2012b) could also contribute to lowering the pH in C1 layers. Several authors have considered soil
398 pH a strong predictor of bacterial community composition (Hartman et al., 2008; Lauber et al., 2009; Sait
399 et al., 2006; Upchurch et al., 2008). Lauber et al., (2009) suggested that the critical influence of pH on soil
400 microbial composition could be due to: i) its influence on numerous soil parameters (nutrient availability,
401 cationic metal solubility, organic carbon characteristics, soil moisture regimen, salinity), which may drive

402 changes in the soil bacteria, and because ii) it conditions a physiological restriction on the soil bacteria,
403 reducing the growth of taxa which cannot survive if the soil pH is outside its optimal growth range. Changes
404 in pH could impose a significant stress that certain soil bacteria might tolerate better than others.

405 Our results showed highly significant subgroup-to-genus correlations of several bacteria with the soil
406 pH and OC (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). Specifically, the soil bacteria with the highest relative
407 abundance in C1 (Figure 3) were highly correlated with each other (suggesting the formation of a bacterial
408 co-occurrence group, Figure 4, Supplementary Table 6). In general the soil bacteria in this co-occurrence
409 group showed positive correlations with OC content (r 0.45 to 0.75) and negative correlations with soil pH
410 (r -0.50 to -0.88; Table 3). Such strong correlations with OC and pH suggest that these chemical parameters
411 have an important role in the composition of the bacterial community in C1 at both AMO and BB. Other
412 chemical parameters could also influence the bacterial composition in C1, such as the soil carbonate content
413 which was significantly lower in C1 than the rest of the soil layers at AMO and BB (Table 1 and
414 Supplementary Table 2). The production of acidic organic compounds from biocrusts dominated by lichens
415 (Jorge-Villar et al., 2011) could contribute to reducing the calcium carbonate content in C1. Soil carbonate
416 content was negatively correlated with several exclusive or more abundant soil bacteria in C1 (r -0.41 to -
417 0.59), although those correlations were lower than with the OC or soil pH (Table 3). Other characteristics
418 of the biocrusts could also influence the variability in the microbial community composition, such as the
419 secretion of biomolecules or pigments produced by the lichens *D. diacapsis* (Miralles et al., 2017). These
420 biomolecules are characterized by several physiological functions in biocrusts, such as protection from
421 incident solar radiation and desiccation (Jorge-Villar et al., 2011), antibacterial or antifungal properties as
422 mentioned above (Boustie and Grube, 2005; Francolini et al., 2004; Kosanić and Ranković, 2019). They
423 could also foster a selective environment in which certain bacterial communities proliferate more than
424 others (Cardinale et al., 2008; Grube et al., 2015, 2009).

425 The CAP analysis showed that C1 and S2 were different from S3 and BS, while S3 and BS layers were
426 similar to each other (Figure1b). This could suggest that biocrusts could have more influence on the
427 bacterial communities of the soil layers immediately underlying them (S2), but a diluted effect in the

428 deepest soil layer (S3). Thus, some bacterial taxa were more abundant in C1 and S2 (Supplementary Figure
429 2). Predictably, part of the carbohydrates and polyphenols produced by the dominant *D. diacapsis* in C1
430 (Miralles et al., 2014, 2013), as well as the above mentioned secondary metabolites produced by it, could
431 also leach to S2. These conditions could create a selective environment for the microbial communities in
432 soil just below the biocrust, in which the soil bacteria in S2 could be better adapted to conditions similar to
433 the biocrusts, explaining why both layers have numerous microbial communities in common
434 (Supplementary Figure 2). However, very few soil bacteria (*Pirellulaceae* uncultured, *Blastocatellia*
435 *Subgroup 4* unclassified and *Pirellula*) were simultaneously more abundant in S2 and S3 than in C1 and
436 BS, and no bacteria were dominant simultaneously in C1 and S3 layers.

437 Other microbial taxa were much more abundant or exclusive in BS at AMO and BB or showed a clear
438 gradient increasing their relative abundance from C1 to S3 and BS layers ($C1 < S2 < S3 \leq BS$) (Supplementary
439 Figure 3), suggesting that soil conditions found in both soil layers could favor the growth of those soil
440 bacteria. Curiously, the most abundant or exclusive bacteria in BS (Figure 3) showed highly significant
441 positive correlations with each other (Table 3), constituting a second co-occurrence group (Figure 4) in
442 clear contrast to the first one mentioned above, which was led by the most abundant soil bacteria in C1.
443 The significant positive correlations between calcium carbonate content, pH and EC and soil bacteria more
444 abundant in BS and S3 as well as the significant negative correlations between OC and soil bacteria more
445 abundant in BS and S3 (Table 3), suggest that the salinity, calcium carbonate and low organic matter content
446 could exert a strong influence on the structure of these soil bacterial communities.

447 The above results have shown that biocrusts have an important direct effect on the underlying soil
448 microbial communities through bacterial taxa selection and their effects on chemical soil properties.
449 Although we did not consider fungal communities in this study, biocrust may also have an impact on them
450 and will be further explored in future studies.

451 However, biocrust communities are very sensitive to both human and natural disturbance and soil
452 degradation, which decrease the percentage of biocrust cover (Belnap and Eldridge, 2001) and drive
453 changes and reductions in the structure, function and biomass of the biocrusts (Weber et al., 2016). This, in

454 turn, lowers their functional capacity for capturing and retaining nutrients (Barger et al., 2006) and
455 producing secondary metabolites that could affect the proliferation of soil microbial communities.

456

457 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

458 Our results have shown that the diversity and composition of soil microbial communities in two
459 biologically crusted sites located in a semi-arid Mediterranean ecosystem are mainly controlled by the
460 influence of lichen-dominated biocrusts and chemical soil properties, such as OC, pH, EC and CaCO₃.

461 Biocrusts could influence the diversity and composition of soil bacterial communities directly and
462 indirectly through their effects on key soil parameters, increasing the OC content, acidifying the soil,
463 reducing the soil calcium carbonate content, and by secreting acid organic compounds, as well as through
464 their physiological activity by secreting other secondary metabolites with antimicrobial properties.
465 However, the effects of biocrusts on both chemical properties and microbial communities are limited to the
466 first centimeters of soil, and progressively decrease in depth. Therefore, microbial diversity, as well as soil
467 bacterial community composition were more alike in biocrusts and the soil layers immediately below them,
468 but deeper soil layers under biocrusts were probably hardly affected by the influence of the biocrust, and
469 the bacterial communities were more similar to bare soil.

470 The microbial co-occurrence patterns are mainly controlled by chemical properties directly affected by
471 the biocrusts, such as higher OC content and acid soil pH. In bare soil, different microbial co-occurrence
472 patterns were formed depending on other chemical soil properties, such as soil salinity and CaCO₃ content.

473 This work corroborates the importance of further study of the relationships between biocrusts and soil
474 bacterial communities, which are essential for the proper functioning of the world's biochemical soil cycles.
475 New global studies are needed to analyze both the physiological role of biocrusts and their effects on
476 chemical soil properties in creating a microhabitat with specific environmental conditions favoring the
477 development of specific microbial soil communities with greater advantages for proliferation than others.

478 This is especially true, because in the current global warming scenario, the effect of biocrusts on the
479 chemical properties and bacterial communities could be compromised.

480

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488

489 **Figure Captions**

490

491 **Figure 1.** Ordination plot produced by Canonical Analysis of Principal Coordinates (CAP).

492 **a)** Distribution of soil samples based on their bacterial communities at the two study sites (AMO:
493 Amoladeras, BB: Balsa Blanca). **b)** Distribution of soil samples based on their bacterial communities in
494 biocrusts and soil layers (C1: biocrust; S2: middle soil layer; S3: deep soil layer; BS: bare soil).

495

496 **Figure 2.** Relative abundance of soil bacteria at the lowest classification level (subgroup-to-genus) at
497 Amoladeras and Balsa Blanca.

498 Footnotes: AMO: Amoladeras, BB: Balsa Blanca. The box represents the relative abundance of soil bacteria
499 (%). The upper and lower lines correspond to the first and third quartiles (interquartile range) and the center
500 line is the median. Whiskers include the deviations of up to a maximum distance of 1.5 times the
501 interquartile range. Values with a deviation over 1.5 are represented as points.

502

503 **Figure 3.** Relative abundance of soil bacteria at the lowest classification level (subgroup-to-genus) in each
504 biocrust and soil layer.

505 Footnotes: C1: biocrust layers; S2: middle soil layers; S3: deep soil layers; BS: bare soils. The box
506 represents the relative abundance of soil bacteria (%), with the upper and lower lines corresponding to the
507 first and third quartiles (interquartile range) and the central line the median. Whiskers include values
508 deviating up to a maximum distance of 1.5 times the interquartile range. Values with a deviation over 1.5
509 times are represented as points.

510

511 **Figure 4.** Co-occurrence network based on correlation analysis (Pearson > 0.800) for selected bacteria in
512 co-occurrence patterns with the 10 highest correlations detected.

513 Footnotes: The size of each node is proportional to the number of connections. Density of the edges
514 indicates intensity of the correlation. The resulting soil microbial network is made up of 26 nodes and 52
515 edges (average degree or node connectivity = 4). The clustering coefficient (how the nodes are integrated
516 into their neighborhood, and therefore, the degree to which they tend to cluster) was 0.33 and modularity
517 was 0.494. Two co-occurrence groups are shown: Co-occurrence group 1 (pink) and Co-occurrence group
518 2 (green).

519

520 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Bacterial community composition at phylum level in biocrusts and soil layers.

521 A) Amoladeras (AMO); B) Balsa Blanca (BB); C) Biocrust layers (C1) from both sites; D) Middle soil
522 layers (S2) from both sites; E) Deep soil layers (S3) from both sites; F) Bare soil (BS) from both sites.

523 Footnotes: Fractions of the circular graphs show the average relative abundance of bacterial phyla in the
524 different layers.

525

526 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Relative abundance of soil bacterial taxa at the lowest classification level
527 (subgroup-to-genus) in a decreasing gradient from C1 to S3 or BS (C1>S2>S3≥BS).

528

529 Footnotes: C1: biocrust layers; S2: middle soil layers; S3: deep soil layers; BS: bare soils. The box
530 represents the relative abundance of soil bacteria (%), with the upper and lower lines corresponding to the
531 first and third quartiles (interquartile range) and the central line the median. Whiskers include values that
532 deviate up to a maximum distance of 1.5 times the interquartile range. Values with a deviation over 1.5
533 times are represented as points.

534
535 **Supplementary Figure 3.** Relative abundance of soil bacteria taxa at the lowest classification level
536 (subgroup-to-genus) in an increasing gradient from C1 to S3 or BS ($C1 < S2 < S3 \leq BS$).

537
538 Footnotes: C1: biocrust layers; S2: middle soil layers; S3: deep soil layers; BS: bare soils. The box
539 represents the relative abundance of soil bacteria (%), with the upper and lower lines corresponding to the
540 first and third quartiles (interquartile range) and the central line the median. Whiskers include values that
541 deviate up to a maximum distance of 1.5 times the interquartile range. Values with a deviation over 1.5
542 times are represented as points.

543
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