



29 early stages of BSC succession. Change in the bacterial community structures may be an important
30 indicator in the biogeochemical cycling and nutrient storage in early successional stages of BSCs in
31 desert ecosystems.

32 **Key words** biological soil crusts (BSCs), successional stages, bacterial community, revegetation,
33 desert ecosystem

34 **1 Introduction**

35 Biological soil crusts (BSCs) are assemblages of cryptogamic species and microorganisms, such
36 as cyanobacteria, green algae, diatoms, lichens, mosses, soil microbes and other related
37 microorganisms that cement the surface soil particles through their hyphae, rhizines/rhizoids and
38 secretions (Eldridge and Greene, 1994; Li, 2012; Pointing and Belnap, 2012; Weber et al., 2016).
39 Due to their specialized structures and complicated assemblages of their members, BSCs constitute
40 one of the most important landscapes and make up 40 % of the living cover of desert ecosystems,
41 even exceeding 75 % in some special habitats (Belnap and Eldridge, 2003). It is well known that
42 BSCs play critical roles in the structure and function of semi-arid and arid ecosystems (Eldridge and
43 Greene, 1994; Li, 2012). They contribute to ecological services such as soil stabilization, reduction
44 of wind and water erosion, and facilitation of higher plant colonization (Belnap, 2003; Belnap and
45 Lange, 2001; Maier et al., 2014; Pointing and Belnap, 2012). BSCs generally experience the main
46 successional stages in desert ecosystems: mobile sand, algal crust, lichen crust and moss crust (Lan
47 et al., 2012a; Liu et al., 2006). The different successional stages of BSCs vary in their ecological
48 function (Belnap, 2006; Bowker and Belnap, 2007; Li, 2012; Moquin et al., 2012).

49 Bacteria are the most abundant microorganisms and play important roles in the development
50 process of BSCs (Bates et al., 2010; Green et al., 2008; Gundlapally and Garcia-Pichel, 2006). They
51 can decompose organic material and release nutrients, mediating geochemical processes necessary
52 for ecosystem functioning in the persistence of BSCs (Balser and Firestone, 2005). Species
53 composition and community structure of bacteria change greatly during the successional process of
54 BSCs (Gundlapally et al., 2006; Moquin et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2016). Most research on
55 prokaryotic diversity of BSCs has focused on cyanobacteria-dominated biocrusts in arid and semi-
56 arid regions (Abed et al., 2010; Garcia-Pichel et al., 2001; Nagy et al., 2005; Steven et al., 2013;
57 Yeager et al., 2004). Recent studies of the bacterial community structure of bryophyte- or lichen-



58 dominated crusts indicate that lichen-associated communities encompass a wide taxonomic
59 diversity of bacteria (Bates et al., 2011; Cardinale et al., 2008; Maier et al., 2014). Heterotrophic
60 bacteria may perform a variety of roles such as nutrient mobilization and nitrogen (N) fixation and
61 could be of considerable importance for the stability of lichen-dominated soil communities.
62 However, there have been few studies on changes of bacterial diversity and their function in BSCs
63 during the development process in desert zones, and these only in the Sonoran (Nagy et al., 2005)
64 and Gurbantungut Deserts (Zhang et al., 2016). What changes occur in bacterial community
65 composition and their roles in improving soil properties in different successional stages of BSCs?
66 What is the significance of these changes on BSC succession in the recovery process of desert
67 revegetation in temperate zones?

68 A recent study on crusts in the Tengger Desert, China, showed that bacterial diversity and
69 richness were highest after 15 years, and at least 15 years might be needed for recovery of bacterial
70 abundance of BSCs (Liu et al., 2017). To better understand these questions, we must analyze in
71 detail the bacterial community composition of BSCs at all levels of classification and their
72 corresponding function in the recovery process of BSCs. In the present study, bacterial community
73 composition and potential function were analyzed in BSCs along a chronosequence of over 50-year-
74 old revegetation. We hypothesized that bacteria are the key species in carbon (C) accumulation and
75 soil improvement in early stages of BSC succession.

76 **2 Materials and methods**

77 **2.1 Study site description**

78 The study site is located at Shapotou, southeast fringe of the Tengger Desert, northwest China.
79 The nature landscape is characterized by the reticulated chains of barchan dunes with the vegetation
80 cover less than 1%. The mean annual precipitation is about 180 mm with large seasonal and inter-
81 annual variation. The mean wind speed is 3.5 m/s, and the average days with dust events are 122 d
82 per year. The revegetation protection system for Bao-Lan railway in this area was established
83 initially in 1956, and was expanded in 1964, 1973, 1981 and later through the plantation of the
84 xerophilous shrubs. This unirrigated revegetation system works quite well to protect the railroad
85 line from sand bury and dust hazard during past sixty years. Also, the experimental plots of less
86 than one hectare were established with the same plantation techniques by the Shapotou desert



87 research and experiment station in 1987, 2000, and 2010 in the nearby sand dunes. These sand fixed
88 areas provide an ideal temporal succession sequence for studying the variation of environmental
89 factors following plantation in the floating sand. As mentioned in other literatures, the initial state
90 of BSCs began to form following the stabilization of sand dunes and developed with the colonization
91 of cryptogam (Liu, et al, 2006). The appeared BSCs can be divided into four types, such as physical
92 crusts, algal-dominated, lichen-dominated and moss-dominated crusts. In this study, we selected
93 BSCs from the revegetation established in 1964, 1981, 1987, 2000 and 2010, and non-fixed mobile
94 sand as the control (Figure 1). BSCs were sampled in November 2015, and named according to the
95 fixed-sand time as 51YR (51 years of revegetation), 34YR, 28YR, 15YR, 5YR and MS, respectively.
96 The main types of BSCs were cyanobacteria–lichen- and moss-dominated crusts from 15YR to
97 51YR.

98 2.2 BSC sampling

99 In each revegetation, BSC samples were collected in early November 2015. Five soil cores (3.5-
100 cm diameter) with crust layers from four vertices of a square (20-m length) and a diagonal crossing
101 point in each plot (Figure 1 C) were sampled individually using a sterile trowel. To decrease spatial
102 heterogeneity, each BSC sample was taken from six individual plots (at least 20 m between two
103 adjacent plots) from each revegetation time. Therefore, we obtained 30 BSC samples in total (5
104 cores × 6 individual plots) and these were mixed together to form one composite BSC sample.
105 Triplicate composite samples for each revegetation time were collected and the BSC samples were
106 preserved in an ice box. Samples were then taken back to the laboratory, immediately sieved (by 1
107 mm) to remove stones and plant roots, homogenized thoroughly and stored at –70 °C for subsequent
108 analyses.

109 2.3 DNA extraction and Illumina MiSeq sequencing

110 Microbial DNA was extracted from BSC samples using E.Z.N.A Soil DNA (Omega Bio-tek,
111 Norcross, GA, U.S.) according to the manufacturer's protocols. The extracted DNA was diluted in
112 TE buffer (10 mM Tris–HCl and 1 mM EDTA at pH 8.0) and stored at –20 °C until use. An aliquot
113 of the extracted DNA from each sample was used as a template for amplification. The bacteria 16S
114 ribosomal RNA gene was amplified by PCR (95 °C for 3 min, followed by 25 cycles at 95 °C for
115 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 45 s, and a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min) using primers



116 338F (5'-ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCA-3') and 806R (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3').
117 PCRs were performed in triplicate 20- μ L mixture containing 2 μ L of 5 \times FastPfu Buffer, 2 μ L of
118 2.5 mM dNTPs, 0.8 μ L of each primer (5 μ M), 0.2 μ L of FastPfu Polymerase and 10 ng of template
119 DNA. This was conducted according to Wang et al. (2015). Amplicons were extracted from 2 %
120 agarose gels and purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union
121 City, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and quantified using QuantiFluor™ -
122 ST (Promega Corporation, Madison, WI, USA).

123 Purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar and paired-end sequenced (2 \times 300) on an Illumina
124 MiSeq platform according to the standard protocols at Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology Co. Ltd.,
125 Shanghai, China (<http://www.majorbio.com>). The raw reads were deposited in the NCBI Sequence
126 Read Archive database (Accession number: SRP091312).

127 **2.4 Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR)**

128 qPCR was performed to determine the absolute 16S rRNA gene abundance. We used the primer
129 sets of 515F (5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and 806R to quantify the total bacterial
130 populations. The standard templates were made from 10-fold dilutions of linearized plasmids
131 containing the gene fragment of interest that was cloned from amplified pure culture DNA. The 20
132 μ L reaction mixtures contained 10 μ L of 2 \times SYBR Mix (with ROX) (DBI Bioscience,
133 Ludwigshafen, Germany), 0.4 μ L each of 10 μ M forward and reverse primers, 1 μ L of total DNA
134 template (1 ng/ μ L) and 8.2 μ L of RNase-free ddH₂O. The reaction was conducted on a Stratagene
135 Mx3000P Real-time PCR system (Stratagene, Agilent Technologies Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA)
136 using the following program: 94 °C for 3 min followed by 40 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 58 °C for 30
137 s and 72 °C for 30 s, then 72 °C for 2 min. The detection signal was collected at 72 °C for 30 s and
138 analyzed. The melting curve was obtained to confirm that the amplified products were of the
139 appropriate size. For each soil sample, the qPCRs were repeated six times.

140 **2.5 Processing of sequencing data**

141 Raw fastq files were demultiplexed, quality-filtered using QIIME (version 1.17) with the
142 following criteria: (i) The 300-bp reads were truncated at any site receiving an average quality score
143 < 20 over a 50-bp sliding window, discarding the truncated reads shorter than 50 bp; (ii) exact
144 barcode matching, two nucleotide mismatch in primer matching, reads containing ambiguous



145 characters were removed and (iii) only sequences that overlapped > 10 bp were assembled according
146 to their overlap sequence. Reads that could not be assembled were discarded.

147 Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were clustered with 97 % similarity cut-off using UPARSE
148 (version 7.1 <http://drive5.com/uparse/>) and chimeric sequences were identified and removed using
149 UCHIME. The taxonomy of each 16S rRNA gene sequence was analyzed by RDP Classifier
150 (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/>) against the SILVA (SSU115) 16S rRNA database using a confidence
151 threshold of 70 %. Hierarchical clustering analysis was performed using CLUSTER and visualized
152 using TREEVIEW, and other statistical analyses were performed with the IEG pipeline
153 (<http://ieg.ou.edu>). The average data were calculated for BSCs of each revegetation before analyzing
154 the unique and shared OTUs/genera. The figures were generated with OriginPro 9.1 and Excel 2013.
155 Alpha-diversity analysis was used to reflect the richness and diversity of microbial communities. In
156 order to investigate the overall differences in community composition among the samples, principal
157 component analysis (PCA) was performed using unweighted UniFrac distance (Lozupone and
158 Knight, 2005). Redundancy analysis (RDA) was used to assess the relationship between bacterial
159 compositions of BSCs and top soil physicochemical properties by permutation test analysis (Zhang
160 et al., 2016). Phylogenetic analysis of the top abundance genus were aligned with closely related
161 16S rRNA gene sequences, previously selected according to initial BLAST analyses and
162 downloaded from the NCBI website (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>), using CLUSTAL W
163 (Gundlapally and Garcia-Pichel, 2006). Phylogenetic trees were constructed using approximately-
164 maximum-likelihood routine by FastTree (version 2.1.3 <http://www.microbesonline.org/fasttree/>).

165 **3 Results**

166 **3.1 Overview of sequencing and bacterial diversity**

167 Illumina MiSeq sequencing was used to assess the bacterial community composition and
168 diversity of BSCs in successional stages for revegetation in Shapotou. Total 18 libraries of bacterial
169 16S rRNA were constructed, at least 37,332 effective sequences in each sample were obtained, and
170 an average length of 437 bp. 1197–2307 OTUs were generated using a threshold of 0.97 (Table S1).
171 394 OTUs were shared and occupied a relatively high proportion among all samples (17.07–32.92 %)
172 (Table S2), and these OTUs accounted for 41.96–84.88 % of the total sequences (Table S2). This
173 indicated a high coherence of community among these soil crusts. Alpha-diversity analysis revealed



174 the microbial richness and diversity. Rarefaction curves showed that the most bacterial OTUs were
175 found in 51YR crust, whereas MS contained the fewest. The number of OTUs was almost the same
176 from 15YR to 51YR (Figure 2). Community richness estimation using ACE and Chao revealed a
177 similar trend to that for community diversity, which was further supported by Shannon's indexes
178 (Table S1). Hierarchical clustering analysis (Figure 3 A) and PCA (Figure 3 B) showed that the
179 triplicate samples of each age of BSCs were clustered, verifying that the sequencing results were
180 reliable and the samples were reproducible.

181 **3.2 Bacterial community composition at high taxonomic levels**

182 In the bacterial community, a total of 28 phyla were retrieved at genetic distances of 3 %, and
183 they clustered into four groups according to their relative abundance (Figure 4). Of the total
184 sequences, 4.48 % were not classified at the phylum level. The percentages of major phyla for each
185 age of BSCs are shown in Figure 5. The most abundant phylum shifted from Firmicutes (72.8 %
186 in MS and 5YR to Actinobacteria in BSCs (minimum 27.4 % in 15YR and maximum 30.7 % in
187 51YR). The following major phyla were at high abundance (> 10 % of total OTUs): Proteobacteria,
188 Chloroflexi, Acidobacteria and Cyanobacteria. The low-abundance phyla (1 % < of total OTUs <
189 10 %) were Gemmatimonadetes, Bacteroidetes, Armatimonadetes, Verrucomicrobia and
190 Deinococcus-Thermus. The percentages of Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi and Acidobacteria were
191 nearly the same after 15 years of development of BSCs. Cyanobacteria, in addition to the high
192 proportion for 15YR (16.13 %), also had a high proportion in 51YR (9.32 %). The other 17 phyla
193 were all < 1 % of total OTUs and so were removed from further analysis.

194 At the class level (Table 1), 95.61 % of sequences were assigned, and there was considerable
195 consistency in dominant classes among the crusts. Bacilli was the largest class in MS and 5YR with
196 sequence percentages of 68.73 and 32.62 %, respectively; and Actinobacteria was the predominant
197 class from 15YR to 51YR. In addition to subdivisions of Proteobacteria, other major classes
198 included Acidobacteria, Cyanobacteria, Chloroflexi, Clostridia, Cytophagia, Deinococci,
199 Gemmatimonadetes, Ktedonobacteria, Sphingobacteria and Thermomicrobia. The percentages of
200 high (> 10 % of total OTUs) and low abundance (1 % < of total OTUs < 10 %) classes decreased
201 from 98 % in MS to 89.29 % in 51YR, and minor and unclassified classes increased from 1.96 %
202 in MS to 10.67 % in 51YR.



203 At the family level, there were 133 identified families (data not shown), with the most abundant
204 families being Bacillaceae, Enterococcaceae and Streptococcaceae (Table S3). Other dominant
205 families were Geodermatophilaceae, JG34-KF-161, JG34-KF-361, Methylobacteriaceae,
206 Micromonosporaceae, Bradyrhizobiaceae and Enterobacteriaceae.

207 3.3 Characterization of major genera and species

208 A large proportion of sequences were not assigned to any genera. Even for genera with relative
209 abundance > 1 % in any samples, unclassified sequences occupied a high proportion (4.87–8.59 %).
210 Moreover, higher percentages of total sequences (from 13.51 % in MS to 37.28 % in 51YR) were
211 found in low-abundance genera (< 1 % in any samples) (Table S4). A total of 460 genera were found
212 in the crusts, of which 201 were shared by all BSC samples (data not shown). The major genera in
213 each age of BSCs are summarized in Figure 6. *Bacillus*, *Enterococcus* and *Lactococcus* were the
214 primary genera and represented 64.31 % of the total sequences in MS, and decreased to 30.20 % in
215 5YR and only 2.63 % in 51YR, indicating that these three genera were predominant in mobile sand
216 or physical crusts. Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified and *Alkaliphilus* were low-abundance genera in
217 MS. With the decrease in the three primary genera from MS to 51YR, a series of genera increased
218 in BSCs compared with MS and 5YR, including RB41_norank, JG34-KF-361_norank,
219 Acidimicrobiales_uncultured, JG34-KF-161_norank, JG30-KF-CM45_norank, *Microvirga*,
220 Actinobacteria_norank and *Rubrobacter* (relative abundance > 2 %).

221 The phylogenetic relationships of the 30 most abundant genera are shown in Figure 7. They
222 clustered into three groups at the phylum level: Actinobacteria formed one group and included 10
223 genera; another group was Firmicutes and Proteobacteria; and Cyanobacteria, Chloroflexi and
224 Deinococcus-Thermus formed the third group. The genera *Bryobacter* and *Blastocatella* in phylum
225 Acidobacteria were divided into two different groups.

226 *Bacillus* was the primary genus and represented 31 % sequences in MS (Table S4). An
227 unclassified species in this genus reached nearly 30 % relative abundance in MS (Figure 8). In the
228 *Enterococcus* genus, another core component, there was also an unclassified species with high
229 abundance. In the core species (Figure 8), *Bacillus_unclassified*, *Enterococcus_unclassified*,
230 *Lactococcus_piscium*, Enterobacteriaceae_unclassified and *Alkaliphilus_oremlandii_OhILAs* were
231 predominant and decreased from MS to 51YR; only *Acidimicrobiales_unclassified* increased, and



232 this represented the highest proportion in 51YR (2.62 %). The relative abundance of the primitive
233 species in MS and physical crusts decreased in BSCs (from 15YR to 51YR) because of the increased
234 numbers of species. There was little difference in numbers of genera and species among biocrusts
235 (from 15YR to 51YR), only in sequence numbers.

236 **3.4 Relationships between bacterial community structure and soil**

237 **physicochemical properties**

238 RDA (Figure 9) and hierarchical clustering analysis (Figure 3) were used to discern the
239 correlations between bacterial communities and soil physicochemical properties. The BSC the
240 grouping patterns of bacterial communities at the phylum and genus levels were similar to the OTU
241 level, with all divided into two groups. Group I contained two members, MS and 5YR, which
242 dominated the physical crusts and cyanobacterial crusts (Figure 1 A and B), and had the lowest
243 diversities with Shannon indexes of 3.3 and 4.61, and Simpson indexes of 0.139 and 0.0531,
244 respectively (Table S1). The remaining BSCs comprised the largest branch of Group II, which
245 dominated BSCs composed of algae, lichens or mosses (Figure 1 C–F), and had higher diversity
246 with Shannon indexes > 6.0 (Table S1).

247 From Figure 9, it can be inferred that BSC development was associated with soil
248 physicochemical properties (data from Li et al., 2007a; Table S5). The development of microbial
249 community structure was positively correlated with the physicochemical index except for soil bulk
250 density. Thirteen soil physicochemical variables were all significant testified by the permutation test
251 analysis ($p < 0.05$): total water content; pH; C:N ratio; silt and clay content; organic C; CaCO₃; total
252 phosphorus (P), nitrogen (N), potassium (K) and salt; electrical conductivity (EC) and maximum
253 water-holding capacity (WHC). Among them, soil pH, C:N ratio and silt content were the most
254 influential variables (Fig. 9).

255 **3.5 Quantification of bacterial abundance**

256 The averaged bacterial abundance in MS was 1.12×10^6 copies (16S rRNA gene) per gram of
257 soil (Table 2). Similar to the shift of bacterial richness, gene copies increased quickly in the initial
258 15 years of BSC development, and reached the approximate highest level of 2.70×10^8 copies in
259 15YR. There were no significant differences among 28YR, 34YR and 51YR.



260 **4 Discussion**

261 Due to the species concept is relatively well-defined in BSC organisms, BSCs may act as a
262 useful model system for diversity-function research. Their functional attributes are relatively well-
263 known and estimation and manipulation of biodiversity in experiments are feasible, at least within
264 some groups of BSC biota (Bowker et al., 2010). This relationship is more easily interpreted in
265 artificially-constructed BSCs. During successional stages of BSCs, physical crusts in mobile sand
266 contain the lowest C and N contents (Zhang et al., 2009). Algal crust is the earliest biocrust stage.
267 It shows a surface thin layer which composed by aeolian-born materials and an organic layer formed
268 by filamentous cyanobacteria associated with sand particles (Housman et al., 2006; Zhang, 2005;
269 Zhang et al., 2009). Lichen and moss appear following with stabilization of the algal filaments on
270 the soil surface. The C and N fixation rates are increased in lichen crust (Evans and Lange, 2003;
271 Lan et al., 2012b; Zhang et al., 2010), and there is higher photosynthesis, exopolysaccharide and
272 nitrogenase activity in moss crust compared to the early successional crusts (Housman et al., 2006;
273 Lan et al., 2012b). In the successional process of BSCs, the microbial composition and community
274 structure change greatly (Hu and Liu, 2003; Zhang et al., 2009). Crust succession is positively
275 correlated with phospholipid fatty acid content and microbial biomass (Liu et al., 2013). The
276 microbial biomass of soils is the most important driving force in most terrestrial ecosystems, largely
277 due to control of conversion rates and mineralization of organic matter (Albiach et al., 2000;
278 Baldrian et al., 2010). Bacteria have a highest proportion of the microbial biomass in soils (Maier
279 et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015), and thus have important roles in the successional process of BSCs.

280 **4.1 Impact of BSC age on bacterial community composition**

281 In the present study, we gained information concerning the diversity of bacterial communities
282 in BSCs of different ages in restored vegetation at Shapotou in the Tengger Desert. The 16S rRNA
283 gene-based amplicon survey revealed the dominance of Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Chloroflexi,
284 Acidobacteria and Cyanobacteria in all BSCs, with Firmicutes dominating MS (72.8 %) and
285 decreasing to 3.05 % in 51YR, and Actinobacteria increasing from 15YR (27.4 %) to 51YR (30.7 %).
286 Due to different arid conditions, comparisons with other studies of BSCs should be viewed with
287 caution. Cyanobacteria, Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria and Acidobacteria are ubiquitous in soils
288 and sediments everywhere, in arid as well as wet landscapes (Fierer et al. 2012), and Proteobacteria



289 are very common and diverse among all BSCs. We observed that Actinobacteria were the most
290 abundant phylum in the developing (15YR, 28YR and 34YR) and relatively developed (51YR)
291 BSCs, similar to BSCs from the Colorado Plateau and the Sonoran Desert, where Actinobacteria
292 were dominant (Gundlapally and Garcia-Pichel 2006; Nagy et al. 2005; Steven et al. 2013).
293 Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria are usually predicted to be copiotrophic groups which increase
294 in high C environments (Fierer et al., 2007). These results differ from those reported in BSCs from
295 Oman and the Gurbantunggut Desert (Abed et al. 2010; Moquin et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2016),
296 and even from BSCs of natural vegetation at the edge of the Tengger Desert (Wang et al., 2015),
297 where Proteobacteria were the most abundant phylum followed by Cyanobacteria, Actinobacteria
298 and Chloroflexi. Unexpectedly, Cyanobacteria had a high proportion in the developed BSCs,
299 although they were prevalent in early successional stages of BSCs (5YR) and play crucial roles in
300 initial crust development (Belnap and Lange, 2001). This is relatively similar to that in the natural
301 habitat around the Tengger Desert, where Cyanobacteria (19.5 %) and Actinobacteria (19.4 %) were
302 the most dominant phyla after Proteobacteria (25.0 %). Moreover, the results did not resemble those
303 from arid Arizona soils (Dunbar et al., 1999) or the Gurbantunggut Desert (Zhang et al., 2016) due
304 to the high proportion of Chloroflexi, an unexplained presence of thermophilic phyla (Gundlapally
305 and Garcia-Pichel, 2006; Moquin et al., 2012; Nagy et al., 2005) displays good adaptation to drought
306 environment and important roles in the development of BSCs in arid zones (Lacap et al., 2011;
307 Wang et al., 2015).

308 **4.2 Function of BSC bacteria**

309 More and more information about BSC bacteria has been reported with the convenience of
310 culture-independent sequencing methods, and studies of their function and classification in BSCs
311 are increasingly detailed. The main function of these dominant bacteria involves the cycling and
312 storage of C and N in desert ecosystems, which is vital to functioning of arid land (Weber et al.,
313 2016). Firmicutes are more frequently detected in below-biocrust soils (1–2 cm depth) (Elliott et al.,
314 2014) and dominated in MS and 5YR, with the vast majority of abundant species being in Firmicutes
315 in the Tengger Desert. Cyanobacteria are the main contributors to C and N fixation in soils during
316 successional processes of BSCs (Belnap and Gardner, 1993). They are thought to serve as pioneers
317 in the stabilization process of soils (Garcia-Pichel and Wojciechowski 2009), of which genus



318 *Phormidium* is significantly more abundant in surface soils (0–1 cm depth), and genus *Microcoleus*
319 is globally dominant as biocrust-forming microorganisms in most arid lands and their production of
320 polysaccharide sheaths aids in formation of cm-long filament bundles (Belnap and Lange 2003;
321 Boyer et al. 2002; Garcia-Pichel et al. 2001; Pointing and Belnap 2012). In addition to the
322 filamentous bacteria of *Microcoleus* and *Phormidium*, *Mastigocladopsis* and *Trichocoleus* were
323 also in the 30 most abundant genera of BSCs in Shapotou, and mainly harvest energy from light.
324 *Pseudonocardia*, a mycelial genus of Actinobacteria, were dominant and are likely important during
325 BSC formation (Weber et al., 2016). Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes can produce
326 exopolysaccharides, so they could also play roles in soil stabilization and BSC formation
327 (Gundlapally and Garcia-Pichel 2006). Owing to limited culture collections and curated sequence
328 databases of BSC bacteria, most non-cyanobacterial sequences from DNA-based bacterial surveys
329 cannot be reliably named or taxonomically defined, especially in relatively abundant genera in
330 Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria, such as *Bosea*, *Microvirga*, *Rubellimicrobium*, *Patulibacter*,
331 *Solirubrobacter*, *Blastococcus* and *Arthrobacter* in the present study. Discovery and
332 characterization of the functions of these dryland-adapted bacteria is a challenging area for future
333 study.

334 **4.3 Relationship between bacterial community shift and soil physicochemical** 335 **properties**

336 PCA and RDA showed that bacterial community compositions of MS and 5YR significantly
337 differed from those of BSCs of more than 15 years in age, and were positively correlated with soil
338 physicochemical properties. Combined with the results of alpha-diversity analysis and qPCR, this
339 means that the species richness and abundance reached their highest levels at 15 years of BSC
340 development and then maintained similar levels thereafter. Similar trends were found in recovery
341 of soil properties and processes after sand-binding at five different-aged revegetated sites –
342 proportions of silt and clay, depth of topsoil and concentrations of soil K, total N, total P and organic
343 C increased with years since revegetation (Li et al., 2007a, b). The annual recovery rates of soil
344 properties was greater in the initial revegetated sites (0–14 years) than that in the old revegetated
345 sites (43–50 years) (Li et al., 2007a). These results suggest that bacterial communities of BSCs
346 recovered quickly in the fastest recovery phase of soil properties (the initial 15 years), and the



347 bacterial biomass increased with the improvement of soil texture and nutrients, especially pH, C:N
348 ratio, silt content and total P and K in the Tengger Desert. This may be attributed to vegetation
349 composition, soil temperature and soil moisture, because they are key factors regulating soil
350 microbial composition and activity (Butenschoen et al., 2011; De Deyn et al., 2009; Sardans et al.,
351 2008), soil nutrient uptake and release (Peterjohn et al., 1994; Rustad et al., 2001), especially in the
352 BSCs of top soil. BSC, plant and soil biochemical properties together lead to microbial diversity of
353 BSCs in long-term revegetation, and the microorganisms in turn improve soil texture (Li et al.,
354 2007b, 2010).

355 **5 Conclusions**

356 Assessing of bacterial community structure by Illumina MiSeq sequencing showed that changes
357 of bacterial diversity and richness were consistent with the recovery phase of soil properties in
358 different successional stages of BSCs in the revegetation of Shapotou in the Tengger Desert. The
359 shift of bacterial community composition in BSCs at all levels of classification was related to their
360 corresponding function in the BSC recovery process. These results confirmed our hypothesis that
361 bacteria are key microorganisms in nutrition accumulation and soil improvement in early stages of
362 BSC succession.

363

364 **Data availability.** Raw data for Illumina MiSeq sequencing of 18 samples was deposited in the
365 NCBI Sequence Read Archive database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/?term=SRP091312>).

366

367 **Author contributions.** Yubing Liu and Lichao Liu designed the research. Peng Zhang, Guang Song
368 and Rong Hui collected samples from the field. Yubing Liu and Jin Wang performed DNA
369 extraction and quality detection. Yubing Liu analyzed the high-throughput data and prepared the
370 manuscript with consistent contributions from Lichao Liu.

371

372 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

373

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377

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526 **Table 1.** Percentages of the major classes in each age of BSCs. MS, 5YR, 15YR, 28YR, 34YR and 51YR represent
 527 mobile sand, 5, 15, 28, 34 and 51-year-old BSCs, respectively.

Dominant	MS	5YR	15YR	28YR	34YR	51YR
Bacilli	68.73281	32.6217	10.87003	18.88014	14.65767	2.809922
Actinobacteria	10.25572	17.22651	27.36705	28.34208	29.31533	30.65824
Alphaproteobacteria	4.058181	12.26026	19.93375	16.30594	18.98282	21.11772
Acidobacteria	1.404514	2.372406	11.75488	8.32619	7.703847	9.022644
Chloroflexia	0.886639	2.423301	4.006393	2.962606	3.367977	3.857281
Cyanobacteria	0.112504	16.13272	3.943891	2.275974	2.367049	9.32444
Clostridia	4.091218	1.661666	0.517876	1.017893	0.704489	0.15447
Cytophagia	0.265188	1.223258	0.93039	0.739312	1.022358	1.579521
Deinococci	0.048216	1.255402	0.342869	0.372335	0.249116	0.20715
Deltaproteobacteria	0.447337	0.740205	1.150934	0.993785	1.087539	1.255402
Gammaproteobacteria	5.715383	2.632237	1.011643	1.890246	1.417015	0.425908
Gemmatimonadetes	0.645559	2.400979	2.406336	2.646523	2.75992	2.40455
Ktedonobacteria	0.053573	0.113397	1.75542	1.121469	2.072395	1.657202
Sphingobacteria	0.262509	0.666095	1.200043	0.897353	0.995571	0.889317
Thermomicrobia	0.449123	1.351834	3.24208	3.414408	3.008143	2.810815
Betaproteobacteria	0.572342	0.789314	0.939319	1.021465	1.073253	1.11254
Minor	0.018688	0.039555	0.080851	0.08194	0.081753	0.085887
Unclassified	0.000911	0.00142	0.005018	0.005822	0.009866	0.02084

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530 **Table 2.** Absolute abundances of bacteria (copies of ribosomal genes per gram of soil) in BSCs quantified by qPCR
 531 (means \pm standard deviation, n = 6). MS, 5YR, 15YR, 28YR, 34YR and 51YR represent mobile sand, 5, 15, 28, 34
 532 and 51-year-old BSCs, respectively.

Dominant	MS	5YR	15YR	28YR	34YR	51YR
Bacteria abundance	$1.12 \times 10^6 \pm$	$3.94 \times 10^7 \pm$	$2.70 \times 10^8 \pm$	$5.44 \times 10^8 \pm$	$7.61 \times 10^8 \pm$	$9.03 \times 10^8 \pm$
	4.19×10^5 a	2.21×10^6 b	1.91×10^7 c	4.23×10^7 c	8.5×10^7 c	2.55×10^7 c

533 Means with different letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

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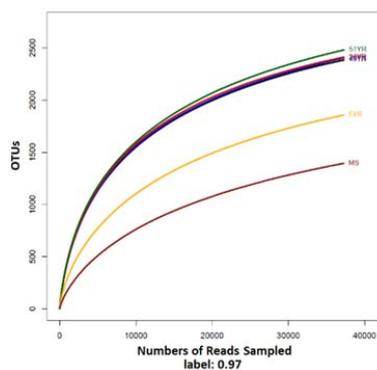
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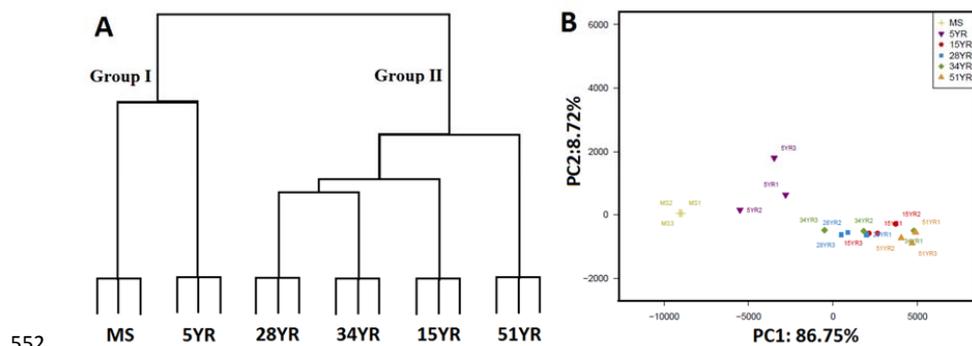


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542 **Figure 1.** Sand dune landscape before (MS, A) and after establishing sand-binding vegetation with physical crusts
543 dominated by few cyanobacteria, revegetated in 2010 (5YR, B); with BSC dominated by cyanobacteria, revegetated
544 in 2000 (15YR, C); with BSC dominated by cyanobacteria and algae, revegetated in 1987 (28YR, D); with BSC
545 dominated by lichens, revegetated in 1981 (34YR, E); and with BSC dominated by mosses, revegetated in 1964
546 (51YR, F). Five soil cores (3.5-cm diameter) with crust layers from four vertices of a square (20-m length) and a
547 diagonal crossing point in each plot were sampled individually (as shown in C).

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550 **Figure 2.** Rarefaction results of the 16S rDNA libraries based on 97 % similarity in different age of BSCs. MS, 5YR,
551 15YR, 28YR, 34YR and 51YR represent mobile sand, 5-, 15-, 28-, 34- and 51-year-old BSCs, respectively.



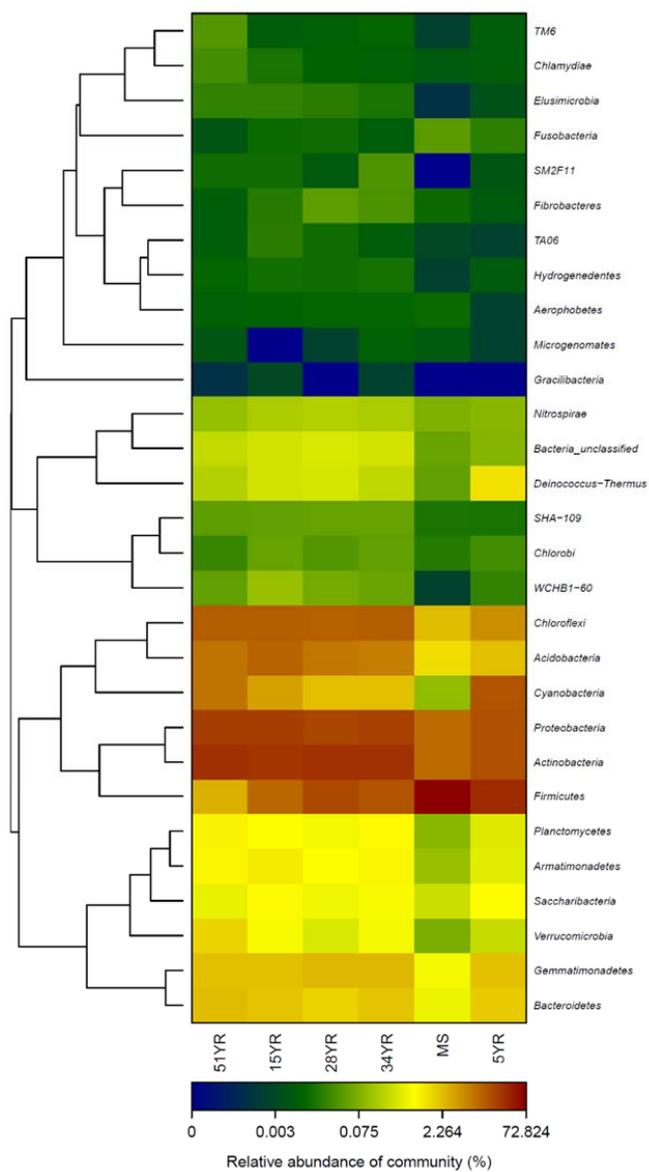
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553 **Figure 3.** Hierarchical clustering analysis and PCA of bacterial communities in six different ages of BSCs at OTU

554 level based on 97 % similarity (triplicate samples for each age). MS, 5YR, 15YR, 28YR, 34YR and 51YR represent

555 mobile sand, 5-, 15-, 28-, 34- and 51-year-old BSCs, respectively.

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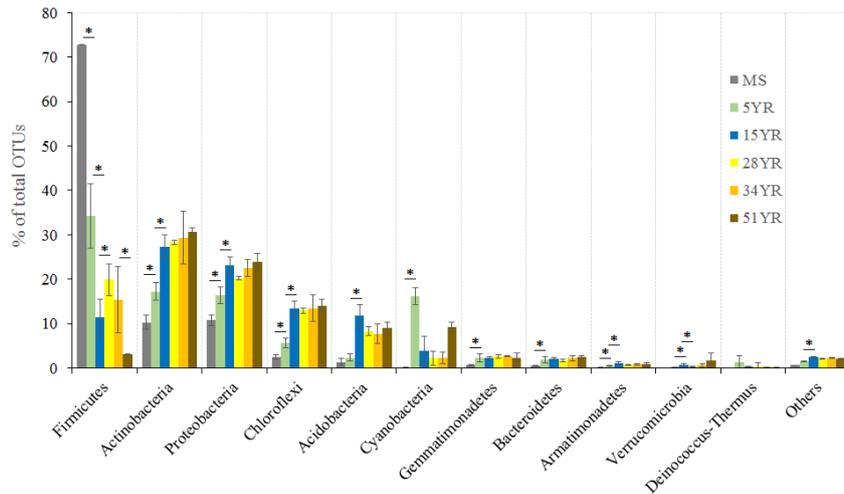


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558 **Figure 4.** Heatmap of bacterial communities in different ages of BSCs at phylum level. MS, 5YR, 15YR, 28YR,

559 34YR and 51YR represent mobile sand, 5-, 15-, 28-, 34- and 51-year-old BSCs, respectively.

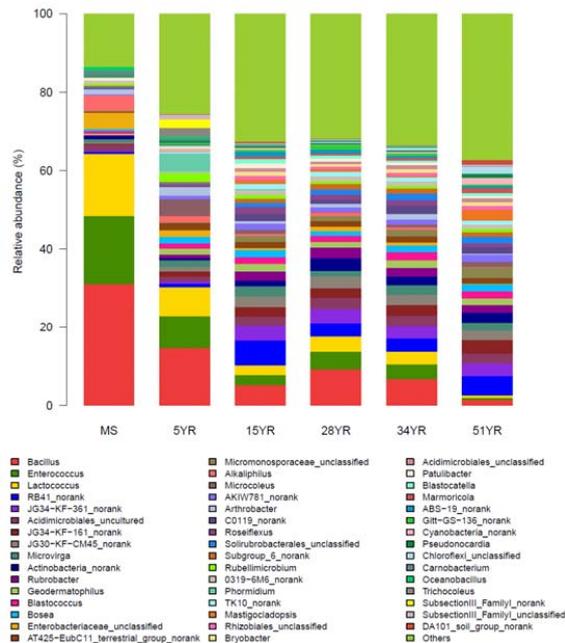
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562 **Figure 5.** Abundant phyla (> 10 % of total OTUs) and low-abundance phyla (1 % < of total OTUs < 10 %) of
 563 bacteria distributed in different ages of BSCs. Data are defined at a 3 % OTU genetic distance. Data are presented
 564 as mean ± standard deviation; n = 3 per BSC sample. Paired t-test (BSC samples) was used to assess the significance
 565 between adjacent ages of BSCs. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.001. MS, 5YR, 15YR, 28YR, 34YR and 51YR represent mobile
 566 sand, 5, 15, 28, 34 and 51-year-old BSCs, respectively.

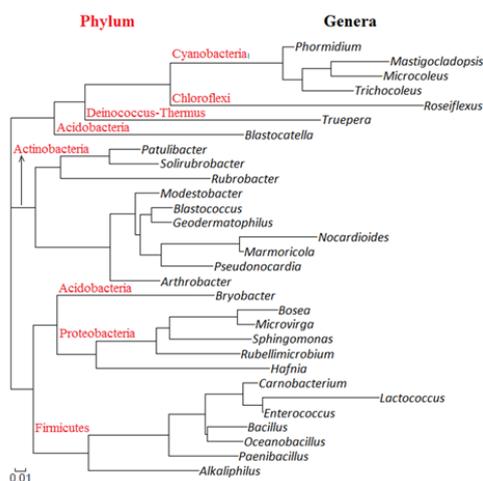
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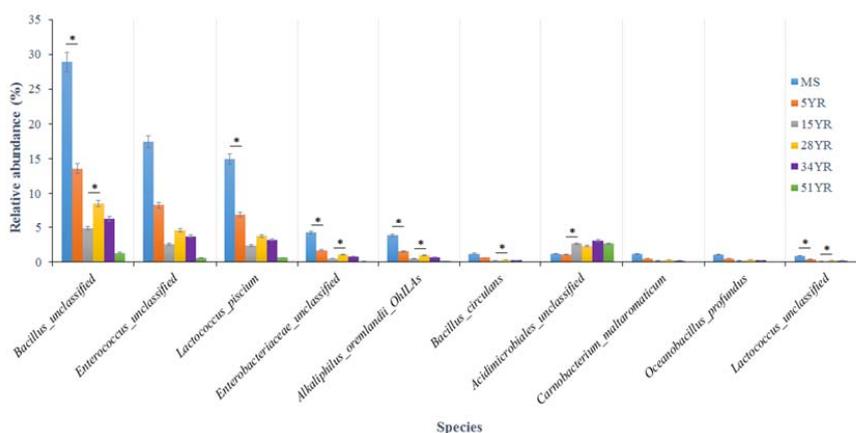
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569 **Figure 6.** Bacterial community composition in six different ages of BSCs at the genus level. Data are defined at a
 570 3 % OTU genetic distance. MS, 5YR, 15YR, 28YR, 34YR and 51YR represent mobile sand, 5, 15, 28, 34 and 51-
 571 year-old BSCs, respectively.

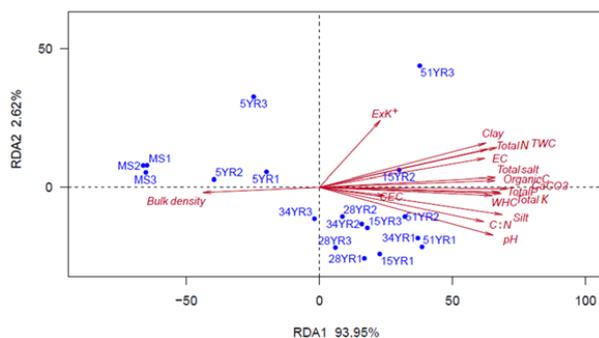


572
 573 **Figure 7.** Phylogenetic relationship of the 30 most abundant genera in bacterial composition of BSCs.
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575
 576 **Figure 8.** Abundant species (> 10 % of total OTUs) and low-abundance species (1 % < of total OTUs < 10 %) of
 577 bacteria distributed in different ages of BSCs. Data are defined at a 3 % OTU genetic distance. Data are presented
 578 as mean ± standard deviation; n = 3 per BSC samples; Paired t-tests (BSC samples) were used to assess the
 579 significance between the adjacent ages of BSCs. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.001. MS, 5YR, 15YR, 28YR, 34YR and 51YR
 580 represent mobile sand, 5, 15, 28, 34 and 51-year-old BSCs, respectively.

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583 **Figure 9.** Redundancy analysis (RDA) of bacterial community structures in relation to soil physiochemical

584 properties. Arrows indicate the direction and magnitude of soil physiochemical index associated with bacterial

585 community structures. The length of arrows in the RDA plot correspond to the strength of the correlation between

586 variables and community structure. Each circle represents the bacterial community structure for each sample.