

1 **Drought affects biocrust more than increased rainfall in the Tabernas Desert (SE Spain)**

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9
10 **Abstract:**

11 Composed of poikilohydric organisms, biocrusts have the ability to survive during periods of drought, making
12 them particularly important in arid and semi-arid areas. However, despite recent research into climate change,
13 the limits of this tolerance to desiccation and the effects of increased water availability, are not very well known.
14 Our objectives were to analyze the effect of prolonged droughts on the cover and metabolism of various crust
15 types, as well as the effect of increased precipitation. Five types of crusts representative of hypothetical
16 successional stages were studied (Physical, Incipient, Cyanobacteria, Squamarina, and Lepraria). Two
17 representative areas were selected for each crust type. Nine plots were established in each area, delimited by a
18 10-cm-diameter ring, and distributed in sets of three plots. In each set, three treatments were applied (control,
19 watering, and rain exclusion), and changes in cover, CO₂ fluxes, and chlorophyll *a* fluorescence were analyzed.
20 Rain exclusion led to cover losses due to respiration, although this effect differed among successional stages.
21 However, increased precipitation did not increase biocrust cover, because both photosynthesis and respiration
22 rates increased. Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence was larger in lichens; under watering, it was not different from the
23 control, but decreased under rain exclusion

24
25 **Keywords:** biocrusts, prolonged drought, climate manipulation, semiarid, biocrust succession.

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27 Impact statement:

28 Biocrusts are communities of microorganisms, algae, lichen, and mosses that develop in the top few millimeters
29 of the soil. Their poikilohydric condition allows them to become inactive during dry periods and become active
30 when water becomes available again, which is crucial in drylands, where water is a limiting factor for vegetation
31 growth. Biocrusts are common in drylands around the world and are important because perform multiple
32 ecological functions. This high tolerance to desiccation suggests that biocrusts can survive long periods of
33 drought. However, some observations seem to indicate changes in biocrust cover during drought periods. In the
34 current context of climate change, knowing biocrust's limits is essential for the conservation of these areas. This
35 work provides evidence of the impact of increasing drought duration on these communities, analyzing the effects
36 not only on their cover but also on their metabolism (net photosynthesis and dark respiration). On the other
37 hand, analyzing the effect of an increase in precipitation improves our understanding of the limits of biocrust
38 growth. In addition, analyzing various types of biocrusts allows us to better understand the dynamics of the
39 Tabernas Desert's biocrust communities, and provide information for the succession hypothesis.

40

41 Introduction

42 Biocrusts are communities mainly composed of poikilohydric organisms that are capable of surviving in areas
43 where water is a limiting factor. Because their water content tends to equilibrium with that of the environment,
44 they become inactive during dry periods and reactivate when water is available again (Kappen & Valladares,
45 2007; Green et al., 2011). This condition makes them particularly important in arid and semi-arid areas, where
46 they protect soil against erosion (Chamizo et al. 2012; Rodriguez-Caballero et al. 2013; Chamizo et al. 2017;
47 Lázaro et al. 2023) and can act as main primary producers (Maestre et al., 2016).

48 Desiccation tolerance mechanisms in these organisms are essential for their survival in these areas, because they
49 allow them to maintain their structural and metabolic integrity during dry periods. Some reviews have
50 highlighted the following mechanisms (Kranter et al., 2008; Green et al., 2011; Heber and Lüttge, 2011): (a)
51 compatible solutes that protect membranes and proteins by replacing water molecules during desiccation (Farrar
52 1976; Aubert et al., 2007; Oliver, 2008; Hoekstra et al., 2001); (b) late embryogenesis abundant proteins (LEAs)
53 and heat shock proteins (HSPs) that protect proteins from denaturation during desiccation (Hoekstra et al.,
54 2001); (c) thermal energy dissipation that protects against photooxidative damage, preventing the formation of
55 reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Heber and Lüttge, 2011; Kranter et al., 2008); (d) antioxidants that act as
56 scavengers of ROS during desiccation (Kranter et al., 2002; Kranter et al., 2008); and (e) amphiphilic
57 metabolites that, although they cause disturbances in the membrane, promote the insertion of antioxidants
58 (Hoekstra and Golovina, 2002). These mechanisms seem to give biocrusts a certain advantage in dealing with
59 climate change, and they strengthen the belief that biocrusts can survive long periods of drought.

60 Although several studies have been conducted on climate change in biocrust communities, studies on the effects
61 of changes in precipitation are scarce. Simulations of climate change in southeast Spain found that an increase
62 in soil temperature of 2–3 °C led to losses in biocrust cover because of increased respiration; however, no cover
63 losses were observed with a 30% reduction in precipitation (Maestre et al., 2013; Ladrón de Guevara et al.,
64 2014). In contrast, in a similar experiment, 5%–8% losses in moss cover (but not in lichens) were observed
65 because of both increased temperature and reduced precipitation (Li et al., 2021). On the other hand, research
66 on the effect of altered precipitation patterns by increasing the frequency of small precipitations also revealed
67 losses of biocrust cover related to negative carbon balances (Belnap et al., 2004; Reed et al., 2012; Zelikova et
68 al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2012). Water availability was shown to increase crust biomass and even to change the
69 crust type (Kidron et al., 2010). Nevertheless, the effects of prolonged droughts on biocrusts are not very well
70 known; although, droughts drastically affected the crust structure and stability in the Negev (Kidron et al., 2017).
71 Some research has observed that the duration of droughts can hinder the reactivation of the metabolic activity

72 in lichens and mosses (Munzi et al., 2019; Kranner et al., 2003; Harel et al., 2004; Proctor et al., 2007), while
73 field observations seem to reveal a relationship between periods of drought and cover loss (Belnap et al., 2006).
74 On the other hand, the effects of increased rainfall on cover and gas exchange of biocrusts are poorly understood.

75 The objectives of this work were to analyze the effects of prolonged droughts and increased precipitation on
76 biocrust cover and gas exchange. The state of the photosynthetic systems of the main biocrust components after
77 three years of continuous drought were also recorded. We studied five crust types hypothetically representative
78 of successional stages (according Lazaro et al., 2008, and Rubio and Lázaro, 2023, among others). We
79 hypothesized that (a) episodes of hydration insufficient to produce positive net photosynthesis would lead to a
80 decrease in biocrust biomass due to respiration and biocrust cover would be visibly reduced after a few years of
81 drought; and (b) an increase in precipitation would lead to an increase in net photosynthesis rates promoting the
82 growth of biocrust, which could visibly increase its cover.

83

84 **Material and Methods**

85 Study area

86 This study was performed at the El Cautivo field site, in the Tabernas Desert (Almería, Spain). This widely
87 studied area (Alexander et al. 1994; Raggio et al. 2014; Miralles et al. 2020; among others) has a mean annual
88 rainfall of about 230 mm, distributed mainly during autumn and winter, and a mean annual temperature of 18
89 °C, which can reach 45 °C in summer and -5.5 °C in winter (Lázaro et al. 2001, 2004). The weathering of marine
90 marls from the Upper Miocene has generated a landscape of badlands, heterogeneously colonized by vascular
91 vegetation and biocrusts (Lázaro et al., 2008). The vegetation is patchy, concentrated in certain landforms, and
92 is mainly made up of three biotypes: tussock grasses, dwarf shrubs, and annual herbs. Vegetation covers
93 approximately one third of the territory, while another third features eroded regolith with hardly any vegetation,
94 and the final third is covered with biocrusts, which are also in the plant interspaces.

95 Experimental design

96 Five crusts types characteristic of the area were analyzed, which could represent stages of a hypothetical
97 succession (Lázaro et al., 2008; Rubio and Lázaro, 2023); ordered from earliest to latest, they were as follows:

- 98 - Physical crust (P): Bare soil with a low amount of microorganisms not visible to the naked eye in the
99 field. Smooth surface and beige, pale grey or whitish color.
- 100 - Incipient cyanobacterial biocrust (I): Located in flat and sun-exposed areas undergoing a relatively
101 frequent trampling. It has a slight bacterial colonization. The five main phyla are: Proteobacteria
102 (14.8%), Bacterioidetes (14.6%), Actinobacteria, (14.4%), Cyanobacteria (12.4%) and Chloroflexi
103 (11.3%) (Miralles et al., 2020). Smooth compact surface and pale brown or yellowish color.
- 104 - Mature cyanobacterial biocrust (C): A widespread biocrust becoming dominant on sun-exposed areas,
105 with a higher microbial concentration than I (Miralles et al., 2020). The five main phyla are:
106 Cyanobacteria (21.9%), Bacterioidetes (14.3%), Proteobacteria (13.2%), Actinobacteria (9.8%) and
107 Chloroflexi (9.7%) (Miralles et al., 2020). Büdel et al. (2014) found 14 cyanobacterial genera,
108 highlighting Nostoc, Leptolyngbya, Scytonema, and Phormidium. Some filamentous cyanobacteria
109 have been identified to the species level, such as the heterocystous Tolypothrix distorta, and Scytonema
110 hyalinum; and the non-heterocystous Leptolyngbya frigida, Microcoleus steenstrupii, and Trichocoleus
111 desertorum (Roncero-Ramos et al. 2019). Rough surface and brown color. Some small pioneer lichens
112 such as *Fulgensia desertorum* Poelt, *Fulgensia poeltii* Llimona and *Endocarpon pussillum* Hedw are
113 often present.

- 114 - Lichen biocrust dominated by *Squamarina lentigera* Poelt and/or *Diploschistes diacapsis* Lumbsch (S):
 115 It is the most widespread biocrust type at the field site, occupying mainly north and east-oriented
 116 hillslopes. Rough surface and whitish color. It includes a diversity of lichens, such as *Buellia zohary*
 117 Galun, *Diploschistes ocellatus* Llimona, and *Psora decipiens* Hoff.
- 118 - Lichen biocrust characterized by *Lepraria isidiata* Llimona&Crespo (L). It develops on the shadiest
 119 north-facing hillslopes, often in spaces among plants (which show 20-40% cover). Others lichens such
 120 as *Squamarina cartilaginea* P. James, *Xanthoparmelia pokorny* Blanco, Crespo, Elix, Hawksw. &
 121 Lumbsch, and *Teloschistes lacunosus* Savicz, as well as mosses such as *Grimmia pulvinata* Sm, are also
 122 characteristic. Rough surface and a mosaic of whitish (often dominant), green and dark colors.

123 We selected two representative areas per crust type, and nine representative plots were established in each area,
 124 delimited by 10-cm-diameter transparent methacrylate rings, distributed in three sets of three samples. We used
 125 six replicates per treatment and crust type; every set of plots including the three following treatments:

- 126 - Control (C): samples exposed to the natural rainfall regime.
- 127 - Watering (W): samples subjected to irrigation, doubling the natural rainfall. To do so, we measured
 128 precipitation and, the day or days following each precipitation event, the samples were carefully watered
 129 with an amount of demineralized water equal to that received by precipitation. Watering turned out to
 130 be a slow process and, lasting several days in large events and when gas exchange measurements were
 131 imminent (see below), in which case the order of the irrigations was used to order the measurements so
 132 that they were done under similar moisture conditions.
- 133 - Rain exclusion (RE): samples permanently covered with a square, 20-cm-side, transparent methacrylate
 134 roof at a height of approximately 20 cm from the ground, preventing the entry of rainwater but allowing
 135 light to enter. Although these rainout shelters often condense water, they probably barely decrease the
 136 high relative humidity associated with rain, so they do not exactly replicate the conditions of natural
 137 drought.

138 CO₂ fluxes measurement

139 The net photosynthesis and dark respiration were measured periodically using an open-circuit infrared gas
 140 analyzer LI-6400 (Lincoln, USA) connected to a transparent chamber of 668 cm³ designed and calibrated by
 141 Ladrón de Guevara et al. (2015). To measure respiration, the chamber was covered with an opaque cloth, taking
 142 a new record immediately after each light measurement. For photosynthesis and respiration, and for each plot,
 143 in each campaign, one record consisted of the average of five consecutive measurements. Ten campaigns were
 144 carried out over three years of experimentation: two annual (winter and summer) and some additional ones after
 145 heavy rainfall events. Because biocrusts activity peaks during the first light hours of the morning (Raggio et al.,
 146 2014; Ladrón de Guevara et al., 2014), only one crust type could be measured per day, so every campaign
 147 required five consecutive sunny days. We staggered the irrigations so that each day we measured the crust type
 148 watered the day before. We considered positive values to be CO₂ consumption by the biocrust and negative
 149 values to be CO₂ loss by the biocrust.

150 Cover estimation

151 Each plot was photographed twice per year (winter and summer) to obtain the cover of the main components of
 152 the biocrust (bare soil, cyanobacteria, lichens, and mosses). Covers were approximated from the frequencies,
 153 using the program GIMP 2.10.34 (GIMP Development Team, 2023) to draw a regular 196-cell grid and to
 154 overlap it over each plot photograph. Because 59 grid cells fell outside the plot ring, the frequencies were
 155 counted on 137 cells. Frequency counts have been used as a cover subrogate (Maestre et al., 2013) because it is
 156 an objective and repeatable method. This method tends to overestimate the cover of the small-thalli species,
 157 however, distinguishing few cover categories, the error can be assumed. We could not monitor the chlorophyll

158 to avoid disturbing the small plots by extracting successive samples, but the small plot size and the grid allowed
159 us to visually check the quality of the cover estimation.

160 Measurements of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence

161 To analyze the effect of treatments on photosystem II (PSII) efficiency and to determine whether each measured
162 organism was alive, we measured the chlorophyll *a* fluorescence of each sample using a MINI-PAM
163 Photosynthesis Yield Analyzer (Heinz Walz GmbH, Germany). Measurements were performed at night and, 30
164 min before measuring, the samples were sprayed with demineralized water until saturation was reached in
165 surface horizon (about 4 mm). We distinguished physical crust, incipient and mature cyanobacteria, mosses and
166 the main lichen species. A hard grid of 11 x 12 cm with 99 cells was superimposed on each ring always in the
167 same positions to ensure measurements were taken at the same points or thalli across the dates. A variable
168 number of measurement points were selected to represent each sample, depending on the diversity and
169 abundance of organisms present. We measured on the species and crust types appearing at least in three cells,
170 to obtain three replicates per surface category and sample. Therefore, some plots only had three measurements,
171 for example, those in which there was nothing more than physical crust or incipient cyanobacterial biocrust,
172 whereas other samples were the subjects of many measurements. All measurements obtained in every plot were
173 used in the analyses; for graphical representation we used a single (average) fluorescence value per plot. We
174 carried out three measurement campaigns: March 2020, October 2020, and January 2021.

175 Climate data

176 Data on precipitation were obtained from five climate stations installed in one of the two zones for each crust
177 type, measured by Rain-O-Matic-Pro tipping-bucket rain gauges of 0.25-mm resolution (Pronamic, Denmark).
178 The missing data were filled in based on the data of the nearest rain gauge considering the regression between
179 both rainfall data series. For every month, we calculated the amount of precipitation and the number of rainfall
180 events, defined by a minimum inter-event time of six hours.

181 Data analysis

182 To test for differences, for each plot, the covers of bare soil, cyanobacteria, lichens and mosses, as well as the
183 net photosynthesis, and dark respiration, were analyzed as dependent variables using generalized mixed models
184 (GLMM), assuming that data follows a gamma log link distribution. Years (in the case of cover) or times of
185 measurement (in the cases of net photosynthesis and dark respiration) were considered within-subject factors
186 and crust type and treatment between-subject factors in the three cases, and their interactions were analyzed.

187 On the other hand, chlorophyll *a* fluorescence, including all the measurements at the points selected in each
188 sample, was analyzed using generalized models (GLMs), assuming that data follows a gamma log link
189 distribution. Crust type and treatment were considered factors, and their interaction was also analyzed. For all
190 interactions, multiple comparisons were analyzed using the Bonferroni test.

191 All the analyses were made using SPSS 28.0 (IBM Corporation, USA). Differences were assumed significant
192 at $p < 0.05$.

193

194 **Results**

195 Precipitation

196 The averages of total annual precipitation for the years 2018-2021 were 217.80, 212.44, 151.14 and 312.78 mm,
197 respectively

198 *Changes in cover*

199 After the three-years experiment, treatment and crust type, significantly affected the cover of all the components,
200 except for moss, (Table 1). Time itself affected the cover of cyanobacteria, mosses, and (indirectly) the bare
201 soil. However, treatments interacted with time (except in moss cover), and with the type of crust in lichen cover,
202 where the three factors interacted significantly, affecting the bare soil cover.

203 Bare soil increased significantly under the rain exclusion treatment in all biocrusts (Figure 1), increasing by
204 23% in Incipient, 52% in Cyanobacteria, 31% in Squamarina and 21% in Lepraria crusts. Nevertheless, watering
205 only significantly affected Cyanobacteria and Squamarina, reducing bare soil cover by 9% and 4%, respectively.

206 Cyanobacterial cover only changed significantly under the rain exclusion condition, in Physical and
207 Cyanobacteria crusts, where it decreased by 23% and 48%, respectively, (Figure 1). The increase in
208 cyanobacterial cover promoted by watering was not significant. Cyanobacterial cover was not significantly
209 affected by treatments or time in the lichen-dominated crusts (Figure 1).

210 Lichen cover decreased significantly with rain exclusion in the Incipient and Cyanobacteria crusts (virtually
211 disappearing in both) and in Squamarina crust (where it decreased by 29%; however, its decline in Lepraria
212 crust was not significant (Figure 1). Note that the reduction of lichen cover in control plots of Lepraria was
213 almost 15%. Watering only significantly affected lichen cover in the Incipient crust, where it increased by 5%.

214 Finally, moss cover (identified only in Squamarina and Lepraria) decreased significantly over time, irrespective
215 of the treatment and crust types (Table 1, Figure 1).

216 *Changes in CO₂ fluxes*

217 The three factors, treatment, crust type and time, significantly affected net photosynthesis and dark respiration,
218 The interactions of treatments with crust type and time, as well as the triple interaction of the three factors, were
219 significant for both dependent variables (Table 1). Overall, net photosynthesis was mostly negative and was
220 positive only in September 2019, December 2019, and January 2020 under the control and watering treatments
221 (Figure 2).

222 In the Physical crust, the treatments did not significantly change photosynthesis or respiration after three years.
223 (Figure 2, Figure 3).

224 In the Incipient crust, net photosynthesis increased significantly under the watering treatment (Figure 2), from
225 $-0.19 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$ in March 2018 to $-0.08 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$ in January 2021. Punctual increases observed in September
226 2018 ($0.21 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$), December 2019 ($0.24 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$), and January 2020 ($0.39 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$) coincided with
227 rain events (Figure 2). Dark respiration was significantly higher in the watering treatment (Figure 3).

228 In the Cyanobacteria crust, net photosynthesis was not significantly different among the treatments (Figure 2),
229 although it increased over the three years by $0.5 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$ under the watering treatment. As in the case of the
230 Incipient crust, the positive rates of net photosynthesis reached in December 2019, January 2020 and January
231 2021, coincided with rain events. Dark respiration was significantly higher under the watering treatment and
232 significantly lower under rain exclusion (Figure 3).

233 In the Squamarina crust, net photosynthesis was significantly higher in watering conditions than in rain
234 exclusion, reaching $0.23 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$ in January 2021 (Figure 2). Increased photosynthesis was observed in the
235 control and watering samples in January 2020 and January 2021, coinciding with rain events. Dark respiration
236 was significantly higher under the watering treatment, increasing by $0.37 \mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$, and significantly lower

237 under rain exclusion (Figure 3). In September 2020, dark respiration of watering treatment increased to -0.98
238 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$ with the first rainfall after summer drought.

239 In the *Lepraria* crust, net photosynthesis under watering was not significantly different from that of the control,
240 but did differ from that under rain exclusion (Figure 2). Conversely, dark respiration was significantly higher
241 with watering (thus making it difficult the increase of net photosynthesis) but it was not significantly lower
242 under exclusion, and it peaked at $-1.31 \mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$ by September 2020 with the first rainfall after summer (Figure
243 3).

244 *Chlorophyll a fluorescence*

245 Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence was significantly different among crusts and treatments and the effect of the
246 treatments depended on the crust type (Table 1). Fluorescence was significantly lower under rain exclusion than
247 in control or watering treatment in Incipient, Squamarina and *Lepraria* crusts, while watering did not produce a
248 difference with respect to the control (Figure 4). Fluorescence in lichenic crusts were significantly higher than
249 those of cyanobacterial crusts in both control and watering. Rain exclusion affected fluorescence more in
250 *Lepraria* than in Squamarina.

251

252 **Discussion**

253 Our treatments significantly affected the cover and metabolism of biocrusts, and differently according the
254 biocrust types, assumed to be successional stages.

255 We achieved the maximum possible replication of CO_2 measurements considering that the daily metabolic cycle
256 (Ladrón de Guevara et al, 2014) affects the fluxes if each round of measurements lasts too long, depending on
257 the number of plots. However, the punctual nature of the gas exchange measurements, the seasonality, the erratic
258 nature of rainfall, the inevitable increase in the number of events by watering, and the necessity to water on two
259 or more successive days after the major rains or for the gas exchange campaigns, surely added noise to the data
260 on net photosynthesis and respiration, blurring their relationships with the factors and the cover variations.

261 *Effect of prolonged droughts*

262 Rain exclusion negatively and differentially affected both the cover and metabolism of all biocrusts. The
263 Cyanobacteria crust lost more than 40% of its cyanobacterial cover whereas the Incipient lost 20% (Figure 1).
264 Net photosynthesis did not decrease significantly in either (Figure 2); however, dark respiration was
265 significantly lower in the Cyanobacteria crust (Figure 3). Lichen-dominated crusts lost 30% and almost 20% of
266 lichen cover in Squamarina and *Lepraria* crusts, respectively (Figure 1). However, unlike in the Cyanobacteria
267 crust, they did not lose cyanobacterial cover. This suggests that prolonged droughts (and possibly other
268 disturbances), can reverse the direction of succession. Although lichens displace cyanobacteria under favorable
269 conditions (Lázaro et al., 2008), when lichens recede, cyanobacteria occupy their space. This is the only
270 explanation for the fact that cyanobacterial cover decreased where Cyanobacteria dominate but not where
271 lichens dominate. The space left by the lichen retreat would have particularly suitable conditions for
272 cyanobacteria despite the drought, due to the physical and chemical changes lichens produce in soil. These
273 changes include improvement of soil structure, porosity, stability, water retention and accumulation of fine-
274 grained material (Miralles et al, 2011, Chamizo et al., 2012; 2016); along with increased organic carbon,
275 nitrogen and nutrients: Belnap and Eldridge (2003) showed that Carbon and Nitrogen are fertilizers that increase
276 the amount of chlorophyll *a* in cyanobacteria. This is consistent with the results of Zelikova et al. (2012), who
277 observed an increase in cyanobacterial cover associated to a decrease in moss cover.

278 Maestre et al. (2013) found that biocrust cover and metabolism were significantly affected by a 2-3°C
279 temperature increase, but not by a 30% reduction in precipitation although, as Ladron de Guevara et al. (2014)
280 observed, the open-top-chambers used to increase temperature probably caused a decrease in dew, fog, and rain.
281 Non-rainfall water inputs (NRWI) can be relevant for biocrust activity in drylands (del Prado and Sancho, 2007;
282 McHugh et al., 2015). However, to date, there is not enough reliable NRWI data from our study area. Our highest
283 net photosynthesis rates tended to coincide with rainfall periods (Figure 2). Therefore, a 30% reduction in
284 precipitation may not be sufficient to observe short-term decreases in cover. This has not been widely studied
285 in biocrust, but Miranda et al. (2009) found that a 25% reduction in precipitation did not significantly affect
286 plant cover in the short term in the same area; however, a 50% reduction did. Desiccation tolerance is species
287 specific (Green et al., 2011). We have not found data on desiccation tolerance of our main species, but many
288 organisms are able to survive in latent state for drought periods longer than three years (Alpert, 2000). These
289 organisms would not necessarily die or lose cover visibly under our experimental drought.

290 *Effect of increased precipitation*

291 The watering did not significantly increased biocrust cover over the short term (Figure 1). However, it increased
292 net photosynthesis, in all crusts except in Lepraria, (although that increment was not significant in
293 Cyanobacteria). Additionally, watering increased dark respiration in all, but particularly in lichen-dominated
294 crusts (Figures 2 and 3). This is consistently with Lange (1980). The short periods of positive net photosynthesis
295 in Cyanobacteria agree with Büdel et al (2018), who explained that the metabolic active period commences with
296 up to three months of carbon loss, likely due to the reestablishment of the structures of the organisms, prior to
297 about a four-month period of net carbon gain. In the Tabernas Desert, the period of net carbon gain seems to be
298 still shorter than in the Australian Gulf Savannah.

299 The low increase in cover despite the increase in metabolism could be influenced by the small plot size (Rubio
300 and Lázaro, 2024). However, the control samples did not show significant changes in cover (Figure 1) and it is
301 unlikely that the ring affected only the watering samples. Therefore, we propose two not-exclusive explanations
302 for the low cover increase with watering. (i) The experiment only lasted three years and, although cyanobacteria
303 can grow rapidly, lichens and mosses develop more slowly (Dojani et al., 2011; Rubio and Lázaro, 2023), and
304 their growth rate depends on the species and the environment (Belnap and Eldrige, 2001; Weber et al., 2016).
305 (ii) Since we selected the plots based on their representativeness, they had low bare soil cover. Therefore, an
306 increase in cover of a surface category had to occur mainly at the expense of the cover of another category, and
307 it is unlikely that the competition between lichen and cyanobacteria covers would be resolved in such a short
308 time.

309 Although we altered the annual timing of rainfall as little as possible by watering after each natural rain event,
310 we could not avoid doubling the number of rainy days in the plots under watering. Regardless of the total amount
311 of precipitation, changes in precipitation pattern can decrease CO₂ fluxes and cover in plants (Knapp et al.,
312 2002) and the increased frequency of small rainfall events significantly decreased biocrust cover (Belnap et al.,
313 2004; Reed et al., 2012); because with increased frequency each precipitation event is less abundant, facilitating
314 water evaporation (Munzi et al., 2019). This can force biocrusts to remain in a desiccated state (William et al.,
315 2014; Kranner et al., 2003; Proctor et al., 2007), and occasionally even to die (Reed et al., 2012). However, in
316 this case an increase in number of raindays does not mean a decrease in rainfall volume per day. Moreover, this
317 negative effect of the increased frequency of small events contrasts with the hypothesis of Lázaro et al. (2001)
318 and Lázaro (2004) from our study area, suggesting that the higher frequency of small rainfall events with regard
319 to the surrounding areas would selectively benefit biocrusts over vascular vegetation, explaining the abundance
320 of biocrusts in this area. Nevertheless, both hypotheses are not mutually exclusive. Belnap et al. (2004) and
321 Reed et al. (2012) investigated in the southwestern USA, where rainfall occurs mainly in summer, when water

322 can evaporate quickly. In the southeast of Spain, rainfall occurs mainly in autumn and winter, when temperatures
323 are lower and the soil remains wet for longer

324 *The succession and the response to changes in precipitation*

325 The successional hypothesis is widely accepted worldwide (Belnap and Eldridge, 2003; Büdel et al., 2009;
326 Zhuang et al., 2009; Drahorad et al., 2013; Geng al., 2024), although not unanimously: Kidron (2019) and
327 Kidron and Xiao (2024) claimed that succession can only be invoked when the successive communities in a
328 recovery space are compared to surrounding ones. The successional hypothesis has been widely assumed in the
329 Tabernas Desert (Lázaro et al., 2008; Chamizo et al., 2015; Miralles et al., 2020; Lopez-Canfin et al., 2022a,
330 2022b; Rubio and Lázaro, 2023; among others). Our results according to the crust type support this hypothesis;
331 the successional order in the Tabernas Desert would be Physical, Incipient, Cyanobacteria, Squamarina, and
332 Lepraria (Lázaro et al., 2023).

333 Incipient crust did not show significant cover losses under rain exclusion, maybe because its relatively frequent
334 trampling provides it with greater adaptation to disturbances. Furthermore, Incipient's net photosynthesis and
335 respiration rates were like those of the Physical crust and lower than those of Cyanobacteria crust. These
336 differences, along with the lower microbial biomass of Incipient (Miralles et al., 2020), its visibility to the naked
337 eye in the field and its persistence over time in trampled places, foster the consideration of Incipient as a
338 successional stage between the Physical and the Cyanobacteria crusts. Rain exclusion caused a decreasing cover
339 loss through the hypothetic succession (50%, 30% and 20% in Cyanobacteria, Squamarina and Lepraria crusts,
340 respectively). The early successional stages might be more sensitive to environmental changes because the later
341 ones involve higher biodiversity and therefore larger functional redundancy, thus achieving greater resilience
342 (Biggs et al., 2020). This growing resistance to cover loss is consistent with the fact that ecosystem services
343 increase accompanying biocrust succession, according various empirical findings, such as decreasing erodibility
344 along succession (Lazaro et al., 2023), increasing water collection and retention (Chamizo et al., 2016) and
345 growing nutrient accumulation (Zhang al., 2022).

346

347 Ongoing climate change could reduce biocrust cover; however, this will not necessarily occur because climate
348 change is slower than simulated in experiments and affects several generations of organisms, giving species the
349 opportunity to acclimatize and even adapt (Pintado et al., 2005). The models indicate a progressive
350 concentration and intensification of precipitation, with lengthening droughts (IPCC 2023). However, protecting
351 at least the lichen-dominated biocrusts -the best at resisting droughts and providing ecosystem services- is
352 crucial because, although biocrusts can resist high rainfall intensity (Lazaro et al., 2023), they are at serious risk
353 with the intensification of land uses. Moreover, we have verified here that prolonged droughts indeed increase
354 periods of negative carbon balance. On the other hand, a hypothetic substantial increase in natural precipitation
355 would benefit vascular plants rather than biocrusts (Lazaro, 2004): This area is currently below the forest's
356 lower climatic limit; with double the current rainfall, it would exceed this limit, and the vegetation would barely
357 leave room for biocrusts.

358

359 **Conclusions**

360 Our results confirm our first initial hypothesis. Although biocrusts can survive long periods of drought,
361 prolonged droughts reduced biocrust biomass by decreasing opportunities to reach the compensation point and
362 accumulate carbon by net photosynthesis, whereas they increased periods of negative carbon balance,
363 potentially causing a significant cover loss. However, this decline in cover will not necessarily occur in the long
364 term because many of these species acclimatize or adapt, as their geographic distributions show. In the

365 experiments, instant artificial climatic changes are often applied to specific individuals, which, in the case of
366 lichens, are sets of symbionts that have organized and developed slowly in equilibrium with the environmental
367 conditions that prevailed until the time of the experiment; so, the results could overestimate the effects of climate
368 change. Moreover, climate change models do not predict years-long droughts in this region.

369 Our results show that increased rainfall would not necessarily imply increased biocrust cover in the long term,
370 because the current biocrust cover is already high; additionally an increase in precipitation would favor the
371 development of vascular vegetation, which ultimately would outcompete biocrusts, as can be observed in the
372 regions surrounding the Tabernas Desert. This strongly suggests that the current precipitation conditions in the
373 Tabernas Desert are close to being optimal for biocrusts to reach their maximum possible extension in the area.

374 Our results also show that biocrust's response to changes in precipitation depends on the biocrust type.
375 Therefore, the analysis of these various responses is essential to better understand biocrust dynamics and the
376 associated processes, as well as for issues of land management and conservation. Our results support the
377 succession hypothesis. The development of lichens increases community resilience. Changes in biocrust cover
378 as a consequence of rainfall changes appear muffled in the biocrust community hypothetically considered late-
379 successional. Therefore, our results suggest that the dynamic relationships among biocrust types should be
380 considered in future work at other field sites.

381

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385

386 **Author Contribution statement**

387 All authors contributed to the conception and design of the study. Roberto Lázaro and Clement López selected
388 the plots and prepared the material, while all authors carried out data collection and analysis. Consuelo Rubio
389 wrote the first draft of the manuscript and Roberto Lázaro and Clement López commented on later versions of
390 the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

391

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398

399 **Conflict of Interest statement**

400 Conflicts of Interest: None

401

402 **Data availability statement**

403 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, R.L., upon
404 reasonable request.

405

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572

573

574 **Table with caption**

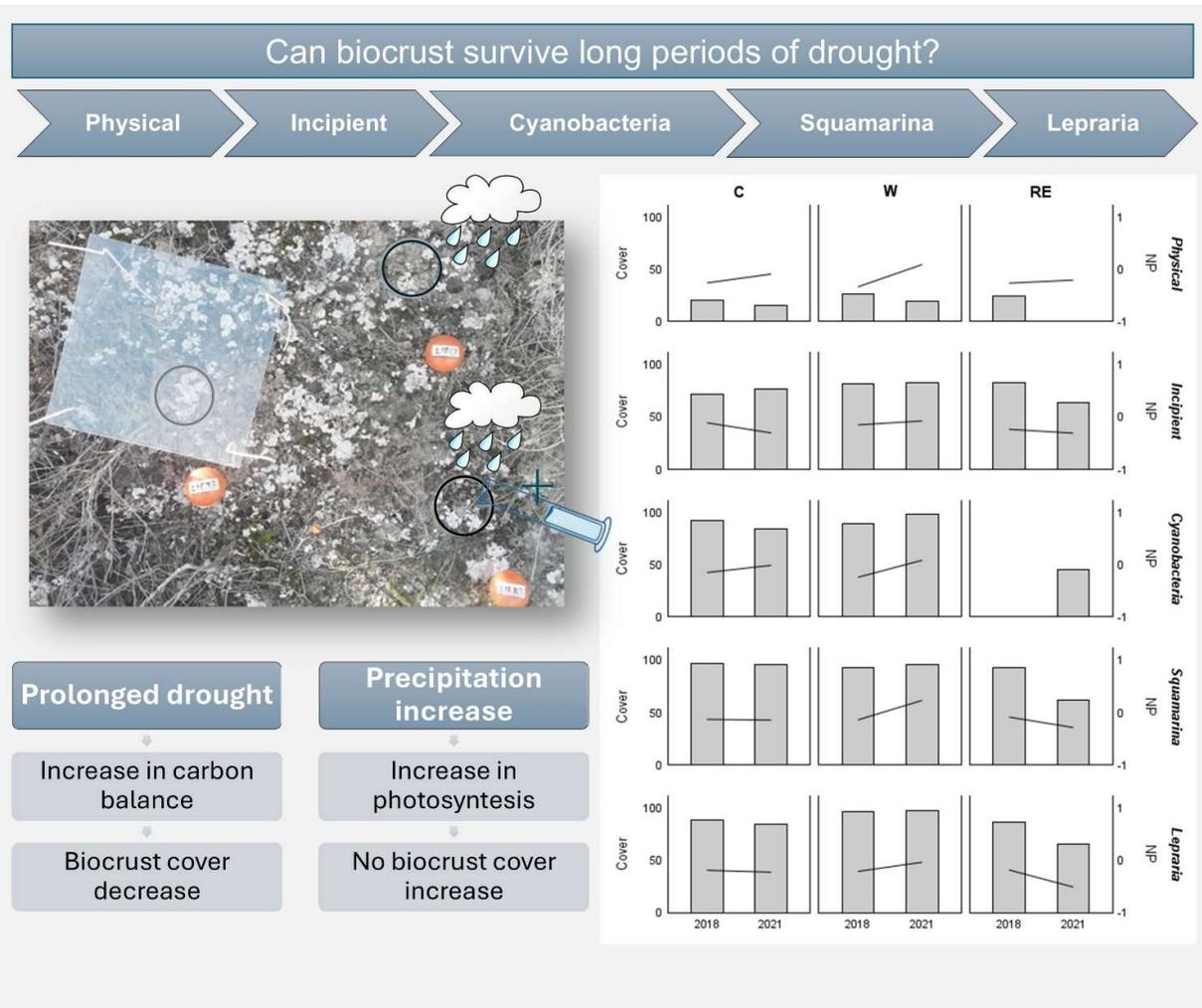
575 **Table 1.** F-values in the results of GLMM analyses for cover of biocrust principal components (bare soil,
 576 cyanobacteria, lichens and mosses) and metabolism rates (net photosynthesis, dark respiration), and results of
 577 GLM analyses for Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence. * indicates the significant effects (p -value < .05).

	Crust	Treatment	Time	Time x Treatment	Crust x Treatment	Time x Crust x Treatment
Cover						
Bare	112.88*	32.37*	14.61*	43.57*	5.81*	6.00*
Cyanobacteria	50.03*	5.67*	6.76*	6.03*	1.33	1.76
Lichen	141.36*	9.88*	0.81	14.41*	3.21*	2.80*
Moss	1.12	0.16	4.34*	0.30	0.58	0.53
Metabolism						
Net photosynthesis	14.45*	7.58*	22.73*	8.42*	2.43*	4.08*
Dark respiration	52.56*	76.26*	46.41*	5.61*	5.59*	5.23*
Chlorophyll <i>a</i> fluorescence	230.057*	186.788*			123.924*	

578

579

580 **Graphic Abstract**

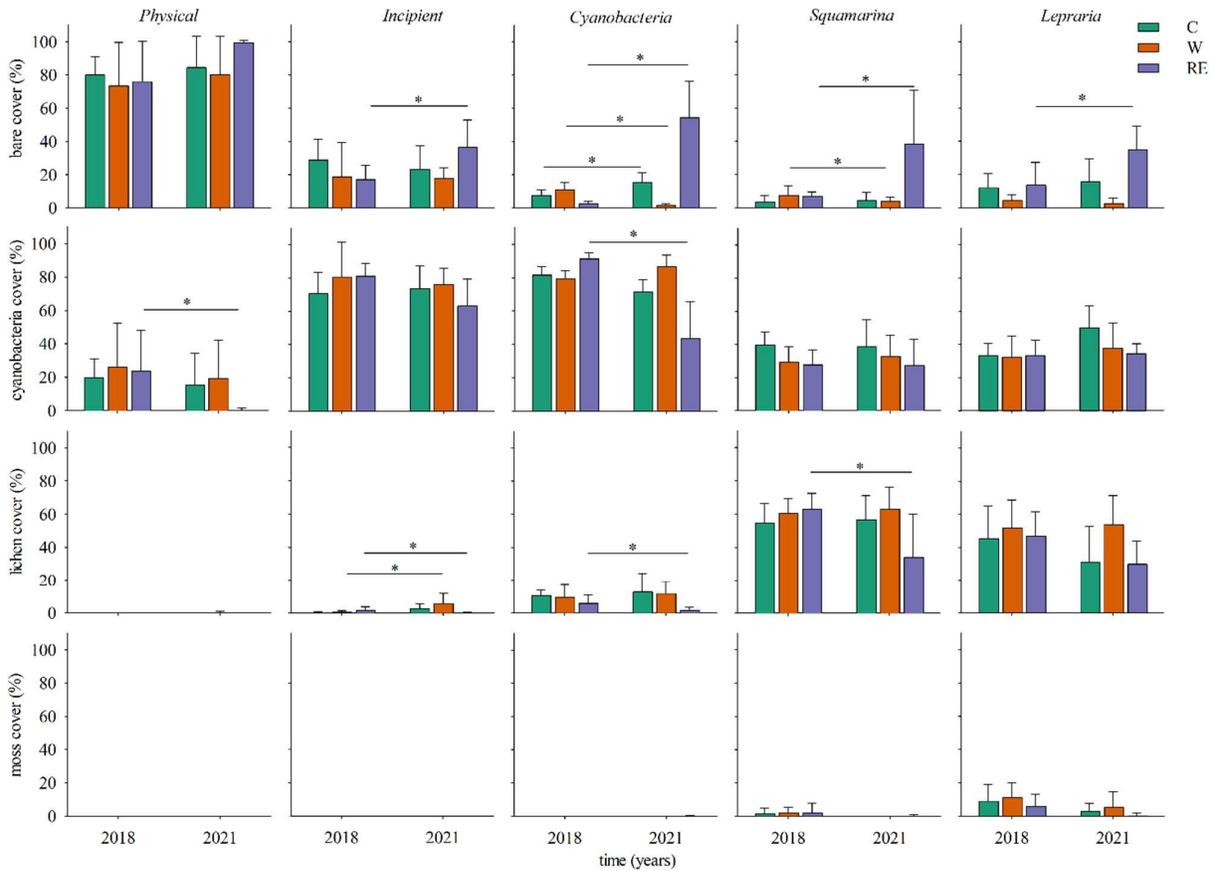


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583 **Figure captions**

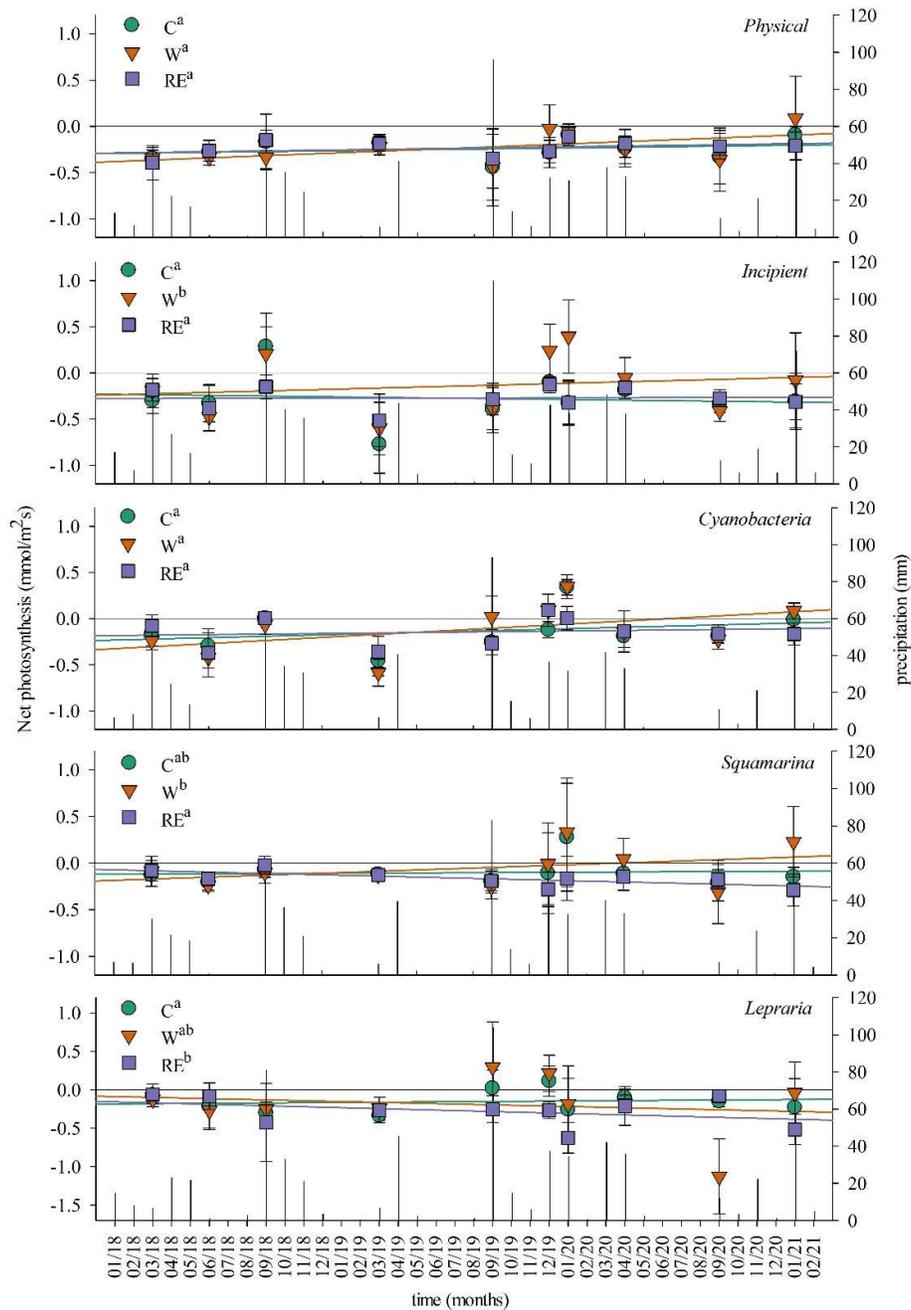
584 **Figure 1.** Cover of bare soil, cyanobacteria, lichens and mosses of each treatment, at the beginning (2018) and
 585 at the end (2021) of the experiment in each of the crust types (Physical, Incipient, Cyanobacteria, Squamarina
 586 and Lepraria). The bars represent the averages, and error bars represent the average \pm 95% confidence level. *
 587 indicates significant differences ($p < .05$) based on the Bonferroni test.



588

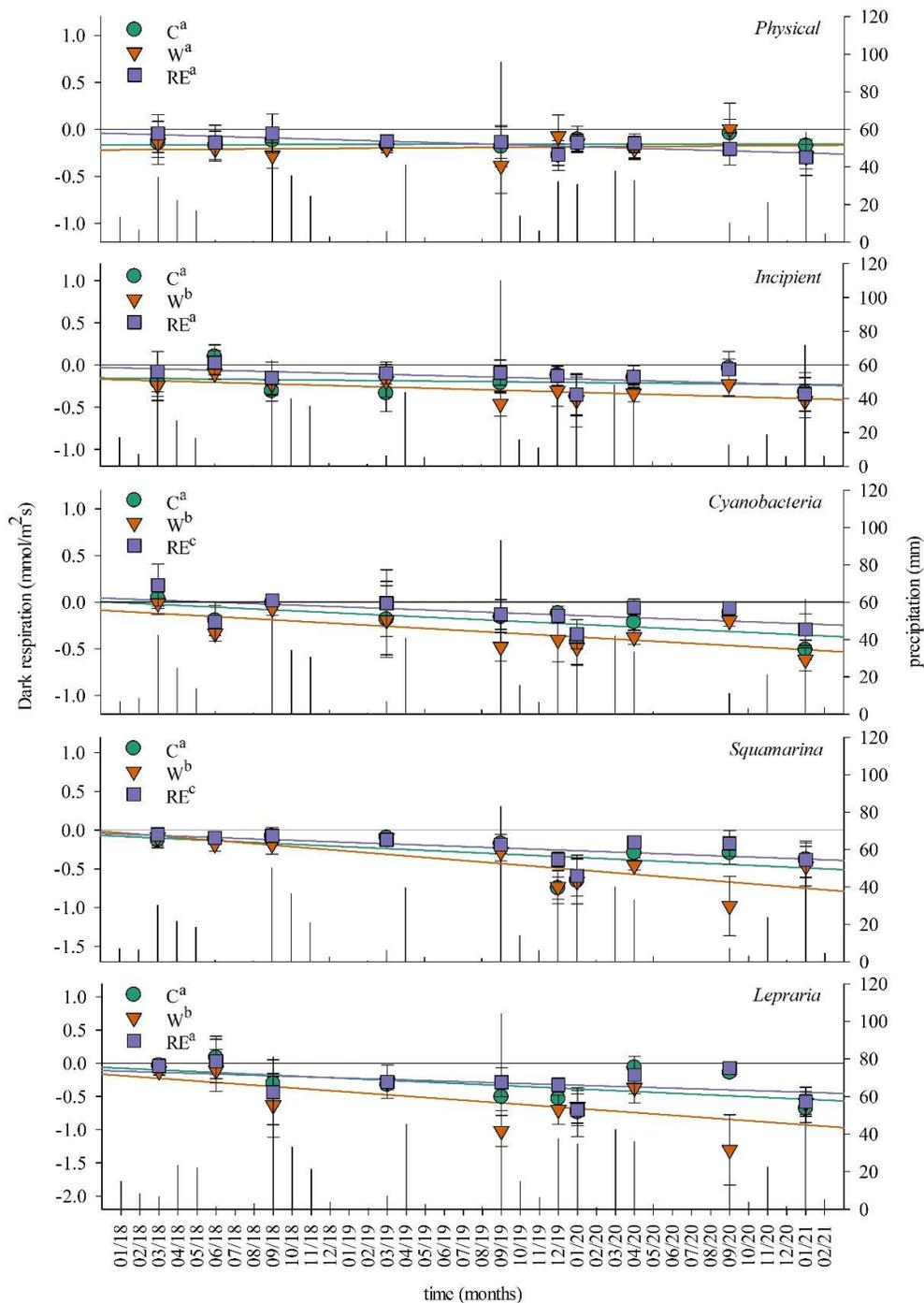
589

590 **Figure 2.** Evolution of net photosynthesis (with regression lines) per treatment and crust type in relation to the
 591 rainfall from the climate station representative of each crust type. Symbols represent the averages, and error
 592 bars represent the average \pm 95% confidence level. In the legend of each graph at the upper left corner, C means
 593 control, W means watering treatment and RE means rain exclusion. The superscript letters in these treatment
 594 symbols indicate whether the differences between treatments are significant (two treatments are different if they
 595 do not share any letters)



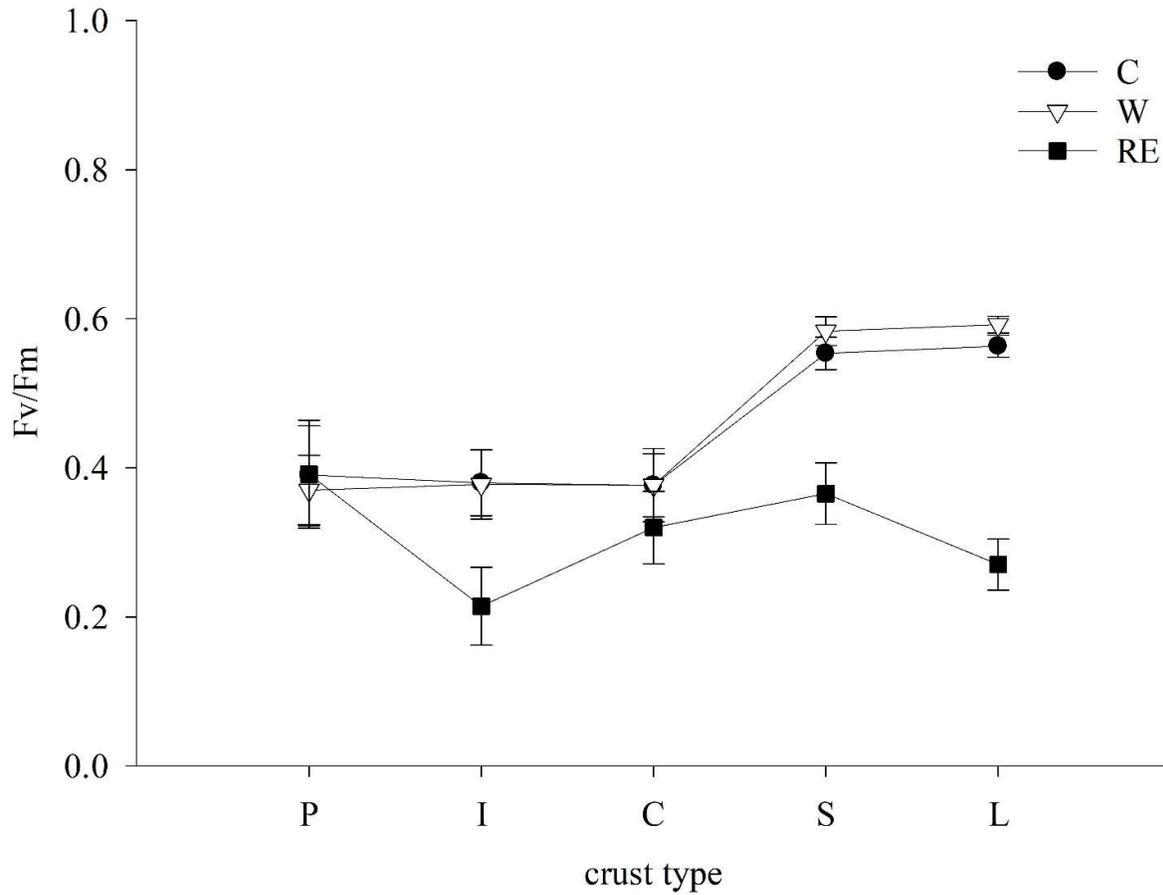
596

597 **Figure 3** Evolution of dark respiration (with regression lines) per treatment and crust type in relation to the
 598 rainfall from the climate station representative of each crust type. Symbols represent the averages, and error
 599 bars represent the average \pm 95% confidence level. In the legend of each graph at the upper left corner, C means
 600 control, W means watering treatment and RE means rain exclusion. The superscript letters in these treatment
 601 symbols indicate whether the differences between treatments are significant (two treatments are different if they
 602 do not share any letters)



603

604 **Figure 4.** Comparison of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence of each treatment in each crust type. Symbols represent the
605 averages, and error bars represent the average \pm 95% confidence level. P = Physical crust; I = Incipient crust; C
606 = Cyanobacteria crust; S = Squamarina crust; L = Lepraria crust. In the legend at the upper right corner, C means
607 control, W means watering treatment and RE means rain exclusion.



608