

Species composition and pedological characteristics of biological soil crusts in a high alpine ecosystem, Hohe Tauern, Austria

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Abstract

Within the Hohe Tauern National Park (Austria), we studied biological soil crusts (BSCs) in the surroundings of the Hochtor and the Großglockner High Alpine Road (2 500–2 600 m). Biological soil crusts (BSCs) consist of cyanobacteria, algae, lichens, and bryophytes, which alter soil factors, including water availability, nutrient content, and susceptibility to erosion.

We detected approximately 45 taxa of Cyanoprokaryota and eukaryotic algae, 51 taxa of lichens, and 38 taxa of bryophytes at our study sites, of these the dark-coloured lichen *Toniniopsis obscura* is dominant. Bryophytes and vascular plants are of minor importance. Compared to uncrusted sites, crust sites exhibit significantly higher contents of organic matter, total nitrogen, and plant-available nutrients. Water storage capacity and aggregate stability are also higher in the crusted soils. Susceptibility to erosion is one fourth lower in crusted soils than in uncrusted soils. Preliminary results also suggest that BSCs are captors for heavy metals as they accumulate higher amounts of atmospheric heavy metals than bare soils.

Profile

Protected area

Hohe Tauern National Park

Mountain range

Alps

Country

Austria

Introduction

Biological soil crusts (BSCs, also referred to as cryptogamic, cryptobiotic, microbiotic, or microphytic crusts) are a complex mosaic of cyanobacteria, algae, micro-fungi, lichens, mosses and liverworts growing on and within the uppermost layers of the soil (Büdel 2002; Büdel 2003; Büdel 2005; Belnap & Lange 2005). BSCs are mainly described for semi-arid and arid ecosystems worldwide (e. g. West 1990; Johansen 1993; Eldridge & Greene 1994; Belnap, Büdel & Lange 2003; Turkey & Adhikary 2005). In these areas, they fulfil a number of important ecological functions, including soil stabilization, atmospheric nitrogen fixation (N_2), nutrient storage and vascular plant establishment (Shields & Durrell 1964; Griffiths 1965; Campell et al. 1989; Danin et al. 1989; Belnap & Gardner 1993; Moore 1998; Belnap et al. 2001; Aranibar et al. 2003; Belnap 2003a; Belnap et al. 2003; Lange 2003; Housman et al. 2006).

The filamentous cyanobacteria form entangled structures that tighten the soil surface and protect it from erosion. Mucilage produced by the cyanobacteria serves as a binding agent, and photosynthesis products enrich the soil with organic matter which improves its structure and biological activity (Lange et al. 1994; Lange et al. 1998). Because many cyanobacteria and cyanobacterial lichens are capable of fixing nitrogen, the soil is enriched with nitrogen, improving growth conditions for plants (Davey & Marchant 1983; Smith et al. 1990; Belnap & Gardner 1993; Belnap & Harper 1995; Harper & Belnap 2001; Belnap 2002; Belnap 2003b; Belnap et al. 2003; Russow et al. 2005).



Hochtor, Großglockner High Alpine Road, Hohe Tauern National Park

In contrast to the numerous studies from arid lands, knowledge about BSCs in alpine ecosystems is patchy. With the exception of Pérez (1997) who investigated the microbiotic crusts in the high equatorial Andes, and Gold et al. (2001) who analysed the functional influences of cryptobiotic crusts in an alpine tundra basin of the Olympic Mountains (Washington, USA), only Türk & Gärtner (2003) give an overview of the organism diversity in BSCs of the Alps and Huber K. et al. (2007) deal with alpine soil crusts, carrying out their studies in high alpine sites of the Großglockner area (Hohe Tauern, Austria). In continuation of this investigation, we extended our research program in the last two years, including new sites, with particular emphasis on the following topics: 1) species composition, 2) comparison of crust properties with those of

uncrusted sites, 3) successional stages of BSCs, and 4) possible consequences of external disturbances for biological crusts.

Material and methods

Study sites

The study was conducted at sites west and east of the Hohtor, close to the Großglockner High Alpine Road, located at 47°05'00" N and 12°50'34" E (Figure 1). The elevation of the study sites ranges from 2500 to 2600 m, the annual precipitation averages 2000 mm, and the mean air temperature ranges from -10°C to -8°C in January and from 2°C to 4°C in July. 70–80% of the precipitation falls as snow and snow cover lasts 270 to 300 days (Auer et al. 2002). Due to strong wind effects, fine-earth translocation over long distance is typical (Gruber 1980). Five transects of 5 to 20 m length were set, both on siliceous sites within the Brennkogel formation (B1 and B2) and on calcareous sites within the Seidlwinkl Triassic formation (Plattenkar, Schareck). Each transect includes a transition zone from crusted to non-crusted sites.

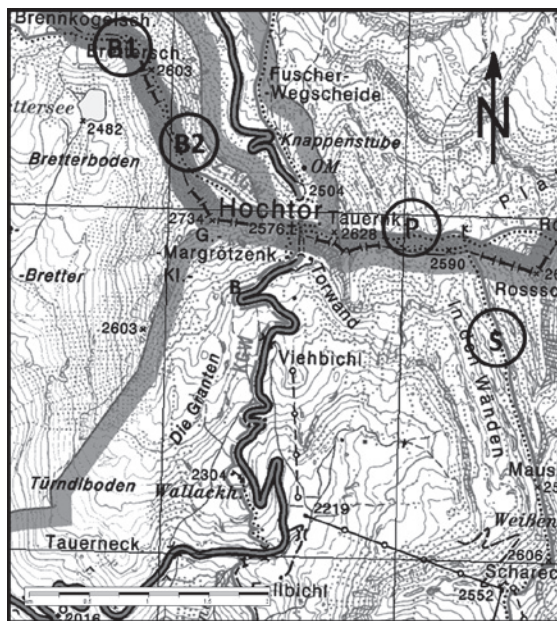


Figure 1 – Location of the sites from where the samples were taken (B1, B2 = Brennkogel, P = Plattenkar, S = Schareck). Source: Austrian map 1:50,000, © BEV 2010, reproduction granted by the BEV – Bundesamt für Eich- und Vermessungswesen in Wien, T2010/64080

Data collection and analysis

We rated composition and abundance of lichens, bryophytes and vascular plants along each transect using a frequency frame of 10 cm x 20 cm. Soil types were described on spade-dug pits and classified according to the World Reference Base for Soil Resources (WRB 2006). We collected soil samples at 1 m to 5 m intervals, both from upper soil layer (0–2 cm) where soil is mostly affected by biological crusts and from uncrusted soil sites, covering a depth range of up to 10 cm. In

addition, samples were also taken beneath crust layer to evaluate the vertical distribution of heavy metals. For this investigation, we selected an area of about 1 ha, including different distances from the Großglockner High Alpine Road, and different slope directions. At each sampling point, five replicate soil samples were taken and mixed. We used metal cylinders (Ø 5 cm, length 1 cm) to obtain the samples for microbiological analyses at the sites of the soil sample plots. Cultivation and determination of Cyanoprokaryota and eukaryotic soil algae was carried out at the Botanical Institute of the University of Innsbruck (Bischof & Bold 1963; Gärtner 1996). The samples for physicochemical analyses were air-dried and sieved (< 2 mm) and the samples for heavy metal analyses were oven-dried (105°C) and ground in a ball mill. In our study, we applied ÖNORM and ISO standards on soils (see Blum et al. 1996):

- soil pH: electrometric in 0,01 M CaCl₂ dilution;
- particle-size distribution (soil texture) by the pipette method and sieving;
- organic matter content by dry combustion of carbon
- “total” nitrogen by the Kjeldahl method;
- plant-available phosphate and potassium by the calcium-acetate-lactate (CAL) method;
- heavy metals: acid digestion (HNO₃: HCl = 3:1) using the microwave technique; determination of Cu, Zn and Pb by flame AAS, determination of Cd by graphite furnace AAS;
- water storage capacity: gravimetric after soil saturation with water and drying at 105°C;
- aggregate stability: water drop experiment according to McCalla (1944), modified by Griffiths (1965). Water drops of a defined size and with a defined frequency were dropped upon dried soil particles of 1 mm size from a defined height. The proportion of soil particles washed through a 1 mm sieve was rated by a given number of drops;
- soil erodibility was estimated according to the empirical soil loss model (modified) by Wischmeier & Smith (1978). The erodibility factor (K) is based on different laboratory analyses including particle size analysis and organic matter content as well as field assessment of soil structure and permeability.

Taxon identification and nomenclature followed Ettl & Gärtner (1995) for Cyanoprokaryota and eukaryotic algae, Frey et al. (1995) for mosses and liverworts and Poelt (1969), Poelt & Vězda (1977; 1981), Wirth (1995) and Hafellner & Türk (2001) for lichens. Vascular plant nomenclature followed that in Fischer et al. (2008). The Mann-Whitney U-test was used to compare soil properties in crusted and uncrusted soils using SPSS programs for Windows, version 16.

Results and discussion

Species composition

Approximately 45 taxa of Cyanoprokaryota and eukaryotic algae were recorded in samples within transects and adjacent sites (Table 1). Among them, green algae (Chlorophyta) are the biggest group with 35 taxa; yellow-green algae (Xanthophyta, Eustig-

matophyta) exhibit 7 taxa, and blue-green algae (Cyanoprokaryota) are present with 3 taxa. Within the Cyanoprokaryota, the heterocystous genera *Nostoc* and *Anabaena* are common. They are capable of nitrogen fixation and they also produce extracellular polysaccharides, which enables them to aggregate soil particles. The yellow-green algae *Botrydiopsis (constricta)* and *Eustigmatos (vischeri)* have coccoid forms whereas

Table 1 – Species composition in soil crusts from different sites of the Großglockner area (taxa arranged alphabetically)

Cyanoprokaryota and eukaryotic algae	Lichens	Bryophytes
<i>Anabaena spec.</i>	<i>Agonimia tristicula</i>	<i>Anthelia juratzkana</i>
<i>Botrydiopsis spec. (cf. constricta)</i>	<i>Allocetraria madreporiformis</i>	<i>Blepharostoma trichophyllum</i>
<i>Botrydiopsis spec.</i>	<i>Arthrorhaphis alpina</i>	<i>Blindia cespiticia</i>
<i>Bracteacoccus engadinensis</i>	<i>Baeomyces placophyllus</i>	<i>Brachythecium glaciale</i>
<i>Bumilleriopsis spec.</i>	<i>Buellia elegans</i>	<i>Brachythecium velutinum</i>
<i>Clamidocapsa lobata</i>	<i>Buellia papillata</i>	<i>Bryum argenteum</i>
<i>Chlorella ellipsoidea</i>	<i>Caloplaca bryochryson</i>	<i>Bryum imbricatum</i>
<i>Chlorella vulgaris (var. vulgaris)</i>	<i>Caloplaca cerina var. muscorum</i>	<i>Bryum pallescens</i>
<i>Chlorella vulgaris (var. autotrophica)</i>	<i>Caloplaca stillicidiorum</i>	<i>Bryum spec.</i>
<i>Chlorella vulgaris (var. viridis)</i>	<i>Catapyrenium aureum</i>	<i>Campyllum chrysophyllum</i>
<i>Chlorococcum spec.</i>	<i>Cetraria islandica</i>	<i>Campyllum spec.</i>
<i>Chlorotetraedron polymorphum</i>	<i>Cetraria muricata</i>	<i>Cirriphyllum cirrhosum</i>
<i>Choricystis (minor)</i>	<i>Cladonia macroceras</i>	<i>Conocephalum conicum</i>
<i>Clamidocapsa lobata</i>	<i>Cladonia pyxidata</i>	<i>Didymodon latifolium</i>
<i>Choricystis (minor)</i>	<i>Cladonia symphylicarpa</i>	<i>Distichium capillaceum</i>
<i>Chlorosarcinopsis spec.</i>	<i>Collema tenax</i>	<i>Distichium inclinatum</i>
<i>Chlorotetraedron polymorphum</i>	<i>Dacampia hookeri</i>	<i>Ditrichum heteromallum</i>
<i>Coccomyxa confluens agg.</i>	<i>Dibaeis baeomyces</i>	<i>Ditrichum spec.</i>
<i>Coelastrella (aeroterrestica)</i>	<i>Fulgensia bracteata subsp. deformis</i>	<i>Drepanocladus uncinatus</i>
<i>Coelastrella spec.</i>	<i>Gyalecta foveolaris</i>	<i>Encalypta cf. alpina</i>
<i>Cylindrocystis (brebissonii)</i>	<i>Lecanora epibryon</i>	<i>Hypnum bambergeri</i>
<i>Eustigmatos (vischeri)</i>	<i>Lecanora hagenii var. fallax</i>	<i>Hypnum revolutum</i>
<i>Geminella spec.</i>	<i>Lecidella wulfenii</i>	<i>Leiocholea spec.</i>
<i>Gloeocystis papuana</i>	<i>Megaspora verrucosa</i>	<i>Lophozia spec.</i>
<i>Klebsormidium (dissectum)</i>	<i>Micarea assimilata</i>	<i>Lophozia sudetica</i>
<i>Klebsormidium (flaccidum)</i>	<i>Myxobilimbia lobulata</i>	<i>Meesia uliginosa</i>
<i>Leptosira (errumpens)</i>	<i>Myxobilimbia microcarpa</i>	<i>Pohlia spec.</i>
<i>Lobosphaeropsis spec.</i>	<i>Parmelia saxatilis</i>	<i>Polytrichum alpinum</i>
<i>Monodus cf. coccomyxa</i>	<i>Peltigera rufescens</i>	<i>Polytrichum norvegicum</i>
<i>Monoraphidium spec.</i>	<i>Pertusaria glomerata</i>	<i>Pottiaceae</i>
<i>Muriella terrestris</i>	<i>Phaerorrhiza nimbose</i>	<i>Racomitrium spec.</i>
<i>Nostoc (punctiforme)</i>	<i>Physconia muscigena</i>	<i>Sanionia uncinata</i>
<i>Nostoc sporangieforme</i>	<i>Placidium spec.</i>	<i>Scapania cuspiduligera</i>
<i>Phormidium spec.</i>	<i>Polyblastia sendtneri</i>	<i>Scapania helvetica</i>
<i>Podohedra spec. (or Keratococcus spec.)</i>	<i>Polyblastia tatrana</i>	<i>Tortula norvegica</i>
<i>Pseudoanabaena spec.</i>	<i>Protoblastenia terricola</i>	<i>Tortella tortuosa</i>
<i>Pseudoschzomeris spec.</i>	<i>Protopannaria pezizoides</i>	<i>Tortula ruralis</i>
<i>Radiosphaera spec.</i>	<i>Psora decipiens</i>	<i>Tayloria froelichiana</i>
<i>Scotiellopsis oocystiformis</i>	<i>Rinodina roscida</i>	
<i>Stichococcus bacillaris</i>	<i>Squamaria gypsacea</i>	
<i>Stichococcus minutus</i>	<i>Solorina bispora</i>	
<i>Stichococcus spec.</i>	<i>Solorina octospora</i>	
<i>Xanthonema (debile)</i>	<i>Solorina saccata</i>	
<i>Xanthonema (hormioides)</i>	<i>Solorina spec.</i>	
<i>Xanthonema (montanum)</i>	<i>Thelopsis melathelia</i>	
	<i>Toninia diffracta</i>	
	<i>Toniniopsis obscura</i>	
	<i>Variacellaria rhodocarpa</i>	
	<i>Vulpicida tubulosus</i>	

the *Xanthonema* species are filamentous. Filamentous forms are suitable for binding mineral particles together and thus facilitate soil aggregation.

Within green algae, the species *Cylindrocystis (brebissonii)* and different members of the *Chlorella* species are common. The species *Coelastrella aeroterrestica* is characterized by a fine network of cell wall ribs visible only in the scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Stiffeners on the cell wall can be interpreted as an adaptation to the severe alpine climate (Tschaikner et al. 2008). Most of the observed taxa are distributed across the world but with some concentration in cold (arctic) regions. Among lichens, gelatinous, crustose and small foliose species take up most of the crust surface. Species are closely attached to the substrate, with some of them stabilizing the upper-most soil layer with rhizohyphae and rhizinae. We encountered approximately 51 taxa, including species such as *Buellia elegans*, *Catapyrenium cinereum*, *Cladonia macroceras*, *Cladonia symphylicarpa*, *Fulgensia bracteata subsp. deformis*, *Myxobilimbia lobulata*, *Parmelia saxatilis*, *Psora decipiens*, *Solorina bispora* and *Toniniopsis obscura*. Since the photobiont of *Collema tenax* is the cyanobacterium genus *Nostoc*, the lichen is capable of nitrogen fixation.

Compared to algae and lichens, bryophytes (including mosses and liverworts) contribute little to biomass and cover degree within alpine soil crusts. This fact might be closely linked to the competition pressure of lichens (primarily through the species *Toniniopsis obscura*), which are better adapted to short dry periods than bryophytes. However, bryophytes can establish only on sites where the crust layer is cracked, but they are often poorly developed (small scrubby forms) and thus difficult to identify. Due to the harsh climate, the above-ground biomass of bryophytes is low, but the subterranean moss protonemata and rhizoids, which are interspersed throughout the soil crust matrix, are of major importance and are likely to contribute to soil stability.

We recorded approximately 38 taxa, among them 7 liverworts, in the study area. Most of them are ubiquitous and exhibit a wide altitudinal range (colline to alpine). Common members within BSCs are the *Bryum* species, *Distichum capillaceum* and *Meesia uliginosa*. The ecotype *Meesia uliginosa var.* was recorded in habitats of low humus content and up to 3000 m elevation (Grims 1999). Among liverworts, the species *Lophozia sudetica* prefers stony and peaty substrates of acidic and wet habitats.

In contrast to the lichen-dominated soil crusts occurring on fine gravelly slopes, patches with long snow cover are rich in bryophytes such as *Anthelia juratzkana* and *Polytrichum sexangulare*. The species *Anthelia juratzkana* is associated with the cyanobacterium *Gloeocapsa montana*. Its gelatinous sheaths are responsible for the waxy, whitish appearance. The liverwort is well adapted to low temperatures and wet habitat conditions and may survive even if the snow cover lasts 8 to 10 months (Lösch et al. 1983; Riedl 1977).

Vascular plants are not a direct part of cryptogamic crusts. They mostly start growing from cracks and gaps in crusts and spread across the crust surface with their runners forming a wide net over the years. In the study area, only few species colonize bare scree slopes, mostly they are cushion plants like *Saxifraga oppositifolia* (also develops runners), *Silene acaulis s. l.* and *Minuartia sedoides*; also present are the creeper *Salix serpillifolia* and the tuft grass *Oreochloa disticha*. These plants are well adapted to permanent slope movement, wind force and drought. On sites where the snow lies longer, phanerogames are normally rare with the exception of *Salix herbacea*, *Gentianella nana*, *Ranunculus alpestris*, *Sagina saginoides*, *Saxifraga androsacea* (relatively abundant) and *Soldanella pusilla*. The alpine sward associations such as the Caricetum curvulae (or Curvuletum) on acidic sites, the Seslerio-Semperviretum on calcareous sites and the Elynetum on wind edges, need deeper and better consolidated soils. In these sward communities, BSCs are limited to gaps between the plants.

Soil characteristics and successional stages

Soil types on cellular dolomite, dolomite, and chalk marble occurring east of the Hochtör include pale Skeletic Regosols on gravelly scree slopes, and Rendzic Regosols on fine weathered carbonatic (gypsiferous) material. The Skeletic Regosols consist of a thin layer of Cyanoprokaryota that live on or just below the soil surface. Cyanoprokaryota and eukaryotic algae belong to the first colonizers and together with aeolian deposits, including mineral and organic components (see Gruber 1980; Küfmann 2009), they contribute to a first pedogenesis. The Rendzic Regosol has a 1 cm to 3 cm thick A-horizon and is covered with a 0.2 cm to 1 cm thick crust layer. The crust surface sometimes has a polygonal structure and an uplifted (rolling) surface as a result of frost. Crust biomass and water absorbance capacity are high in this crust type because algae, bryophytes and lichens absorb a lot of water (Brotherson & Rushford 1983; Eldridge 2003; Huber K. et al. 2007). Once the soil surface is covered by lichens and bryophytes, the underlying soil is protected from raindrop impact and resists detachment of particles during surface flow events (Belnap & Lange 2005; Lazaro et al. 2008). Lichens and bryophytes also have anchoring structures (rhizinae, and rhizohyphae) that penetrate down into the soil as deep as 15 mm.

On mica schists, green schists, phyllites and gneiss occurring west of the Hochtör, acid Cambisols with depths of 15 cm to 25 cm are common. Because of permanent slope movement (gelifluctuation), the whole solum is interspersed with stones of different sizes. When soils are young and relatively unweathered, only a thin layer of Cyanoprokaryota occurs whereas on better consolidated soils a thicker, lichen-dominated rolling crust is typical. The pH value ranges from 6.4 to 7.7 on limestone sites and from 4.5 to 6.2 on siliceous sites. The soil texture corresponds to loamy

Table 2 – Average values of soil properties in crusts and adjacent bare soils in the limestone area. All values indicate means and standard deviation (\pm S.D.). Significance levels shown are for Mann-Whitney U-test comparison between crust and bare soil (** $p < 0,01$, * $p < 0,05$)

	pH CaCl ₂	clay + fine silt %	humus content %	Kjeldahl-N %	K mg/100g	P mg/100g	water storage capacity ml/cm ³	aggregate stability %	soil erodibility K-factor
crust (n = 15)	7,21 $\pm 0,37$	10,85* $\pm 1,76$	13,32** $\pm 4,73$	0,17** $\pm 0,12$	22,04** $\pm 2,69$	3,18** $\pm 0,96$	0,567 $\pm 0,18$	85,28** $\pm 14,58$	1,48* $\pm 0,17$
bare soil (n = 14)	7,50 $\pm 0,40$	8,35 $\pm 1,67$	1,22 $\pm 0,71$	0,09 $\pm 0,11$	4,67 $\pm 2,84$	0,49 $\pm 0,27$	0,452 $\pm 0,14$	36,16 $\pm 22,87$	1,95 $\pm 0,34$

Table 3 – Averages values of heavy metals in crust and underlying soil (preliminary results). All values (in mg / kg DM) indicate means and standard deviation (\pm S.D.). Significance levels shown are for Mann-Whitney U-test comparison between crust and underlying soil (** $p < 0,01$)

	Cd	Cu	Ni	Pb	Zn
crust (n = 21)	0,41 $\pm 0,10$ **	11,49 $\pm 5,88$	22,38 $\pm 2,82$	107,77 $\pm 53,85$ **	62,56 $\pm 21,45$ **
underlying soil (n = 23)	0,13 $\pm 0,08$	15,07 $\pm 10,50$	25,38 $\pm 3,14$	45,57 $\pm 20,54$	36,24 $\pm 14,2$

sand without significant differences between sites. Humus content (top soil) is between 9.9% and 18.7% in acid soils, and between 7.9% and 21.3% in calcareous soils. This high amount of humus content is typical for Umbric Leptosols or “Alpine Humus Soils” (see Posch 1977). In contrast, total nitrogen content is rather low in the topsoil, and ranges from 0.12% to 0.26% in calcareous soils, and from 0.13% to 0.33% in siliceous soils. This could be caused by low annual temperature which hampers cyanobacterial activity and N-fixation (Horne 1972; Davey & Marchant 1983; Haselwandter 1983; Gold et al. 2001; Huber E. et al. 2007). Denitrification and nitrate eluviations are also potential losses (Belnap 2002; Belnap 2003b). On the other hand, nitrogenous precipitation, melt water and also mineral dust are often additional sources of soluble N compounds in alpine soils. According to Psenner & Nickus (1986) and Graber et al. (1996), the impact of atmo-genic N in the Central Alps is between 0.1 and 1.4 g N / m² per year, maybe supplemented by anthropogenic ones. In this respect, we have to calculate the traffic related NO_x emissions of the Großglockner High Alpine Road, with 350000 vehicles per season one of the most frequented mountain roads of the Alps. Unfortunately, no data is available on air-borne nitrogen pollutants for the Hoctor site so far.

In the limestone area, the crust layer exhibits higher contents of clay and fine silt, organic matter and total nitrogen. Water storage capacity and aggregate stability are also higher in the crusted soils. However, susceptibility to erosion in crusted soils is one fourth lower than in uncrusted soils (Table 2). Total nitrogen level in crusted soils averages about twice that of uncrusted soils. Plant availability of phosphate is 6 times higher and that of potassium is 5 times higher than in uncrusted soils. The differences between crusts and non-crusty surfaces are significant, with the exception of the pH and the water storage capacity.

According to our preliminary studies, BSCs also act as captors for atmo-genic heavy metals. This is especially true for lead: its highest value reaches 239 mg/kg of dry matter. While lead, cadmium and

zinc have higher concentrations in crusts, those of copper and nickel are higher in the subsoil (Table 3). The extra high amount of lead may be due to long distance input or is traffic-related and can be considered as residual waste from the time when petrol was leaded. In any case, the slope direction rather than the distance from the road seems to be crucial for the distribution of lead. In accordance with the main wind direction, the NW-facing slopes are more contaminated with lead than the slopes of other directions. Further research on this topic is already in progress.

Conclusions

The research on alpine soil crusts has illustrated the importance of BSCs for soil stabilization, nitrogen fixation, nutrient availability and vascular plant establishment even in alpine environments. Airborne silt and clay particles as well as humus particles can be trapped by sticky cyanobacterial sheaths, and by surface roughness created by biological crusts. This results in a higher amount of silt, clay and humus on the soil surface, improving fertility and water absorbency of the soil. Rolling crusts also affect vascular plants as they retain seeds, which mainly germinate in crust interspaces. According to our observations, crusts do not inhibit shoot spread and root penetration after seedling germination. It is expected that an increase in biomass and cover of all these crust organisms yields valuable benefits for alpine ecosystems. In particular, biological soil crusts should be considered a key factor in soil nitrogen turnover, able to support the nitrogen needs of bryophytes and vascular plants, but the regulating mechanisms have not really been understood so far (see Dickson 2000; Breen & Lévesque 2008). Therefore, our object for the future will be to clear up open questions about nitrogen turnover and to corroborate hypothetical approaches by our own investigations.

Management implications

However, BSCs are highly vulnerable to disturbances. Trampling by hikers and livestock (sheep and goats) may destroy the quite fragile crust layer. Once the connections between crust aggregates have been broken, the crust becomes liable to wind and water erosion that bares the subsoil. Once the soil is removed by erosion, the ecosystem has lost its basis for plant growth (cf. Brotherson et al. 1983; Beymer & Klopatek 1992; Belnap 1995; Belnap 1996; Belnap & Gillete 1996; Eldridge 1998; Evans & Belnap 1999; Eldridge & Leys 2003). Even at our sites, near paths and on wind-exposed crests, we repeatedly noticed damages on the crust layer caused by mechanical forces and/or climatic constraints. How long recovery of crust cover and species richness may take and how the succession of organisms proceeds would be another research topic for the future. The Hohe Tauern National Park with its high protection status is in an excellent position to promote such activities to gain insight on natural processes through long-term observation. Furthermore, based on our preliminary studies, the management of the Hohe Tauern National Park should make visitors aware of the ecological significance of BSCs as well as their vulnerability to outside disturbances and what could happen once BSCs have been destroyed.

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