

The bacterial communities of surface soils from desert sites in the eastern Utah (USA) portion of the Colorado Plateau

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- 1 The bacterial communities of surface soils from desert sites in the eastern Utah
- 2 (USA) portion of the Colorado Plateau
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- 14 desert
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16 Abstract

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Desert-like areas located in the eastern portion of the state of Utah (USA) have geographic features that can resemble the surface of the planet Mars, characterized by red-colored hills, soils and sandstones. We examined the bacterial diversity of surface soil samples from several sites from the Colorado Plateau Desert in eastern Utah using pyrosequencing of PCR amplified bacterial 16S rRNA genes from total extracted soil DNA. The sample sites cover the Great Basin, Goblin Valley State Park and nearby regions on the Colorado Plateau. We also examined several physicochemical parameters of the soil samples to investigate any possible correlations between bacterial community structure and environmental drivers. The predominant bacterial phyla present in the samples were found to belong to members the Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Gemmatimonadetes. The most abundant genera in our samples were found to belong to the Cesiribacter, Lysobacter, Adhaeribacter, Microvirga and Pontibacter genera. We found that the relative abundance of Proteobacteria and Gemmatimonadetes were significantly correlated with soil pH and a low concentration of organic matter, suggesting that, in these relatively high-altitude desert soils, these two parameters may be of primary importance to influence bacterial community composition.

35 Key Words: High Altitude Desert, Bacteria, Biodiversity, 16S rDNA, Pyrosequencing

Introduction

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Deserts are defined as regions of land that have ≤25 cm of annual precipitation, and where a concomitant reduced biodiversity of plants and animals, compared to that found in more temperate zones, is generally observed. Arid lands represent the largest terrestrial biome (Pointing and Belnap 2012). In these environments, stresses such as drought, large daily temperature fluctuations and relatively high UV radiation exposure are believed to limit biodiversity (Ward 2009). Research concerning desert soil microbial populations and their potential wind dispersion are being increasingly pursued to estimate this microbial biodiversity that may, in fact, play an important role in desert reclamation, soil stability, nutrient cycles and overall environmental health (An et al. 2013; 2015). Microbial community composition and function in desert biomes have been shown to be more diverse than previously assumed and remarkably different from other biomes (Fierer et al. 2012; Leung et al. 2020). However, this biodiversity of microbial communities, and their functional structure, in deserts are still not well understood, and many unanswered questions remain regarding their biology, physiology and ecology (Pointing and Belnap 2012). With the development of high-throughput DNA sequence and analysis technologies, more knowledge is able to be accumulated to fully understand the composition and functioning of desert microbial communities (van Belkum et al. 2001).

Amplification and analysis of bacterial (and archaeal) 16S rRNA genes have been widely used as a culture-independent method to document the evolutionary history and taxonomic assignment of individual micro-organisms, as well as to characterize the composition of microbial communities (Head et al. 1998). More recently, meta-barcode methods, using amplicon-based PCR-targeted sequencing of selected hypervariable regions of the 16S rRNA gene, have become the method of choice to determine the composition of microbial populations (Bruno et al. 2015). There exist

several relatively small deserts on the Colorado Plateau (USA), which stretch from southeastern California to western Texas, and from Nevada and Utah to the northern Mexican states of Sonora, Chihuahua, and Coahuila and also include much of the peninsula of Baja California in western North America (Wickens 1998). The boundary between what are considered relatively cold and warm deserts lies across southern Nevada and Utah. The Great Basin Desert in Utah has geographic features that resemble the surface of the planet Mars, and is frequently used for geology and astrobiology studies (Chan et al. 2011). These features include extensive wind erosion, moisture deficits, the frequent absence of vegetation, and high daytime UV radiation exposure, among others (Makhalanyane et al. 2015; Leung et al. 2020). Also, the iron oxide prevalent on the surface of the Mars is similar to that found in the Great Basin Desert in Utah, characterized by red-colored hills, soils and sandstones. The Mars Society (http://www.marssociety.org) set up the Mars Desert Research Station (MDRS) in the area to act as a Mars analog for these reasons.

Bacteria constitute the largest microbial group in soils, and play an important role in maintaining soil processes and thus the functioning and resilience of terrestrial ecosystems (Epp et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2016). Here, we examined the bacterial biodiversity found on several surface soil samples from deserts on the Colorado Plateau. The samples were collected in Goblin Valley (GV), Little Wild Horse Canyon (LWH) located just south of Goblin Valley, to the south of Utah State Road 24 (SR) and Temple Junction Road (TJR) near Goblin Valley State Park, and 200 km southwest of the park near Muddy Creek Road (MCR).

Goblin Valley is a State Park in the USA, and lies in the southeastern portion of the eastern edge of the San Rafael Swell, which itself is part of the Colorado Plateau physiographic region. The park is characterized by the presence of hoodoo rocks, referred to as "goblins". These rock sculptures result from the weathering of Entrada

Sandstone which was deposited in the Jurassic Period around 170 million years ago, and consists of debris eroded from former highlands and redeposited as alternating layers of sandstone, siltstone and shale (Milligan 1999). The distinct shape of these rocks comes from an erosion-resistant layer of hard rock nestled atop more quickly eroded softer sandstone. The average daytime temperature in summer is between 32°C and 41°C, and in winter, daytime temperatures are above freezing most days but can drop to as low as −12°C at night, with occasional snow. The average annual precipitation is < 20cm (http://www.usgs.gov/media/images/map-annual-average-precipitation-us-1981-20 10). During the summer, monsoons can arrive in some regions between July and mid-September, and can comprise ≥ 50% of the annual precipitation.

The richness and structure of microbial populations in soils can be affected by many different environmental factors. Studies of microbial biogeography using metagenomics has provided insights into the physiology, environmental tolerances, and ecological strategies of certain microbial taxa, particularly those difficult to culture taxa that can frequently dominate in natural environments (Lauber et al. 2009). Hot (or cold) desert soil environments can be regarded as novel ecosystems for fundamental research on ecological and evolutionary processes, as their harsh and oligotrophic environment has nonetheless allowed a rich bacterial biodiversity to exist (Cary et al. 2010). In this study, we examined the bacterial biodiversity and community structures of surface soil from the Colorado Plateau (in the state of Utah, USA) using pyrosequencing of 16S rRNA gene PCR amplicons. We also searched for correlations between selected environmental parameters and bacterial biodiversity in these desert soils, and found that physicochemical factors such as low pH and a relatively low concentration of organic material appears to play an important role in the prevalence of specific bacterial groups in these relatively high-altitude desert soils.

Materials and Methods

Sampling. To examine the bacterial biodiversity of surface soils from the Colorado Plateau in Utah (USA), we analyzed 18 samples of surface soil (sand and soft rock particles) from 4 different regions (Fig. 1): 1) Dry river bed in Little Wild Horse Canyon (LWH), 2) Goblin Valley State Park (GVA, GVB), 3) near State Road 24 (SRA)/I70 Highway and 4) near Muddy Creek Road (MCR). All samples were taken at least 91 meters (100 yards) apart. The sampling site GPS coordinates and descriptions are shown in Table 1. The samples were collected by scooping surface (top 5 cm) sand into 50 ml sterile polyethylene conical centrifuge tubes at the different locations, during the month of September (2011). After collection, the samples were treated as previously described (An et al. 2013). The analyses of selected physicochemical parameters of the soil samples was performed, using standard methods, by the Laboratoire d'Analyses de Sols (INRA Arras, France), as previously described (An et al. 2013).

Sample Preparation. Total DNA was extracted from each sample using the protocol described in An et al. (2013). Then, aliquots of extracted DNA were adjusted to a final DNA concentration of 15 ng/ μ l in 1/10 TE buffer (1 mM Tris pH 8; 0.1 mM EDTA) using a NanoVue spectrophotometer (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, Buckinghamshire, UK), and the concentration verified by ethidium bromide fluorescence after electrophoresis through a 1% agarose gel in TAE buffer (2 mM Tris-acetate pH 8; 5 mM Na-EDTA). PCR reactions were performed in 25 μ l reaction volumes. Each reaction contained one of two different thermostable DNA polymerases and their corresponding reaction buffers, 200 μ M of each dNTP, 0.5 μ M of each primer and 1 to 10 ng of extracted DNA. The 16S rRNA genes were amplified using the universal bacterial primers for pyrosequencing covering hypervariable

regions V1-V3: primer 27F (A adaptor + GAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG) and primer 518R (B adaptor + Mid + WTTACCGCGGCTGCTGG) (Lee et al. 2010), where A and B represent the adaptors using the 454 Roche FLX Titanium pyrosequencing reaction platform. The Mid sequences are eight nucleotide tags designed for sample identification barcoding according to the 454 pyrosequencing protocol, which allowed long read lengths and allowed the detection of the bacterial biodiversity present in our samples down to the genus level. PCR amplification conditions were adapted for the use of two different thermostable DNA polymerases: A) Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (Finnzymes, Finland): 98°C for 2 min, followed by 28 cycles of 98°C for 30 secs, 54°C for 20 secs and 72°C for 15 secs, and a final elongation step at 72°C for 5 min; B) Pfu DNA Polymerase (Fermentas, Canada): 95°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95°C for 30 secs, 48°C for 30 secs and 72°C for 1 min, and a final elongation step at 72°C for 5 min. Each DNA sample was subjected to 3-5 different PCR reactions per DNA polymerase to minimize PCR amplification bias. The PCR products were pooled and subjected to electrophoresis through a 1% agarose gel in TAE buffer. After electrophoresis and visualization of the PCR products by ethidium bromide staining and long wave UV light illumination, NucleoSpin Extract II kits (Macherey-Nagel, Germany) were used to purify the 16S rDNA amplicons. Then, 40 ng of PCR products from each sample were mixed for pyrosequencing, which was performed using a 454 Roche FLX Titanium Pyrosequencer (Microsynth AG, Switzerland).

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DNA Sequence Data Processing. The raw DNA sequences were first assigned to each sample via their Mid tag using MOTHUR version 1.33 (Schloss et al. 2009), and reads were removed if at least one of the following criteria was found: (i) length <200 nt or >600 nt, (ii) one mismatch to the barcode sequences or ≥1 mismatch to the primer, and (iii) the presence of homopolymers of >8 bp in length. Adaptor sequences were removed from the sequences using the "Cutadapt" tool version 1.8 (Martin 2011)

implemented in the Galaxy server of the Institut de Génétique et Microbiologie (IGM) of the Université Paris-Sud (http://galaxy.igmors.u-psud.fr) and now available at: https://github.com/galaxyproject/tools-iuc/tree/master/tools/cutadapt. Then, the sequences were checked for quality scores by ConDeTri version 2.2 (Smeds and Kunstner 2011), using a 90% quality score and those below this score were removed. We used UCHIME (Edgar et al. 2011) and Decipher (Wright et al. 2012) to detect chimeric sequences. Sequences detected as chimeras by either program were removed from the data sets. The raw sequences have been deposited in the GenBank sequence read archive (SRA), under the accession number SRP063276. Taxonomy assignments of the remaining 16S rDNA reads were conducted using SILVAngs classifier (online server) with a similarity threshold of 90, using the Silva database release 123 (Cole et al. 2014; Yilmaz et al. 2014). Sequences classified as chloroplast, eukaryotes and/or mitochondria, or that could not be classified as belonging to the Bacteria Kingdom, were removed. Diversity analyses were performed using the software package MOTHUR. Normalization of 16S rDNA sequences based on the expected gene copy number of different species were performed using the Tax4Fun package in R (Aßhauer et al. 2015).

Statistical Analyses. The clean reads were clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using UPARSE version 7 at a cutoff value of 97% sequence identity (Edgar 2010; Edgar 2013). The Chao1 and Shannon indices were calculated to estimate taxon richness and diversity (Schloss and Handelsman 2008). Bray-Curtis distance was used for calculating the distances of multiple samples. The Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) was conducted in the "ade4" R package (version 3.1.2) (Chessel et al. 2004) to ascertain groups in the microbial communities of the different samples. The beta_diversity.py command was used to estimate the beta diversity of bacterial communities using Qime version 1.80 (Caporaso et al. 2010). Pearson correlation coefficients between relative abundances of sequences classified to specific phyla of

different sample sites and environmental parameters were calculated using SPSS version 22.

Results

Physical and chemical characteristics of the sand samples

Selected physical and chemical properties of the sand samples are shown in Table 2. For all sample sites, the pH values of the sand were found to be > 8, indicating an alkaline soil environment, which is generally observed in surface sand samples from hot deserts (Ward 2009). The pH values of the soil at the site of MCR and SRA (see Table 1 for abbreviation name details) are 10.1, higher than the other sampled sites (pH = 8.2 to 8.8), however the pH of all studied sites are in the basic range. The chemical component results also show that the concentrations of sodium (Na), potassium (K), iron (Fe) and aluminum (Al) were higher in these two sites (MCR and SRA) than the others. These results suggest that the high concentrations of these metal ions, which generally arise from chemical decomposition of alkaline salts in the soil, may occur due to the relatively high pH of these soils. In contrast, the concentration of organic matter and organic carbon were relatively lower in these two sites (MCR and SRA), but higher in TJR, which appears to be inversely correlated with the concentrations of Na, K, Fe and Al.

DNA sequencing data analyses

We obtained 483,364 sequences of raw reads in total from the different samples after 454 pyrosequencing (Microsynth AG, Switzerland), with an average read length of 480 nt. After bioinformatic cleaning with Mothur, approximately 95% of the sequences remained (460,475 reads). The sequences were further filtered for quality score and chimeric sequence removal, leaving 65% of the total reads (312,358 reads). The average length of the sequences after processing was approximately 400 nt. The

Bacterial community composition

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In total, 305,167 sequences from the 18 samples were able to be classified as belonging to the Bacteria domain (sequences classified as chloroplast, eukaryotes and/or mitochondria were removed from the DNA sequence dataset). The sequences were classified at 6 taxonomic levels using SILVAngs, resulting in the delineation of sequences belonging to 37 Phyla, 136 Classes, 136 Orders, 254 Families and 565 Genera. The sequences (97%), classified to 37 phyla, were found to represent 13 phyla found to be present in all the samples (Fig. 2a). The predominant phyla of the samples represent members belonging to the Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, and Gemmatimonadetes, at 28.3%, 25.7%, 19.7%, and 6.5%, as the respective averages for the 18 samples, followed by members of the Acidobacteria (3.8%),*Firmicutes* (2.6%), *Armatimonadetes* (3.9%),Chloroflexi Deinococcus-Thermus (1.9%), TM7 (1.3%), Saccharibacteria (1.3%), Planctomycetes (1.2%), Cyanobacteria (0.9%), and Verrucomicrobia (0.5%). Other phyla, with < 0.5% of bacterial sequences in total, were grouped together as "Rare phyla". We found that the relative abundance of Gemmatimonadetes members varies among our sample sites, with the highest proportion in the SR and MCR sites and lowest in the TJR site. Based on an analysis of environmental factors, the SR and MCR sites were found to have the lowest concentration of organic materials and highest concentration of mineral elements, as well as the highest pH value (10.1) of all the sites we examined. The relations between environmental factors and Gemmatimonadetes relative abundances were performed using a Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 4). We found that the abundance of Gemmatimonadetes members was significantly correlated (P < 0.001) with soil pH (r^2 =0.854) in the pH

ranges from 8.2 to 10.1. We also found that the relative abundance of sequences representing members of this phylum was significantly correlated with the concentration of Na, Fe, K and Al, as well as the concentration of organic carbon and organic materials (P < 0.05). The sequences assigned to the Proteobacteria phylum, representing 28.3% of the total, could be assigned to the Alpha-, Beta-, and Gamma- classes. We found that the relative abundance of sequences belonging to the Alphaproteobacteria varied across the different sites, with the highest percentage in sample TJR (23.8% on average) and the lowest percentage in the SR sample (5.9% on average). Members belonging to the Proteobacteria were the most abundant in TJR 3 and TJR 4 (56.5% and 61.2%, respectively), but the primary families in the two sites are different, with Methylobacteriaceae from the Alphaproteobacteria dominant in TJR 3 (27.8%) and Xanthomonadaceae, from Gammaproteobacteria, found to be dominant in TJR 4 (30.4%). Using a Pearson Correlation test, it was found that the relative abundance of Proteobacteria members was inversely correlated (P < 0.05) with the soil pH value (over pH values ranging from 8.2 to 10.1), as well as with the concentrations of Na, K, Fe, and Al. We also found that the relative abundance of members of this phylum was positively correlated with the concentration of organic carbon and organic materials (P < 0.05). Within the Betaproteobacteria class, members of the Burkholderiales family were found to be the most abundant in all our samples. A summary of the most abundant sequences classified at the Class level is shown in Fig. 3. The Beta-diversity of bacterial community structures among our different samples was performed to determine if the variability of microbial communities among the different sites was greater than the variability within sites. We found that the bacterial community in our samples was different among the different sites (Fig.2). However, the bacterial communities of the SR, LWH and GV sites were found to be more closely related, and different from those present at the MCR and TJR sites.

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Using Pearson correlation analyses, an assessment of the physicochemical factors suggests that the concentration of selected mineral components appears to correlate with bacterial community composition (Table 4). In the TJR site, the concentrations of organic carbon (much greater) and mineral salts (much less) were significantly different from those observed at the other sites (P < 0.05). Moreover, this site displays the largest dissimilarity in OTU distribution and relative abundance of specific taxonomic groups (*Alphaproteobacteria, Acidimicrobiia, Gemmatimonadetes* and *Deinococci* (P value < 0.05) versus those observed in the other sites.

Genera composition and prevalence among the samples

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Among the 565 different identified genera, 242 genera were found to belong to the phylum Proteobacteria, 125 genera to belong to the phylum Actinobacteria, 24 genera to belong to the phylum Bacteroidetes, and 9 genera belonging to the phylum Acidobacteria. The most abundant genera found to be present in the sample sites are shown in Table 5. We found sequences classified to certain genera can be very abundant, accounting for >10% of the total sequences in some samples. Members belonging to the genus Microvirga are most abundant in sample TJR 3, and were found to represent almost one-third (32.2%) of the total sequences. Members of this genus have been reported to be thermophiles and have been isolated from a semi-arid site in Brazil, as well as a thermal aquifer (Radl et al. 2014). Sequences belonging to the Cesiribacter genus were predominant in the MCR 3 and SRB 2 samples, accounting for 30.8% and 19.9% of the total sequences, respectively. Strains of this genus have previously been isolated from desert sand in China (Liu et al. 2012), and may represent an important factor in explaining why these 2 sites cluster closely together by PCoA (Fig. 4). Other abundant genera in the samples, representing >10% of the total sequences, belong to the Lysobacter (25.5% in TJR 4), Salinimicrobium (12.8% in TJR 2) and Achromobacter (11.7% in TJR 4) genera.

Normalization of sequences

To better approximate the composition of the bacterial population in the samples, sequences were normalized based on the estimated 16S rRNA gene copy numbers of different species using the program Tax4fun (Aßhauer et al. 2015). We found that, using this program, the bacterial community composition was altered at all taxonomic levels. At the phylum level (Fig. 2b), the relative abundance of most phyla was found to be reduced, as sequences that could not be aligned to the reference database of 16S rRNA gene copy number were assigned to unclassified sequences (15.5% of total sequences at the phylum level). However, the relative abundance of the *Actinobacteria* increased from 25.7% before normalization to 35.3% after normalization, suggesting that the *Actinobacteria* population was likely underestimated by simply counting classified 16S rRNA genes.

OTU-based analyses

The resultant (after various cleaning steps) sequences were clustered into OTUs at 97% sequence similarity, excluding the unclassified sequences at the phylum level and sequences classified as chloroplast, eukaryote or mitochondria. In total, 9,908 OTUs were discernable in all the samples, ranging from 778 in the Drb_1 sample to 3,595 in the Tjr_1 sample. The OTU numbers observed in each sample are shown in Table 3. Eleven core OTU taxons (most abundant OTUs comprising > 1% of total sequences) were found, comprising 37% of the population of all samples. The number of singletons (OTUs with only one sequence) was found to be 3,926, comprising 37% of the total OTU numbers. It is interesting to note that 49 total OTUs were found to be present in all 18 samples. Among the different samples from each Colorado Plateau region, the numbers of common OTUs within a given site were: 599 for DRB (Drb_1 and Drb_2), 323 for GV (GV_1 to GV_5), 170 for MCR (Mcr_1 to Mcr_4), 323 for SR (SR_1 to SR_3), and 238 for TJR (Tjr_1 to Tjr_4).

The relative similarity of the microbial communities among the samples was

calculated based on OTU abundance using the Bray-Curtis measure, and Principal Component Analyses (PCoA) were used to identify the relative population distances of the 18 samples (Fig. 4). It is interesting to note that the Goblin Valley (GB), State Road 24 (SR) and Temple Junction (TJ) sites were able to be grouped into three distinct clusters, while we were unable to discern any distinct grouping of the populations from the Little Wild Horse Canyon (LWH) and Muddy Creek Road (MCR) samples (Fig. 4). The bacterial population distance between different sites, based on the OTU relative abundances, were also illustrated by a UPGMA tree (Fig. 5). The tree was generated using the same number of reads (12,501) from each location by normalization of the sequences using Qiime. The bacterial populations in the sample sites GV and LWH are more closely related, compared with the other sites, and are also the closest in geographic distance. The microbial population of the TJR site is the most distant from the other sites, and may correspond to differences in certain environmental parameters, such as the concentration of organic carbon (much greater) and mineral salts (much lower), as these are significantly different at the TJR site (P < 0.05). We used Pearson correlation analyses to identify possible correlations between bacterial diversity and selected environmental factors (Table 6). We found that the most significant correlation with bacterial richness (Chao 1) was the concentration of organic carbon (P < 0.01). Moreover, the correlation between community richness and the concentration of mineral elements (Na, K, Al, Fe) was also found to be significant (P < 0.05). In addition, we found significant correlations between the Shannon diversity index and the pH value of soils, along with the concentration of sodium (P < 0.05). The concentrations of Ca, P, Mg and Mn were not found to be significantly correlated with soil bacterial biodiversity. However, due to the limited number of geographically different sites in our study (n=5), any correlation between these environmental factors and bacterial biodiversity will require further examination.

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The desert regions in the relatively high altitude eastern portion of the state of Utah on the Colorado Plateau present a range of arid conditions, with high salinity and low concentrations of carbon, providing distinctive ecosystems for microbial communities to inhabit. Additionally, these types of environments also have a unique combination of geochemistry and biodiversity that can be useful to study environmental factors that may shape microbial soil community structures (Crits-Christoph et al. 2013; Osman et al. 2018a). In this study, we used pyrosequencing of 16S rDNA amplicons to identify bacterial populations present on the surface soil in samples of surface soils taken from selected Colorado Plateau desert region sites. We did attempt to quantify the numbers of archaea in our samples using qPCR, but found that they were below our threshold limit of detection (<100 16S rDNA equivalents/g of soil) (Not shown). We also identified possible physicochemical parameters of the soil from these sites that allowed us to begin to investigate possible correlations between bacterial community structure and physical and chemical environmental parameters. Fierer et al. (2012) reported that soils close to neutral pH had the highest bacterial diversity levels, compared with very basic (most deserts) or acidic (rainforests and Arctic tundra) soils, using metagenomic sequencing of total DNA extracted from soils from a wide variety of ecosystems. However, the contribution of pH to soil bacterial biodiversity may be limited depending upon the contribution of other soil physical and chemical parameters (Finkel et al. 2012; Osman et al. 2018b).

Not surprisingly, given the differences in physical and chemical parameters, previous

bacterial community studies of surface soils from selected deserts found that the geographical location can play an important role in the composition of the microbial community (Finkel et al. 2011; Finkel et al. 2012; Nemergut et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2020).

Non-Arctic desert environments, and their associated soil chemistries, have been reported to present unique bacterial combinations even at higher taxonomic levels (phylum to family) (Tamames et al. 2010). In this study, we found that the relative abundance of sequences assigned to the phyla *Proteobacteria* and *Gemmatimonadetes* can be significantly related to certain environmental parameters, as discerned using a Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 4). For example, salinity has been shown to be an important factor in shaping prokaryotic diversity (Li et al. 2013; Canfora et al. 2014; Geyer et al. 2014; Osman et al. 2018a).

Members of the *Actinobacteria* were found to be one of the most abundant phyla found in our samples, accounting for 25.7% of the total sequences. The three predominant classes within this phylum found in our samples belonged to the *Frankiales, Micrococcales* and *Acidimicrobiales* classes. It has been reported that sequences assigned to *Actinobacteria* were the most abundant (>70%) in soil samples from the Atacama Desert (Drees et al. 2006). Members of the *Actinobacteria* are often found to be predominant in desert soils (de la Torre et al. 2003; Neilson et al. 2012), and often comprise members belonging to the *Rubrobacter, Arthrobacter,* and *Streptomyces* genera, as we also observed here. However, many taxa, belonging to *Actinobacteria* isolated from desert soils, appear to represent new species (Mayilraj et al. 2006; Yung et al. 2007; Qin et al. 2009; Makhalanyane et al. 2015). In our study, we found a large proportion (> 50%) of sequences assigned to this phylum could not be classified to the genus level within

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Members belonging to the Bacteroidetes phylum were also found to be abundant in our samples, representing 19.7% of total sequences, and commonly present in other desert soils. Members of this phylum show optimum growth at high pH values, which is consistent with the alkaline pH observed in many hot deserts (Lauber et al. 2009). Members of four families were found to be the predominant *Bacteroidetes* families in our samples: Cytophagaceae, Flammeovirgaceae, Chitinophagacaea and Flavobacteriaceae. Bacteroidetes phylum members were most abundant in MCR 3, representing 64.3% of the total sequences. Firmicutes are often observed to be very abundant in extreme environments, especially in hot deserts (Andrew et al. 2012; Marasco et al. 2012; Crits-Christoph et al. 2013). An et al. (2013) reported that sequences classified to the phylum Firmicutes accounted for > 60% of total sequences in a study of surface hot desert soils from the Gobi and Takalamaken deserts. Sequences belonging to members of the Gemmatimonadetes phylum are commonly found in many soil types, including hot deserts (Azua-Bustos et al. 2012), pasture land (Chim Chan et al. 2008), crop agriculture soils (Montecchia et al. 2015; Osman et al. 2017), forest soils (Li et al. 2014) and freshwater sediments (Zhang et al. 2015), although only six cultured isolates have been reported to date (Fawaz 2013). DeBruyn et al. (2011) reported that the relative abundance of members of the phylum Gemmatimonadetes was inversely correlated to the moisture content in soils, and that many Gemmatimonadetes phylotypes have higher relative abundances in semi-arid and arid soils and deserts (DeBruyn et al. 2011). This result was reinforced by a study on the distribution of the Gemmatimonadetes in agricultural soils, where members of this phylum were found to be more common in dryer soils with a pH close to neutral (DeBruyn et al. 2011; Fawaz 2013). These results suggest that members of the Gemmatimonadetes may be able to act as potential biomarkers of

bacterial communities of arid soil environments characterized by relatively high salinity and low levels of organic matter. At the genus level, sequences belonging to members of the Acidobacteria phylum were also rarely able to be classified to the genus level in our data. These results suggest that sequences belonging to the phyla Actinobacteria and Acidobacteria in desert soils may represent new and unknown genera and species. Direito et al. (2011) studied microbial biodiversity near the MDRS site in the Utah portion of the Colorado Plateau using DGGE profiles of ribosomal RNA genes, and identified 239 different clones of bacteria. All phyla observed in their study were also detected in our samples though, not surprisingly, we discerned many more different bacterial taxa using high-throughput pyrosequencing to identify and classify rDNA genes. Sequences assigned to genera that are often called extremophiles, or previously isolated from desert-like environments, were also observed in our samples, including radio-resistant, halophilic, thermophilic and endolithic bacteria. Members of the genus Pontibacter (Bacteroidetes phylum) were found to be abundant in some hot deserts (Zhou et al. 2007; Subhash et al. 2014), and may possess unique abilities to adapt to these types of environments (Makhalanyane et al. 2015). In our samples, we observed that classifiable sequences belonging to this genus are very abundant (2.2% of total sequences), and most abundant in the SRB_2 sample (7.7% of total sequences). Sequences classifiable to the genera Rubrobacter, Truepera and Deinococcus have been shown to be very radiotolerant (Cox and Battista 2005), and we found many sequences belonging to these genera to be present in our samples. Other genera that have been reported to represent extremophilic bacteria were observed, including: halophilic bacteria such as Salegentibacter, Halomonas and Salinimicrobium (Rossello-Mora et al. 2003; Oren 2015); thermophilic bacteria such as Thermoleophilum and Thermosporothrix (Andrade et al. 1999); and Rhodobacter, known as an endolithic bacteria (Stivaletta et al. 2010). Another group of bacteria that we found belong to the *Pseudomonas* family, members of which have been

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found to play a protective role for bacterial communities in many extreme environments due to their ability for prolific biofilm formation (Drenkard and Ausubel 2002; Selenska-Pobell et al. 2002). Oligotrophic soil ecosystems, such as sandy soils, can be a strong niche filter for the selection of specific bacterial taxa (Osman et al. 2018c). For example, Lee et al. (2016) recovered samples from the Colorado Plateau Desert (Utah, USA) in the vicinity of Moab (Utah, USA). They showed that colonization in sandstone supported almost exclusively members belonging to a single genus, Chroococcidiopsis. In our samples, members belonging to the Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria phyla were found to comprise > 50% of the bacterial communities from the desert sites in the eastern Utah portion of the Colorado Plateau. In this study, we used pyrosequencing of PCR amplified bacterial 16S rRNA genes to reveal the bacterial diversity and community structure in surface soil samples from desert sites in the Utah portion of the Colorado Plateau, and examined their possible correlations with selected environmental factors, revealing that bacterial richness was significantly influenced by the concentration of organic carbon (P < 0.01) and mineral elements (Na, K, Al, Fe). It was also observed that bacterial communities from the studied sites were taxonomically different. The research of bacterial communities in desert soils of the Utah portion of the Colorado Plateau presents a unique opportunity to understand bacterial communities in arid soils, characterized by high salinity and low concentrations of organic matter, and at relatively high altitudes.

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Sample CRediT author statement

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Table 1. Locations of sample sites

Region	Location Description	Lat/Lon	Sample Name
LWH	Dry river bed in Little Wild Horse	38°34'32.18" N	LHW_1
	Canyon	110°46'55.06" W	LHW_2
GVA		38°34'30.73" N	GVA_1
	Goblin Valley State Park	110°43'47.24" W	GVA_2
			GVA_3
GVB		38°34'12.96" N	GVB_1
		110°44'31.89" W	GVB_2
MCR		37°19'57.49" N	MCR_1
	Near Muddy Creek Road	112°41'42.87" W	MCR_2
			MCR_3
			MCR_4
SRA		38°49'51.46" N	SRA_1
	Near State Road 24 / I 70	110°22'52.35" W	
SRB		38°52'53.72" N	SRB_1
		110°20'8.87" W	SRB_2
TJR		38°39'38.18" N	TJR_1
	Near Temple Junction Road /	110°38'46.79" W	TJR_2
	Goblin Valley Road		TJR_3
			TJR_4

Table 2. Selected physicochemical properties of the soil samples

	LWH	GVA	MCR_1	SRA	TJR
рН	8.2	8.84	10.1	10.1	8.23
Ca (g/100g)	11.6	4.14	4.29	0.59	0.32
Fe (g/100g)	1.49	0.85	1.81	1.85	0.2
Mg (g/100g)	2.42	0.91	1.53	0.96	0.11
P (g/100g)	0.17	0.08	0.14	0.1	0.02
Na (g/100g)	0.37	0.55	0.72	0.81	0.08
K (g/100g)	1.46	1.49	2.26	2.14	0.92
Mn (mg/kg)	511	272	359	172	29.3
Al (g/100g)	3.19	3.11	4.8	4.8	1.11
Organic materials (g/kg)	2.61	1.17	1.15	0.21	3.49
Organic carbon (g/kg)	1.51	0.68	0.67	0.12	11.7

Table 3. Number of sequences and diversity indices of the soil samples

	Sequence	numbers	Di	versity indi	ces
	Raw data	After cleaning	OTUs	Chao1	Shannon
LWH_1	11,632	7,572	1,191	1,764	6.11
LWH_2	20,221	13,515	1,570	2,372	5.88
GVA_1	28,382	18,721	1,247	1,924	5.07
GVA_2	30,479	19,357	1,541	2,431	5.56
GVA_3	28,744	18,533	1,694	2,605	5.83
GVB_1	25,342	17,198	1,063	1,763	4.25
GVB_2	27,282	17,258	1,638	2,756	5.79
MCR_1	21,955	14,976	1,459	2,349	5.75
MCR_2	25,839	15,756	1,305	2,216	5.59
MCR_3	45,693	31,143	778	1,307	4.34
MCR_4	19,433	13,165	1,628	2,684	6.08
SRA_1	20,331	14,028	851	1,532	4.85
SRB_1	33,407	22,134	972	1,665	4.59
SRB_2	37,157	25,574	1,170	2,089	4.72
TJR_1	25,380	16,546	3,595	6,669	7.18
TJR_2	28,836	15,976	1,320	2,552	5.42
TJR_3	19,900	12,750	2,196	4,709	4.94
TJR_4	33,351	16,549	2,015	5,383	4.40

Table 4. Pearson's correlation between the relative abundance of sequences of *Proteobacteria* and *Gemmatimonadetes* and selected environmental factors from all the samples.

		рН	Organic carbon	Organic materials	Na	Ca	Fe	Al	Р	К	Mg	Mn
Proteobacteria	R^2	523*	.595*	.585*	623*	249	569 [*]	627*	464	617*	390	423
	Р	.049	.027	.029	.020	.231	.034	.020	.075	.022	.118	.098
Gemmatimonadetes	R^2	.854**	751**	896**	.899**	.057	.695**	.844**	.426	.856**	.293	.341
	Ρ	<.001	.004	<.001	<.001	.434	.009	.001	.095	<.001	.191	.152

^{*} with P value < 0.05

^{**} with P value < 0.01

Table 5. Assignments of the most abundant sequences at the genus level in the soil samples. The number of each location represent the average of relative abundance from each numbered site (see Material and Methods for details)

	GVA	GVB	LWH	MCR	SRA	SRB	TJR
Casiribactor	0.1%			6.4%	6.0%	7.4%	0.2%
Cesiribacter		0.6%	1.0%				0.2% 10.1%
Lysobacter	0.1%	0.2%	0.5%	0.3%	0.2%	0.2%	
Pontibacter	0.9%	1.2%	1.1%	3.0%	3.5%	5.9%	1.2%
Adhaeribacter	2.8%	1.6%	1.9%	3.1%	1.6%	2.0%	0.8%
Microvirga	0.2%	0.2%	1.0%	0.4%	0.6%	0.2%	7.5%
Sphingomonas	1.2%	1.3%	2.4%	2.0%	0.1%	0.4%	3.3%
Segetibacter	4.0%	2.0%	1.2%	2.3%	0.1%	0.5%	0.8%
Flavisolibacter	3.9%	1.3%	0.8%	1.8%	0.2%	0.3%	1.8%
Massilia	0.9%	3.2%	1.9%	1.4%	5.7%	0.6%	0.9%
Cytophaga	0.3%	0.2%	0.8%	3.1%	3.2%	2.2%	0.1%
Bacillus	1.2%	0.5%	0.9%	2.4%	1.1%	0.2%	1.2%
Truepera	0.5%	0.5%	1.9%	0.6%	4.2%	4.0%	0.2%
Rubellimicrobium	0.9%	0.7%	2.4%	0.9%	1.3%	1.2%	1.1%
Arthrobacter	0.6%	1.5%	1.9%	0.7%	3.3%	1.3%	0.8%
Hymenobacter	1.9%	1.8%	0.8%	1.2%	0.1%	1.2%	0.4%
Blastocatella	0.8%	0.3%	0.6%	1.2%	0.0%	0.1%	2.4%
Salinimicrobium	0.1%	0.1%	0.5%	0.5%	0.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Stenotrophomonas	3.3%	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	0.8%
Achromobacter	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.4%
Acinetobacter	3.0%	0.2%	1.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.9%	0.2%
Rubrobacter	1.8%	0.1%	0.4%	0.5%	0.9%	1.8%	0.3%
Euzebya	0.4%	0.5%	0.3%	1.0%	0.2%	2.4%	0.3%
Deinococcus	0.3%	0.3%	0.8%	1.8%	0.6%	0.8%	0.1%
Flavobacterium	0.2%	4.0%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%
Nocardioides	0.6%	0.6%	1.3%	0.3%	1.1%	0.3%	0.7%
Streptomyces	0.3%	0.3%	1.1%	0.2%	6.6%	0.1%	0.1%
Altererythrobacter	0.2%	0.9%	1.5%	0.2%	2.0%	0.1%	0.4%
Pseudomonas	0.6%	1.5%	0.5%	0.1%	0.9%	0.3%	0.6%
Blastococcus	0.3%	0.2%	1.1%	0.3%	0.7%	0.5%	1.0%
Solirubrobacter	1.8%	0.2%	0.3%	0.3%	0.1%	0.3%	0.4%
Gillisia	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.8%
Nibribacter	0.1%	0.4%	0.4%	0.8%	0.5%	1.0%	0.1%
Patulibacter	1.2%	0.5%	0.3%	0.5%	0.0%	0.1%	0.2%
Gemmatimonas	0.7%	0.6%	0.4%	0.6%	0.1%	0.2%	0.3%
Noviherbaspirillum	0.3%	1.0%	0.9%	0.5%	0.1%	0.2%	0.2%
Planomicrobium	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	1.5%

Table 6. Pearson's correlations between OTU richness and environmental factors

		PH	Organic	Organic	Na	Ca	Fe	Al	Р	K	Mg	Mn
			carbon	materials								
OTUs	R ²	781	.912*	.956**	966**	028	852*	930*	529	875*	366	340
	Ρ	.060	.016	.005	.004	.482	.033	.011	.180	.026	.272	.288
Chao1	R^2	657	.972**	.815*	895*	356	938**	938**	794	865*	667	644
	Ρ	.114	.003	.047	.020	.278	.009	.009	.054	.029	.110	.120
Shannon	R^2	843*	.547	.879*	837*	.449	648	755	102	757	.087	.175
	Ρ	.036	.170	.025	.039	.224	.119	.070	.435	.069	.445	.389

^{*} with P value < 0.05

^{**} with P value < 0.01

- 737 Figure Legends
- 738 Fig. 1 Location of the sampling sites in eastern Utah (USA). See Material and Methods
- for the GPS coordinates.
- 740 Fig. 2. Relative abundance of bacterial 16S rDNA gene sequences from our samples
- at the Phylum level. See the Materials and Methods for details.
- 742 Fig. 3. Relative abundance of bacterial 16S rDNA gene sequences from our samples
- at the Class level. See the Materials and Methods for details.
- 744 Fig. 4. PCoA plot of distance of the microbial communities among the 18 samples
- 545 based on OTU relative abundance using the Bray-Curtis measure. See the Materials
- and Methods for details.
- 747 Fig. 5. The bacterial population distance between different sites based on OTU
- relative abundance illustrated using a UPGMA tree. See the Materials and Methods
- 749 for details.