# Diversity and assembly processes of microbial eukaryotic

# **2 community in Fildes Peninsula Lakes (West Antarctica)**

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### **Abstract**

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17 The diversity, co-occurrence patterns, and assembly processes of microbial eukaryotes 18 (0.2~20 µm) in Antarctic freshwater lakes are not well understood, despite their wide 19 distribution and ecological importance. This study used Illumina high-throughput 20 sequencing to explore five freshwater lakes' microbial eukaryotic communities on the 21 Fildes Peninsula during three summer seasons. A total of 33-28 phyla were detected, 22 with the phytoplankton occupying the highest percentage of sequences (accounting 23 for up to 98%). Meanwhile, tThe main dominant taxa were Chrysophyta, Chlorophyta, 24 and Cryptophyta. Alpha diversity Richness (113~268) and Shannon index (1.70~3.50) 25 varied among lakes, with higher values in lake Chang Hu and lake Kitec, the lowest 26 value in lake Yue Ya. with Changhu (CH), Kitec (KT) lake having higher values, and 27 Yue Ya (YY) lake having the lowest value. There were significant differences in 28 microbial eukaryotic communities betweenamong lakes, with spatial and temporal 29 heterogenicity variation in the relative abundance of dominant taxa (P<0.05). 30 Environmental variables only explained about 3039% of the variation in community 31 structure, with water temperature and phosphate identified as the driving factors 32 (P<0.05). —In the co-occurrence network, microeukaryotes tended to be more 33 symbiotic than competitive with each other (positive correlation 82% vs. negative 34 correlation 18%), Network analysis revealed comprehensive co-occurrence 35 relationships (positive correlation 82% vs. negative correlation 18%). The neutral 36 community model found that neutral processes explained more than 5655% of the 37 community variation. The stochastic processes (e.g., homogenizing dispersal and 38 undominated process) predominated in community assembly than the deterministic 39 processes. These findings revealed the diversity of the microbial eukaryotic 40 community and have important implications for understanding the community 41 assembly in the freshwater lakes of the Fildes Peninsula (Antarctica). 42 **Keywords:** Microbial eukaryotic community; Diversity; Co-occurrence network;

Stochastic processes; Fildes Peninsula lakes.

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### 1 Introduction

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The Fildes Peninsula locates in the southwestern part of King George Island of the West Antarctic region, which has a high concentration of Antarctic scientific research stations worldwide and is commonly free of ice during summer. It is the largest ice-free area (40 km<sup>2</sup>) on King George Island, South Shetlands. This area falls within the "maritime Antarctic" with precipitation of 400-600 mm year-1 and an average temperature of -3 °C (Holdgate 1977). Nevertheless, permafrost and periglacial processes occur (Barsch and Caine 1984). The www aters are affected by natural factors such as the sea, animals, and anthropogenic pressures in solid, volatile, and fluid wastes (Kawecka et al., 1998). Lakes in Fildes Peninsula, along with those found in other ice-free areas in Antarctica, represent the year-round liquid water reservoirs on the continent (Lyons et al., 2007; Priscu 2010). Antarctica lake systems are sentinels for climate change and contain chemical elements and microorganisms of global relevance (Marsh et al., 2020; Wilkins et al., 2013). Because of their physical stability, such lakes have been identified as model systems for inferring biogeochemical processes within water columns (Comeau et al., 2012). As an essential component of microorganisms in Antarctic freshwater lake systems, microMicrobial eukaryotes (0.2~20 µm, pico-/nanoeukaryotes) constitute important components in microbial food webs and play an important role in the biogeochemical cycles (Grob et al., 2007; Massana et al., 2015; Unrein et al., 2014)has shown critical roles in the ecosystem services, as well as contributing to plankton biomass and carbon export (Hernandez-Ruiz et al., 2018; Leblanc et al., 2018).acting as the main food source and the primary contributors to material circulation(Grob et al., 2007; Mo et al., 2018b; Moreno-Pino et al., 2016; Zeng et al., 2014) - However, the microbial eukaryotes have been neglected for a long term due to their small cell size and lack of conspicuous morphological features. The molecular approach can be used to compensate for the lack of traditional microscopic methods,

providing us with a convenient way to study these small-sized eukaryotes. The

application of 18S rRNA gene-based molecular tools has revealed high taxonomic diversity of microbial eukaryotes in some oligotrophic and extreme regions (Marquardt et al., 2016; Richards et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2011). Nevertheless, research studies focused on exploring the molecular diversity and the population fluctuations in these far cold and oligotrophic Antarctica lakes are limited.

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The small size, short generation time, rapid growth, sensitivity to environmental conditions, and genetic plasticity render themmicrobial eukaryotes capable of quick reflection to environmental changes (Karimi et al., 2017). Hence, they are excellent bioindicators of the impact of environmental perturbations and ecosystem quality (Bouchez et al., 2016). Alveolate The Ciliophora, Cryptomycota, Chlorophyta, and dinoflagellatesBacillariophyta have been detected in the Freshwater Glacier Lake, East size fraction 0.2~5 µm of Antarctica plankton eukaryotes, the biodiversity seem to bewas affected by the temperature and salinity (Lopez-Garcia et al., 2001). Based on microscopic observation, diatom in the lakes of Fildes Peninsula region accounted for 59.8% of the total number of phytoplankton species, and the water temperature and nutrients resulted in the variation of nano-and microphytoplankton abundance and composition (Zhu et al., 2010). A pretty low number of taxa, the abundance of diatom genera such as Nitzschia, Achnanthes, and Navicula, etc., have been investigated from the oligotrophic and periodically brackish water ponds near the Polish Antarctic (Kawecka al., 1998). Station on King George Island et The microeukaryoticmicrophytoplankton communities of shallow lakes from the Antarctic Peninsula, arewere influenced by nutrients and surrounding inputs (Mataloni et al., 2000). The composition of pico/nanoeukaryotic community was significantly related to phosphate in the Bohai Sea and North Yellow Sea (Wang et al., 2020b). However, the spatio-temporal variation, co-occurrence pattern, and community assembly of microbial eukaryotes in Antarctic (Fildes Peninsula) freshwater lakes have been rarely reported.

Deterministic and stochastic processes have been considered the two main

processes are based on ecological niche theory; some deterministic factors (environmental conditions and species interactions) influence and determine community assembly (Powell et al., 2015). Stochastic processes are based on the neutral theory, which believes that random birth or death, drift, and dispersal events also play an essential role in community composition (Bahram et al., 2016). Deterministic processes (selection) are prevalent in building whole ecosystem communities (Liu et al., 2020a), selection leads to species classification, and applying similar habitats results in similar community assemblages. Although other studies supported a role for stochastic processes (drift and dispersal) in community assembly, dispersal was the movement of species in spatial location, and drift was associated with the relative abundance of species (Massana and Logares 2013; Wu et al., 2019). Stochastic processes accounted for up to 95% of the microbial eukaryotic community assembly mechanism in a set of lakes in Eastern Antarctica (Logares et al., 2018). Stochastic processes also were found to prevail in micro-and nanoplankton eukaryotic communities in intertidal zones in Intertidal Zones of Southeast Fujian, China (Kong et al., 2019). Nonetheless, the study of microbial eukaryotic diversity and its community assembly processes in Antarctica still requires further investigations for a more comprehensive view. Few studies have been conducted on microbial eukaryotic diversity and community assembly processes of the freshwater lakes in the Fildes Peninsula, Antarctica. Our study attempted to analyze the microbial eukaryotic samples of five freshwater lakes from three summers using high-throughput 18S rRNA sequencing. We aimed to (I) understand the diversity and co-occurrence of microbial

ecological processes in community assembly (Ofiteru et al., 2010). Deterministic

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processes.

eukaryotes; and (II) to explore the influencing factors and their community assembly

### 2 Material and Method

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## 2.1 Sampling collecting

Field samples were collected on the 34th (2017/2018), 35th (2018/2019), and 36th (2018/2019) Chinese Antarctic Research Expedition (CHINARE) in January 2018 (34th), December 2018 (35th), and December 2019 (36th), respectively. The investigations were conducted in the Chinese Great Wall Station area at King George Island, the largest island in southern Shetland Island. Surface water samples were collected from five lakes, Chang Hu (CH), Kitec (KT), Xi hu-Hu (XH), Yan ou-Ou (YO), and Yue\_Ya (YY) (Fig. 1). Moreover, the physio-chemical parameters were measured synchronously. Lake Chang Hu (CH) is a narrow strip shape, surrounded by bulges, with major inputs from surrounding glacial melting water. Lake Kitezh (KT) is the closest to the Corinthian ice cap and is the source of drinking water for the Chilean station, near the airport for access to the Fildes Peninsula in Antarctica. The KT is the largest lake in this investigation area. Lake Xi Hu (XH) is the drinking water source area for the Great Wall Station scientific expedition station. Lake Yann Ou (YO is surrounded by mountains and snow-covered, with moss and lichen growing in the soil. It is the smallest lake of this investigation area and is relatively sensitive to the effects of scientific expeditions. Lake Yue Ya (YY, situated on Ardley Island, is far from human activities but influenced by penguins dwelling on the island, which brings massive penguins excrement inputs. Water temperature (WT), pH, and salinity (Sal) were measured using ana YSI Model 30RBRconcerto C.T.D (Canada Yellow Springs Instruments, Yellow Springs, USA). Chlorophyll a (Chl a) was extracted with acetone and measured spectrophotometrically. Nutrients, including ammonia (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), silicate (SiO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), and phosphate (PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>) were measured spectrophotometrically with a continuous flow autoanalyzer Scan++ (Skalar, the Netherlands) after filtering water through 0.45 µm cellulose acetate membrane filters (Whatman) as described by (HP

Hansen and Koroleff 1999).

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## 2.2 PCR and Illumina MiSeq

156 For Illumina MiSeq2000, 1 L surface seawater was collected and prefiltered 157 through a 20\_µm mesh sieve to remove most of the mesozooplankton and large 158 particles, then directly filtered through a 0.2 µm pore size nucleopore membrane filter 159 (Whatman). The filters were frozen at -80°C in CTAB buffer until laboratory 160 experiments. DNA extraction was performed as described by (Luo et al., 2015). 161 PCR was performed using primers with barcode flanking the hypervariable V4 162 region of the 18S rRNA gene: 3NDf (Charvet et al., 2012) with the reverse primer 163 V4\_euk\_R2 (Brate et al., 2010). Polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) were conducted 164 in 20  $\mu$ L reactions with 0.2  $\mu$ M each primer, 10 ng of template DNA, 1 × PCR buffer, 165 and 2.5 U of Pfu DNA Polymerase (Promega, USA). The amplification program 166 consisted of an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 2 mins, followed by 30 cycles of 167 95 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, and a final extension of 72 °C for 5 168 min. PCR products were pooled and purified using the DNA gel extraction kit 169 (Axygen, Hangzhou, China). The DNA concentration of each PCR product was 170 determined using a Quant-iT PicoGreen double-stranded DNA assay (Invitrogen, 171 Germany) and was quality controlled on a TBS-380 Mini-Fluorometer (Turner 172 Biosystems, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Finally, amplicons of all samples were pooled in 173 equimolar concentrations. The PCR product was extracted from 2% agarose gel and 174 purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, 175 CA, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions and quantified using Quantus<sup>TM</sup> 176 Fluorometer (Promega, USA). Purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar and 177 paired-end sequenced (2 × 300) on an Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San 178 Diego, USA) according to the standard protocols by Wefind Biotechnology Co., Ltd. 179 (Wuhan, China). 180 The raw 18S rRNA gene sequencing reads were demultiplexed, quality-filtered 181 by fastp version 0.20.0 (Chen et al., 2018) and merged by FLASH version 1.2.7

(Magoc and Salzberg 2011) with the following criteria: (i) the 300 bp reads were truncated at any site receiving an average quality score of <20 over a 50 bp sliding window, and the truncated reads shorter than 50 bp were discarded, reads containing ambiguous characters were also discarded; (ii) only overlapping sequences longer than 10 bp were assembled according to their overlapped sequence. The maximum mismatch ratio of overlap region is 0.2. Reads that could not be assembled were discarded; (iii) Samples were distinguished according to the barcode and primers, and the sequence direction was adjusted, exact barcode matching, 2 nucleotide mismatch in primer matching. Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with 97% similarity cutoff were clustered using UPARSE version 7.1 (Edgar 2013), and chimeric sequences were identified and removed. The taxonomy of each representative sequence was analyzed by RDP Classifier version 2.2 (Wang et al., 2007) against the 18S rRNA database (Silva v138) (Quast C et al., 2013) using confidence threshold of 0.7. The analysis of OTUs obtained using the UPARSE clustering method have still been widely used for high-throughput sequencing analysis (Gad et al., 2022; Reboul et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022). Some of the diversity indices in our study were more comparable to previous similar research using 97% sequence similarity OTUs (Chen et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020b), as comparisons of these statistics using the same bioinformatics tool still seem to remain persuasive (Glassman and Martiny 2018; Li et al., 2019). A total of 726,700 valid sequences of the 18S rRNA gene in all samples were obtained, and the average length of the acquired reads was 443 base pairs. The OTUs, classified as metazoa, unassigned and unclassified sequences, were filtered based on taxonomic metadata. Finally, the sequences were normalized at the lowest sequences depth and rarefied at 16,717 reads, yielding a total of 520 OTUs, distributed among 28 phyla. The Good's coverage values were above 99.9%, confirming that the libraries could represent most species in these lakes, with rarefaction curves reaching

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## saturation (Fig. S1).

We used QHME default parameters for quality filtering (reads truncated at first low-quality base and excluded if: (1) overlap ≤10bp while the coupled reads were assembled into one single sequence, (2) less than 80% of reading length was consecutive high quality base calls, (3) more than 1 errors were present in the bar code, (4) the length was less than 50 bases. We picked operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with a 97% similarity cut off using available reference UPARSE version7.1 (http://drive5.com/uparse/). Reads that did not match any sequences in the reference database at ≥ 97% identity were clustered de novo. The taxonomic identity of eukaryotic representative sequences was performed using RDP classifier against the SILVA database (version 132 NR) at a bootstrap cutoff of 80%.

# 2.3 Community composition and diversity

The OTUs richness and Shannon index (H) were measured using the "vegan" R package based on the OTUs table, respectively. The nearest-taxon index (NTI) was used to measure the degree of phylogenetic clustering of taxa on a within-community scale for communities. High or positive values indicated clustering taxa across the overall phylogeny, while lower negative values indicated overdispersion of taxa across the phylogeny (Horner-Devine and Bohannan 2006). The nearest taxon index (NTI) quantifies the number of standard deviations that the observed MNTDmean nearest taxon distance (MNTD) is from the mean of the null distribution with 999 randomizations in the "Picante" R package.

Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of microbial eukaryotic communities was performed with the relative abundance of OTUs (Roberts 2013). Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) investigated differences in the microbial eukaryotic communities between groups. The unweighted pair-group method with arithmetic means (UPGMA) was used to determine the similarity between samples by clustering analysis according to community composition similarity. These analyses were performed in the R package "Vegan" and "Phangorn". All calculations were based on

similarity matrices calculated with the Bray Curtis similarity index. similarity matrices (1-dissimilarity of the Bray-Curtis distance metric).

# 2.4 Influencing factors of the community structure

Canoco 4.5 software (Braak and Smilauer 2002) was used to rank species and environmental factor data, and the ranking model was determined by de-trending correspondence analysis (DCA) of OTUs data. All environmental factors, except pH, were log (x+1) transformed before analysis to improve normality and homoscedasticity. To reduce multicollinearity among environmental factors, all variance inflation factors (VIFs) were kept below 10. The environmental factors influencing the composition of the microbial eukaryotic community were selected by 999 Monte Carlo permutation tests at the significant level (*P*<0.05). In addition, the relative importance of water temperature, physicochemical factors, and nutrients was assessed using the variation partitioning analysis (VPA).

# 2.5 Co-occurrence Network Analysis

We constructed one co-occurrence network based on samples from the whole study period. The samples collected were performed by co-occurrence network analysis. To reduce the complexity of the data sets, OTUs represented Occurred occurred in at least 5 samples were retained to construct networks. Only robust (|r| > 0.6) and statistically significant (P < 0.05) correlations were incorporated into network analyses. Finally, network visualization was conducted using Gephi software (Bastian M et al., 2009). Previous studies identified potential keystone taxa as nodes with degree > 30 and betweenness centrality < 5000 (Ma et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021a).

# 2.6 Ecological community assembly analysis

The Neutral community model (NCM) was used to measure the potential role of stochastic processes in the assembly of microbial eukaryotic communities based on the relationship between OTUs frequency and relative abundance (Chen et al., 2019). The model iswas derived from neutral theory (Zhou et al., 2014). The parameter Nm

represents the metacommunity size, and R<sup>2</sup> represents the degree of fit to a neutral model.

To further evaluate the contributions of deterministic and stochastic processes to community assembly, the Stegen null model was used (Stegen et al., 2012). The  $\beta$ -nearest taxon index ( $\beta$ NTI) was calculated using phylogenetic distance and OTUs abundance (Stegen et al., 2013; Webb et al., 2002). The relative contribution of variable selection and homogeneous selection was estimated from the percentage of pairwise comparisons whose  $\beta$ NTI were > 2 and < -2, respectively. We further calculated the Bray-Curtis-based Raup-Crick index (RCbray) to investigate pairwise comparisons that deviated from selection (Evans et al., 2017; Stegen et al., 2013). Integrated with the value of |RCbray|, the underlying community assembly processes could be homogenizing dispersal (|  $\beta$ NTI| < 2 and RCbray < -0.95), dispersal limitation (|  $\beta$ NTI| < 2 and RCbray > +0.95) and undominated processes (i.e. weak selection, weak dispersal, diversification, and drift processes) with |  $\beta$ NTI| < 2 and |RCbray | < 0.95. The null community of all the samples was randomized 999 times to obtain average null expectations.

#### 3 Result

# 3.1 Physico-chemical properties

The water temperatures—WT varied from 0.90 °C to 7.14 °C of all five lakes had similar values as 0.90°C to 7.14°C (Table S1), while the YO lake—was significantly higher than other lakes (*P*<0.05). Nutrients were low with nitrite—(NO<sub>2</sub>-N), ammonium nitrogen—(NH<sub>4</sub>+), and phosphate PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>—(PO<sub>4</sub>-P) concentrations with 0.00~0.15 μM-L<sup>+</sup>, 0.05~0.74 μM-L<sup>+</sup>, and 0.02~2.29 μM-L<sup>+</sup>, respectively. YY lake had higher concentrations of PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>—phosphate—, NH<sub>4</sub>+ammonium—nitrogen, and NO<sub>2</sub>-nitrite, while XH had lower NO<sub>2</sub>-nitrite and phosphate PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>. Silicate (SiO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) varied from 1.43 to 51.5 μM-L<sup>+</sup>, with the highest value in CH and lowest value in YY. The range of Chl *a* was 0.25~2.11 μg L<sup>-1</sup>, with the YY highest and the CH lowest. pH ranged from 7.65 to 8.27. SalinitySal was 0.00-0.14 PSU, which in YO lake-exhibited

293 a significantly lower value compared to other lakes (P < 0.05). 294 3.2 Diversity and composition of microbial eukaryotic community 295 A total of 726,700 valid sequences of the 18S rRNA gene in all samples was 296 obtained, and the average length of the acquired reads was 443 base pairs. These 297 sequences clustered into 547 OTUs at 97% similarity level, distributed among 33 298 phyla. The Good's coverage values were above 99.9%, confirming that the libraries 299 could represent most species in these lakes. 300 A total of 40-9 dominant phyla were identified, accounting for over 98% of the 301 sequences. 96.02% sequences in CH, 97.01% in KT, 98.30% in XH, 94.19% YO, and 302 98.27% YY. These dominant phyla were mainly composed of microbial eukaryotic 303 phytoplankton, with various relative abundances between different lakes (Fig. 2a). 304 The Chrysophyta  $(\frac{35.0434.91}{94.91}\%$  in CH $\sim \frac{76.69}{78.88}\%$  in XH), Chlorophyta 305 (<del>13.9415.17</del>% in KT~<del>35.3735.88</del>% in YY), and Cryptophyta (0.01% in YO~23.<del>7371</del>% 306 in CH) were most abundant in lakes. The Cryptophyta in KT was significantly more 307 abundant than in XH and YO, and Pyrrophyta Alveolate in KT-XH was significantly 308 more abundant than in <del>YO YY</del> (P<0.05) (Fig. 2b). <del>Meanwhile, it was noticed that the</del> 309 relative abundances of some phyla varied between lakes but not significantly, with 310 Chytridiomycota, Cercozoa, and Cryptophyta in XH being higher than those in YO. 311 The Arthropoda Haptophyta represented 0.100.09% in CHKT~4.114.93% in YO; 312 Alveolate represented 0.030.02% in XH~1.011.00% in CH, and unclassified 313 Stramenopiles-Alveolates-Rhizaria (SAR) represented 1.07-1.12 % in XH~5.278.05 % 314 in YO. 315 The relative abundance of the dominant taxa in the same lake had some 316 interannual variation. The Chrysophyta in CH\_19, YO\_19, and YY\_19 samples were 317 lower than the other samples, while the Cryptophyta in CH\_19 and YY\_19 were 318 lower than the other samples in CH, and YY, respectively. The proportion of 319 Arthropoda in YO 19 reached 70.09%, which was remarkably higher than the 320 different samples (Fig. 2a).

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           A total of 24-21 dominant genera were identified (Fig. 2c), accounting for over
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       87% of the sequences.81.22% sequences in CH, 79.43% in KT, 61.22% in XH, 65.95%
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       in YO, and 59.06% in YY. The dominant genera were mainly Hydrurus,
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       Paraphysomonas, Ochromonas, Synura, and Monochrysis belonging to Chrysophyta,
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                           Cryptophyta,
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                                                              Chlamydomonas,
       Komma
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       Mantoniella Raphidonema in Chlorophyta.
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            As shown in Fig. 2c, the abundance of the dominant genera differed among the
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       lakes investigated interannually. The relative abundance of Komma varied from 0 to
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       48.4952%, which showed an increasing trend over the year in CH and YY. The ranges
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       of
           Paraphysomonas
                               and
                                     Ochromonas
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                                                           0.283.06~41.9856.88%
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       0.220.06~15.8218.86%, showing an increase followed by a decrease in XH and YO
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       over the year. The Hydrurus in XH_18 and YO_18 was higher than in the other
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       samples. Mantoniella Raphidonema was significantly more abundant in CH than in
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       other lakes. Ochromonas Chrysosphaerell and Synura -in KTCH, except for compared
       with CH, were was significantly higher lower than other lakes in YO and XH (P<0.05,
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       Table S2).
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           The indices (OTUsrichness, Shannon index, and NTI) had interannual variation
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       but showed no significance (P>0.05) (Fig. 3a, c, e). The order of NTI and Shannon all
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       showed 2018>2017>2019; OTUs Richness were highest in the expedition season
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       2017 and lowest in 20192018. The ranges of OTUsrichness and Shannon index were
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       <del>151113~244_268</del> and <del>2.061.70~3.263.50</del>, respectively, with YY having the lowest
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       value and was significantly lower than CH and KT (Fig. 3b, d, P<0.05). The range of
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       NTI was 0.800.62 \sim 1.421.56, with the lowest value in YO and significantly lower than
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       KT (Fig. 3f, P<0.05). KT had the highest Shannon index, richness, and NTI, while and
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       CH <u>also</u> had the <u>highest higher number of OTUs richness</u> (Fig. 3b, d, f).
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           The total number of OTUs shared in 2017-2019 was 276239, and the unique
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       OTUs were 31–32 (2017), 34–49 (2018), 70–66 (2019) (Fig. 3g). The Venn diagram
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       showed that the total number of OTUs shared by the five lakes was 129103, and the
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unique OTUs were 62-59 (CH),37-43 (KT),5-9 (XH),14 (YO), and 14-15 (YY) (Fig. 350 3h).

The NMDS results divided the samples into five clusters according to their similarity of microbial eukaryotic community (stress value = 0.1412) (Fig. 4a). In addition, the analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) based on Bray-Curtis distance indicated that the differences between lakes were significant (Global R = 0.61370, P<0.01). Meanwhile, no significant differences were detected by ANOSIM among

interannual variations (R=0.013, *P*=0.393).

UPGMA clustering analysis (Fig.4b) showed the same lakes in a different year, such as CH\_17 and CH\_18, YY\_17 and YY\_18, YO\_17 and YO\_18 clustered together clustered into one clade, respectively. For other lakes, KT\_18 and XH\_18 clustered as one clade, CH\_19, and YY\_19 clustered together one clade, CH\_17, and XH\_19 clustered as one clade. YO lake was distant from other lakes and clustered into a separate one.

# 3.3 Driving factors and co-occurrence patterns

Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) demonstrated that the first two sequencing axes explained  $\frac{16.721.84}{16.721.84}$ % and  $\frac{15.517.11}{16.517.11}$ % of community variation (Fig. 5a). The samples from the same lake were closer, with a more similar community structure. More importantly, the Monte Carlo analysis confirmed that the water temperature WT and PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> significantly affected the microbial eukaryotic community (P < 0.0105). The variation partition analysis (VPA) indicated that environmental factors monitored explained  $\frac{14.199.34}{16.721.84}$ % of microbial eukaryotic community variability among lakes and still had a large amount of unexplained community variation ( $\frac{85.890.66}{16.721.84}$ %, Fig. 5b).

A total of 223-220 nodes linked by 1941-1521 edges was were made up microbial eukaryotic network. The majority of nodes in the network had many connections. Notably, the positive associations among species were predominant in the network (Fig. 5c), with 8281.82-25%, whereas the portion of negative association was only

17.7518.18%. In addition, the positive interactions were mainly within the same taxonomic affiliations, such as Chrysophyta, or between a few different taxonomic affiliations, such as Chrysophyta and Chlorophyta. While the negative correlations mainly were reflected between Chrysophyta and Chlorophyta. We found that only about 8% of OTUs directly correlated with environmental factors (P<0.05). Meanwhile, only four two of the top 20 OTUs with the highest degree centrality were directly associated with environmental factors (WT, and  $PO_4^3$ - $PO_4$ -P), and three one belonged to Chrysophyta and one to ChytridiomycotaCercozoa.

24 nodes were identified as potential keystone species (Table S3), which contained *Heteromita* belonging to Cercozoa, seven genera belonging to Chrysophyta, such as *Spumella*, *Ochromonas*, and *Chromulina*. The Chlorophyta keystone genera included *Chloromonas* and *Chlamydomonas*, and other genera were from Bacillariophyta and Alveolata.

# 3.4 Community assembly processes

The Sloan neutral community model (NCM) showed the importance of stochastic processes for microbial eukaryotic communities (Fig. 6a), with the neutral processes explaining 56.855.5% community variation. In addition, the Sloan neutral modelNCM classified microbial eukaryotic taxa into three groups (above prediction, below prediction, and neutral prediction). We found that the neutral group (within 95% confidence interval), with richness and abundance ratios of 79.780.0% and 90.486.4%, respectively, were both much higher than the above and below prediction groups, which was dominated by Chrysophyta, Chlorophyta, and Cryptophyta (Fig. 6b, c). The above prediction group accounted for 8.810.58% of the microbial eukaryotic richness but corresponded to only 0.750.96% of the abundance, dominated by Chrysophyta, Chlorophyta, and ChytridiomycotaCercozoa. Cryptophyta accounted for 13.316.58% of the abundance in the neutral group but was almost absent in the other two groups above group. In contrast, CercozoaChytridiomycota was present in 10.49.38% abundance in the two groups mentioned above group, but only 0.10.32%

in the neutral group.

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The variation of βNTI ranged from -1.65~1.31 with a mean value of -0.48 (Fig. 6d), which The βNTI was mainly distributed in the region of stochastic processes with a mean value of -0.48 and supported the results of the neutral model. The community assembly process analysis showed that stochastic rather than deterministic processes controlled the community assembly. Among them, homogenizing dispersal dominated, with a proportion of 64.7659.05%, followed by undominated process and dispersal limitation (Fig. 6d).

The environmental conditions (e.g., low light and low nutrient, etc.) in Antarctic

#### 4 Discussion

## 4.1 Diversity and dominant taxa

freshwater lakes differed from temperate lakes. These special features and relative isolation resulted in unique communities and the survival strategies of the species adapted to such conditions (Pearce 2008). In our study, the survival of taxa (Chrysophyta, Chlorophyta, and Cryptophyta) might depend on their survival strategies to withstand harsh conditions, which made them as the predominant species. Chrysophyta dominated in five lakes examined in our study, including *Hydrurus*, Paraphysomonas, Ochromonas, and Monochrysis. Firstly, the dominance maymight be due to the adaptation to low nutrient availability; - Chrysophyta have been well represented mostly in oligo and mesotrophic lakes from both the Maritime and Continental regions (Allende 2009; Allende and Izaguirre 2003; Izaguirre et al., 2020; Richards et al., 2005) the relatively high surface to volume ratio contributes to the uptake of nutrients at low concentrations, Which have been reported in high latitude polar lakes (Charvet et al., 2012)— Secondly, Chrysophyta still retained high cell densitykeeps a high proportion under low light conditions, as they eancould adapt to changing light conditions (Yubuki et al., 2008). Furthermore, Chrysophyta iswas mixotrophic and even eancould swim, which allowsed them to get available nutrients from other microorganisms, reducing the need for dissolved nutrients in the water

433 (Katechakis and Stibor 2006; Pick and Lean 1984). In addition, when the
434 environmental conditions changed dramatically, such as freezing and nutrient changes,
435 Chrysophyta eancould form cysts (Nicholls 1995), protecting cells from resisting an
436 unsuitable environment. All these aspects makemade Chrysophyta hashave the
437 advantage to be the predominant species in the five Antarctic lakes.

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Chlorophyta was the second most dominant taxon in our study (13.9415.17%~ <del>35.37</del><u>35.88</u>%), containing mainly Monomastix, Chlamydomonas, and Mantoniella Raphidonema. Chlorophyta is was typically represented by flagellated species such as *Chlamydomonas* spp., which dominate the phytoplankton communities in different trophic statuses and respond to adverse environmental conditions by forming temporary, non-swimming cell populations encased in a gelatinous mother cell membrane by forming temporary groups (Allende and Mataloni 2013; Izaguirre et al., 2003; Toro et al., 2007). Several unicellular algae cancould mix acid fermentation, and some obligate photoautotrophic species responded by photoacclimation processes involving the accumulation of chlorophyll to increase the light capture efficiency (Atteia et al., 2013; Morgan-Kiss et al., 2016). These characteristics might partially be explained how Chlorophyta survived and occupied a specific advantage of the important reason in lakes we studied.

Cryptophyta was the third dominant taxon observed. Indeed, their dominance has been interpreted as evidence of heterotrophic growth in winter and mixotrophic throughout the year (Unrein et al., 2014). Cryptophyta dominatesd under perennially ice-covered and coastal saline lakes in continental Antarctica. The ingestion of bacteria by mixotrophic Cryptophyta has been observed in two perennially ice-covered lakes (Fryxell and Hoare) in the McMurdo Dry Valleys (Roberts and Laybourn-Parry 1999).

Compared with other aquatic ecosystems (Hernandez-Ruiz et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020b), the diversity of microbial eukaryotes in Antarctic lakes was significantly lower (Shannon 2.061.70~3.263.50, OTUsrichness 151113~244268).

The diversity of microorganisms reported decreases from mid-latitude to the poles (Santos et al., 2020). The isolation and harsh conditions, especially the lower temperatures and nutrients, prevailing in Antarctic lakes accounted for a low microbial eukaryotic diversity. In addition, the species-area relationships model (SAR) states that increased species number with increasing habitat area within a specific area (Ma 2018). An increase in the ice-free area drastically modifiesd biodiversity (Duffy et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2017; Pertierra et al., 2017). Our results supported the SAR model, observing more alpha diversity—and—richness in CH and KT, where habitat areas were much larger than the YY and YO.

## 4.2 Influence of environmental factors on the community

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Previous great efforts have demonstrated that abiotic factors affect microbial diversity and community composition (Quiroga et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2017). Our study found that only water temperature WT and PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3</sup> waswere a significant driving factors for community change among the abiotic factors analyzed. Some microorganisms have evolved to grow under a defined temperature, allowing differences in temperature adaptation of different species (Wilkins et al., 2013). Water temperature WT has become a major driving factor for changes in microbial eukaryotic communitiesy variations by regulating cellular activity and metabolic rates (Margesin and Miteva 2011). The retreat of glaciers due to global warming had the risk of reducing the abundance and diversity of microorganisms, and more attention should be paid to the impact of water temperature changes on community structure (Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2021). The water temperature WT in the YO lakes was significantly higher than in the other lakes, and YO clustered into a separate clade (Fig. 5b). Microorganisms have been highly sensitive to nutrients, and nutrients were important factors of community differences in microbial eukaryotes in different areas (Zouari et al., 2018). PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> has been demonstrated to be one of the environmental variables that "best" explained the picoeukaryotic distributions in the Western Pacific Ocean (Liu et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, a small amount of community variation could be explained by measured environmental variables in our analysis. This indicated that these environmental factors played a minor role in shaping microbial eukaryotic community structure. There were many unexplained variations (Fig. 5), and some possible causes have been indicated. Firstly, it was not easy to obtain all environmental factors, and some important factors might exist that were not fully obtained or taken into account in the current study (Wang et al., 2020a). Firstly, the nonconsecutive of environmental factors among different expedition seasons was deficient in our study. There are were also many vital abiotic factors in Antarctic freshwater lakes, including solar cycle, light availability, ice cover (thickness and duration), physical changes as snow melts and mixes, and hydrological changes (Allende and Izaguirre 2003; Lizotte 2008). Secondly, the relationship between microorganisms (symbiotic or competitive) cannot couldn't be quantified, which iswas an essential factor influencing community structure. Predation pressure manifested itself in lakes as a top-down control of microbial eukaryotes (Blomqvist 1997). Thirdly, stochastic processes such as ecological drift (birth, death) may might cause unexplained community variation (Zhang et al., 2018).

# 4.3 Co-occurrence patterns and keystone taxa

Network analysis could help us understand complex biological interactions and ecological rules for community assembly within a specific ecological niche (Li and Hu 2021; Lupatini et al., 2014). Microorganisms form various ecological relationships, ranging from mutualism to competition, ultimately shaping microbial abundances (Faust and Raes 2012). Positive associations in a network often indicate common preferred environmental conditions or niche-overlapping, whereas negative associations mean competition or niche division (Faust and Raes 2012). By analyzing the network, we found that the positive correlations were much more than the negative correlations in the co-occurrence network (8782% vs. 1318%), revealing that assumed positive relationships (e.g. due to cross-feeding, niche overlap, mutualism

and/or commensalism) might exhibit a more important role than negative relationships (e.g. predator-prey, host-parasite and/or competition) (Chen and Wen 2021) in studied Antarctic lake ecosystem. Similar result has been found in small planktonic eukaryotes (0.2~20 µm) inhabiting surface waters of a coastal upwelling system (Hernandez-Ruiz et al., 2018). Notwithstanding, further studies are necessary to corroborate the biological interactions and other nonrandom processes (for example, cross-feeding versus niche overlap) between species pairs detected by network analyses, indicating that species coexistence was achieved mainly by symbiotic relationships between species. In addition, only 8% OTUs were significantly correlated with environmental factors, suggesting that microbial eukaryotes had a relatively lower response to environmental factors and these could might weaken the role of environment selection in community assembly. Previous studies have shown the high response of microbial eukaryotic communities to mid-and late-stage diatom blooms promotes deterministic processes (Hou et al., 2020).

In co occurrence networks, keystone species play a critical role in maintaining the structure and function of the microbial community, and the loss of essential species may lead to the fracturing of networks (Zhang et al., 2022). (Xue et al., 2018)The keystone species in this study belonged mainly to Chlorophyta, Chrysophyta, Bacillariphyta, and Cercozoa. *Heteromita* has significant genetic variation and promotes bacterial degradation of alkylbenzenes through predation (Ekelund et al., 2004). *Spumella* is a heterotrophic microorganism commonly found in freshwater and soil (Boenigk et al., 2005). As mixed trophic organisms, *Ochromonas* prey on bacteria and are, therefore, a critical link between bacteria and higher trophic levels (Andersson et al., 1989). *Chloromonas* has motile trophic cells that can grow in the snow to give it a green color and, together with Chlamydomonas, are thought to have a strong carbon concentration mechanism (Hu 1998).(Belevich et al., 2020; Tragin and Vaulot 2019).

# 4.4 Community assembly processes

In general, deterministic and stochastic processes existed simultaneously in the community assembly (Chase 2010; He et al., 2021). Several factors such as habitat connectivity and size (Orrock and Watling 2010), productivity (Chase 2010), disturbance (Liang et al., 2020), predation (Chase et al., 2009), and resource availability (Kardol et al., 2013) influenced the relative importance of stochastic and deterministic processes in the community assembly. The importance of stochastic processes has been previously illustrated for other microbial eukaryotic communities from the aquatic ecosystem (Chen et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020a). The picoeukaryotic communities in the lower oxygen layer of Bengal Bay were dominated by stochastic processes (Chen et al., 2022). In our study, the results supported the prominent role of stochastic processes in shaping the microbial eukaryotic community assembly than deterministic processes. Hence, environmental variables explained only a small number of variations in our study's microbial eukaryotic community, and a small number of taxa were significantly correlated with environmental factors.

In our study, the microbial eukaryotic community showed a good fit (57%) to the neutral model (Fig. 6a), which suggested community variation couldean be explained by stochastic processes such as birth, death, and migration to a large extent. The NCM also attributed the observed patterns of community assembly to different population behavior (Zhang et al., 2021b). The NCM separated taxa into three groups, and these groups were different in community structure (Fig. 6), which was similar to the result of microbial eukaryotic community in the Middle Route Project of the South-to-North Water Diversion Project channel (Zhang et al., 2021b), indicating these taxa might differ in their adaptability to the environment or dispersal rate (Chen et al., 2019). In addition, the neutral group contributed a high proportion to both abundance (90.486.4%) and richness (79.780.0%) in our study. In a subtropical river, the neutral group also dominated the microbial eukaryotic community in terms of richness and abundance (Chen et al., 2019). Similar results in this study suggested that microbial

eukaryotes in this study were more susceptible to stochastic processes.

Furthermore, the null model results showed that stochastic processes (mainly homogenizing dispersal and undominated process) dominated the community assembly (Fig. 6c). The importance of stochastic processes has been previously illustrated by the microeukaryotic communities of lakes in East Antarctica (Logares et al., 2018). Abrupt changes in environmental conditions can affect the relative contribution of community assembly processes. For example, increasing the nutrients and regulating ecological scheduling (Chan et al., 2002; Jiang and Patel 2008; Liu et al., 2019), perennial fertilization in the soil (Liang et al., 2020), and the activities of long term cultivation of rice fields (Liu et al., 2020b) all have cause changes in the relative contribution of stochastic and deterministic processes. It has been believed that if changing environmental factors are not significant or do not force selection on species, stochastic processes still dominate (Zhou et al., 2014). (Lei et al., 2021)The extreme environmental conditions over a long period might lessen the ecological selection pressure on microeukaryotes. Furthermore, the explanation for the dominance of the stochastic process might also be due to the long-term adaptation of species to the environment, which leads to a low response, as also confirmed by the fungal community assembly (Powell et al., 2015).

Our study's microeukaryotic community tended to homogenize during dispersal, and the community compositions were relatively stable. The importance of stochastic processes has been previously illustrated by the microbial eukaryotic communities of lakes in East Antarctica (Logares et al., 2018). Antarctic freshwater lakes can receive external microbial colonies by the input of microorganisms from the surrounding ice melt, atmospheric transport, human activities, or bird migration (Unrein et al., 2005). Water bodies have been reported occupied with a high proportion of homogenizing Homogenizing dispersal occupied a high proportion in water bodies (Zeng et al., 2019), and the similar result was found in our study. Most microorganisms detected in the sea also have been found present in lakes in East Antarctica, pointing to that some

marine taxa in the lake <u>maycould</u> be the product of homogenizing dispersal from the ocean to the lake (Logares et al., 2018). In addition, the lakes were covered in ice for most of the year and were limited by geographical distance, resulting in the dispersal limitation of microorganisms (2.860.95%). Undominant processes accounted for 32.3840.00% of community assembly in our study, including ecological drift and other complex processes that have not been fully quantified, such as weak selection and diffusion (Mo et al., 2018a), suggesting that microbial eukaryotic communities might be formed by some highly complex assembly mechanisms in Antarctic freshwater lakes.

### **5 Conclusion**

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In conclusion, the unique microbial eukaryotic community structure and low alpha diversity (richness and Shannon index) were demonstrated inthe microeukaryotic community was dominated by phytoplankton, mainly Chrysophyta, Chlorophyta, and Cryptophyta, with spatial and temporal variation in the relative abundance of dominant taxa from five freshwater lakes on the Fildes Peninsula, Antarctica. This study highlighted the first time the iImportance of stochastic processes and co-occurrence patterns in shaping the microbial eukaryotic community of this area were proved. WT and PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> were identified as important driving factors for variation of community structure (P<0.05). The environmental variables explained only about 30% of the community variation. Microbial interactions were predominantly symbiotic, indicating common preferred environmental conditions or niche overlapping. Stochastic processes played a very prominent role in microbial eukaryotic community assembly, and the low response to environmental factors might enhance the proportion of stochastic processes. Our study provides a better understanding of the dynamic patterns and ecological processes of microbial eukaryotic community structure in Antarctic oligotrophic lakes (Fildes Peninsula).

#### **Data Availability Statement**

The raw 18S reads have been deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive

628	database with the accession numbers of PRJNA805287 SRP359325.
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630	Conceptualization: Chunmei Zhang and Yonghong Bi. Methodology: Chunmei
631	Zhang and Wei Luo. Molecular technique: Huirong Li. Physico-chemical properties:
632	Bin Wang, Yangjie Li, and Zhongqiang Ji. Sample collection: Yinxin Zeng and
633	Haitao Ding. Funding acquisition: Yonghong Bi and Wei Luo. Supervision: Yonghong
634	Bi and Wei Luo. Writing - original draft: Chunmei Zhang. Writing - review & editing:
635	Yonghong Bi and Wei Luo.
636	Competing interests
637	The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
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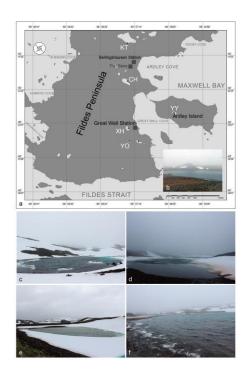
## **Figure Captions** 1104 1105 Fig. 1 (a) Location of the five studied lakes in Fildes Peninsula, King George Island, 1106 Antarctica, (b) Lake Xi Hu (XH), (c) Lake Yan Ou (YO), (d) Lake Chang Hu (CH), (e) 1107 Lake Yue Ya (YY), (f) Lake Kitec (KT). 1108 Fig.2 Comparison of microbial eukaryotic community composition. (a) Temporal and 1109 spatial dynamics of relative abundance on Phylum level in five lakes from 2017 to 1110 2019. 17, 18, and 19 expedition season of 2017/2018, 2018/2019, and 2019/2020, 1111 respectively. (b) Differential analysis of microbial eukaryotes in different lakes. Lakes 1112 that showed no significant differences were not shown (P>0.05). (c)Temporal and 1113 spatial dynamics of relative abundance on Genus level in five lakes. (Note: \*\*P < 0.01, 1114 \*P < 0.05). (Chlorophyta: Aphelida, Atractomorpha, Chlamydomonas, Chloromonas, 1115 Mantoniella, Chlorella, Chlorothrix, Choricystis, Crustomastix, Microglena, 1116 Monomastix, Nannochloris, Raphidonema; Chrysophyta: Chrysosphaerell, Hydrurus, 1117 Mallomonas, Monochrysis, Ochromonas, Paraphysomonas, Spumella, Synura, 1118 Tessellaria; Cryptophyta: Komma; Haptophyta: Diacronema; Pyrrophyta: 1119 *Heterocapsa*; Glissomonadida Cercozoa: *Heteromita*. The relative abundance at any 1120 lake was less than 1% was defined as others). 1121 Fig. 3 Microbial diversity and Venn diagram in different years and lakes. (a, b) 1122 variations in the number of microbial OTUs; (c, d) variations in microbial Shannon 1123 index; (e, f) variations in within-community nearest-taxon index (NTI); (g, h) Venn 1124 diagram showing the unique and shared operational taxonomic units (OTUs). 1125 Homogeneity and one-way ANOVA analysis of variance was used to test the indices' 1126 significance. "ns" represents no significant differences (P>0.05). The significant 1127 differences (P<0.05) were indicated by different alphabet letters between lakes, and 1128 lakes contained the same alphabet letters showed no significant difference (P>0.05)

**Fig. 4** Temporal variability analysis of Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of microbial eukaryotic communities (a) and clustering of five lakes based on similarity (b).

**Fig.5** The effect of environmental variables on microbial eukaryotic communities, and co-occurrence pattern. Canonical correlation analysis plots(a) and variance partitioning analysis (b), respectively. Sal: salinity; WT: water temperature; NO<sub>2</sub> -N: nitrite nitrogen; PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>—P: phosphate phosphate phosphorus. \*\* P < 0.01. (c) Networks analysis revealing the interspecies associations between microbial eukaryotic OTUs, and the correlation between environmental factors and OTUs in lakes integrated networks. The size of each OTUs or environmental factor (node) is proportional to the degree centrality. Others: other phyla and unclassified taxa.

**Fig.6** Relative influences of deterministic and stochastic processes on microbial eukaryotic community assembly based on the neutral community model (NCM) and the null model. (a) Fit of the neutral community model (NCM) of community assembly. Nm indicates the metacommunity size, and R<sup>2</sup> indicates the fit to the neutral model. Neutral prediction is within 95% confidence interval (black), while non-neutral processes include above and below prediction (dark green and red). (b) Proportions in richness and abundance of the three groups (above prediction, below prediction, and neutral prediction) based on the NCM. (c) Composition of the three groups in abundance for microbial eukaryotic community. (d) β-nearest-taxon index (βNTI) range of community. (d) Null model analysis revealing the fraction of ecological processes. The percent of community assembly is governed primarily by various deterministic processes, including homogenous and heterogeneous selections and stochastic processes, including dispersal limitations and homogenizing dispersal and undominated processes (mainly ecological drift).

## **Fig. 1**



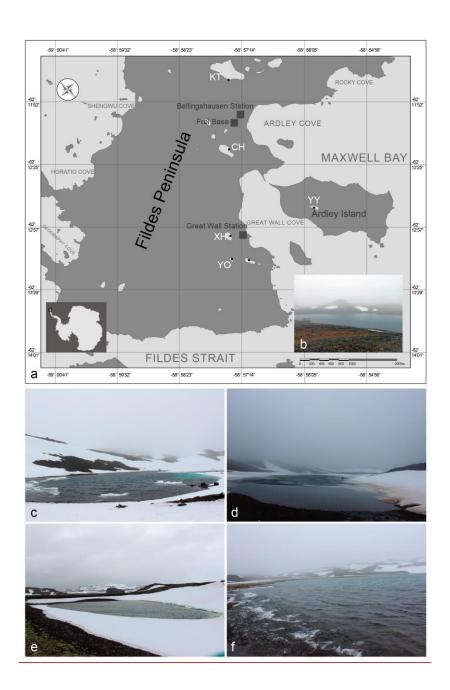
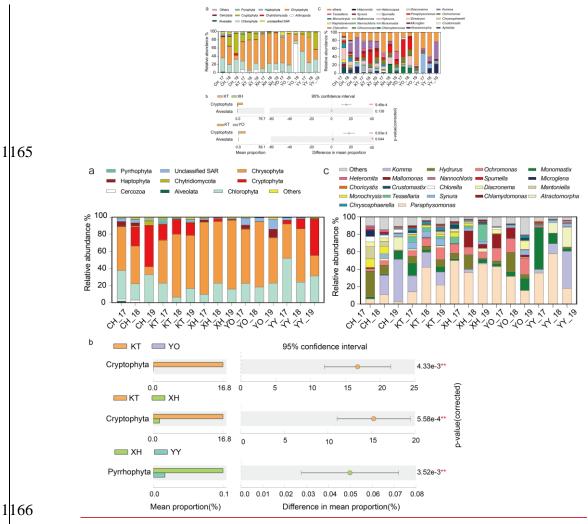


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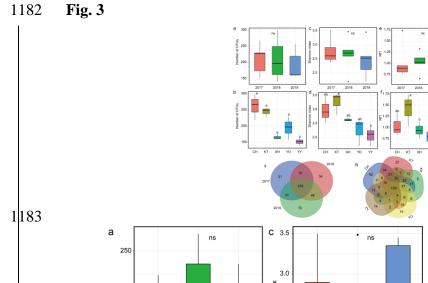


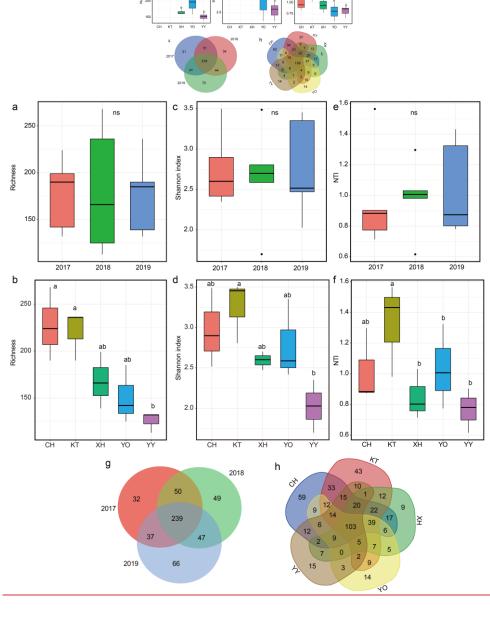


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Fig.2 Comparison of microbial eukaryotic community composition. (a)Temporal and spatial dynamics of relative abundance on phylum level in five lakes from 2017 to 2019. 17, 18, and 19 expedition season of 2017/2018, 2018/2019, and 2019/2020, respectively. (b) Differential analysis of microbial eukaryotes in different lakes. Lakes that showed no significant differences were not shown(*P*>0.05). (c)Temporal and spatial dynamics of relative abundance on genus level in five lakes. (Note: \*\**P* < 0.01, \**P* < 0.05). (Chlorophyta: *Aphelida*, *Atractomorpha*, *Chlamydomonas*, *Chloromonas*, *Chlorothrix*, *Monomastix*, *Chlorella*, *Choricystis*, *Crustomastix*, *Microglen*, *Monomastix*, *Nannochloris*, *Raphidonema*; Chrysophyta: *Chrysosphaerell*, *Hydrurus*, *Mallomonas*, *Monochrysis*, *Ochromonas*, *Paraphysomonas*, *Spumella*, *Synura*,

1178 Tessellaria; Cryptophyta: Komma; Haptophyta: Diacronema; Pyrrophyta:
1179 Heterocapsa; Glissomonadida Cercozoa: Heteromita. The relative abundance at any
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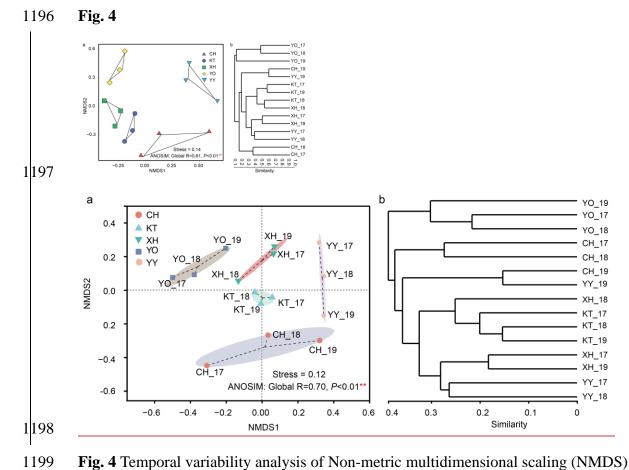
**Fig.3** Microbial diversity and Venn diagram in different years and lakes. (a, b) variations in microbial OTUsrichness. (c, d) variations in microbial Shannon index. (e, f) variations in within-community nearest-taxon index (NTI). (g, h) Venn diagram showing the unique and shared operational taxonomic units (OTUs). Homogeneity and one-way ANOVA analysis of variance was used to test the indices' significance.

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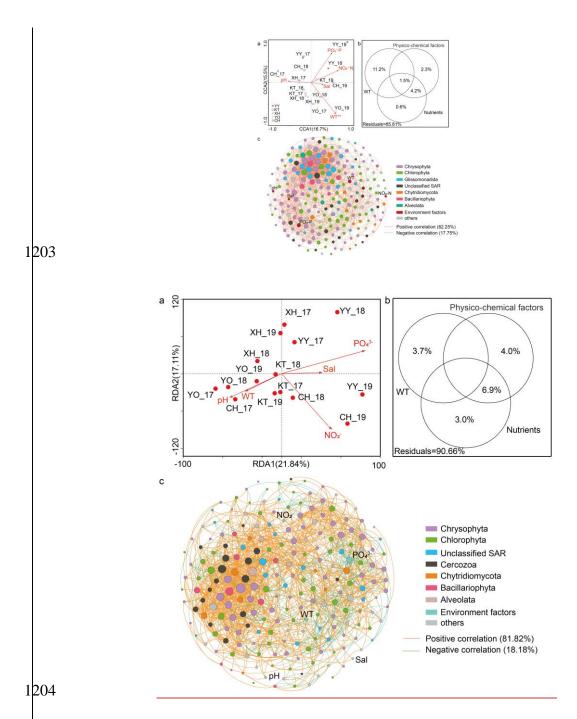
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- 1211 Others: other phyla and unclassified taxa.

## **Fig. 6**

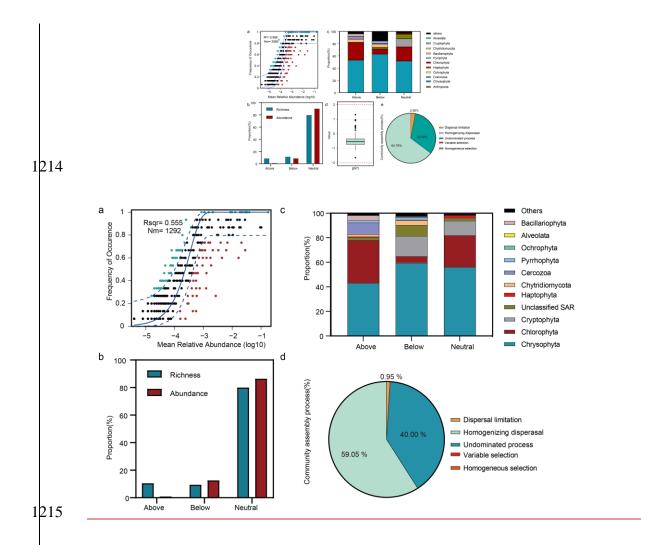


Fig.6 Relative influences of deterministic and stochastic processes on microbial eukaryotic community assembly based on the neutral community model (NCM) and the null model. (a) Fit of the neutral community model (NCM) of community assembly. Nm indicates the metacommunity size, and  $R^2$  indicates the fit to the neutral model. Neutral prediction is within 95% confidence interval (black), while non-neutral processes include above and below prediction (dark green and red). (b) Proportions in richness and abundance of the three groups (above prediction, below prediction, and neutral prediction) based on the NCM. (c) Composition of the three groups in abundance for microbial eukaryotic community. (d) β-nearest-taxon index (βNTI) range of community. (ed) Null model analysis revealing the fraction of

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