

1 **Diversity and assembly processes of microbial eukaryotic**
2 **communities in Fildes Peninsula Lakes (West Antarctica)**

3 Chunmei Zhang^{a,b}, Huirong Li^{a,c,d}, Yinxin Zeng^{a,c,d}, Haitao Ding^{a,c,d}, Bin Wang^e,
4 Yangjie Li^e, Zhongqiang Ji^e, Yonghong Bi^{b*}, Wei Luo^{a,c,d*}

5 ^a Key Laboratory for Polar Science, Polar Research Institute of China, Ministry of
6 Natural Resources, Shanghai 200136, China

7 ^b State Key Laboratory of Freshwater Ecology and Biotechnology, Institute of
8 Hydrobiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan 430072, China

9 ^c Antarctic Great Wall Ecology National Observation and Research Station, Polar
10 Research Institute of China, Ministry of Natural Resources, Shanghai 200136, China

11 ^d School of Oceanography, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200030, China

12 ^e Key Laboratory of Marine Ecosystem Dynamics, Second Institute of Oceanography,
13 Ministry of Natural Resources, Hangzhou 310012, China

14 ***Corresponding Author:** biyh@ihb.ac.cn, luowei@pric.org.cn

15

16 **Abstract**

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 investigate the microbial eukaryotic communities of five freshwater
21 lakes on the Fildes Peninsula over three summer seasons. A total of 28 phyla were
22 detected, with phytoplankton occupying the highest percentage of sequences
23 (accounting for up to 98%). The dominant taxa consisted of Chrysophyta,
24 Chlorophyta, and Cryptophyta. The species richness (113–268) and Shannon index
25 (1.70–3.50) varied among the lakes, with higher values recorded in Lake Chang Hu
26 and Lake Kitec and the lowest value obtained for Lake Yue Ya. There were significant
27 differences between the microbial eukaryotic communities of the lakes, with spatial
28 and temporal heterogeneity in the relative abundance of the dominant taxa ($P < 0.05$).
29 Environmental variables explained about 39% of the variation in community
30 structures, with water temperature and phosphate identified as the driving factors
31 ($P < 0.05$). Network analysis revealed comprehensive co-occurrence relationships
32 (positive correlation 82% vs. negative correlation 18%). The neutral community
33 model revealed that neutral processes explained more than 55% of the community
34 variation. Stochastic processes (e.g., homogenising dispersal and undominated
35 processes) predominated in community assembly over the deterministic processes.
36 These findings demonstrate the diversity of the microbial eukaryotic communities in
37 the freshwater lakes of the Fildes Peninsula and have important implications for
38 understanding the community assembly in these ecosystems.

39 **Keywords:** Microbial eukaryotic communities; Diversity; Co-occurrence network;
40 Stochastic processes; Fildes Peninsula lakes.

41 **1 Introduction**

42 The Fildes Peninsula—which makes up the southwestern end of King George
43 Island, South Shetland Islands, Antarctica—is home to a relatively high density of
44 scientific research stations. The peninsula is commonly ice-free throughout the austral
45 summer, making it the largest ice-free area (40 km²) on King George Island. Located
46 within the maritime Antarctic, the peninsula experiences 400-600 mm of precipitation
47 each year and has an average annual temperature of -3°C (Holdgate, 1977).
48 Nevertheless, permafrost and periglacial processes also occur in the region (Barsch
49 and Caine, 1984). Lakes on the Fildes Peninsula, along with those found in other ice-
50 free areas of Antarctica, represent the year-round liquid water reservoirs on the
51 continent (Priscu, 2010; Lyons et al., 2007). The availability and quality of water are
52 impacted by sea conditions, macro-fauna usage, and anthropogenic influences, such
53 as solid, volatile, and fluid waste production and disposal (Kawecka et al., 1998).
54 Antarctic lake systems are sentinels for climate change and host globally-relevant
55 microbes and biogeochemical cycles (Marsh et al., 2020; Wilkins et al., 2013), thus
56 making a more complete understanding of the processes shaping microbial
57 communities there a priority. Moreover, the physical stability observed in these lakes
58 makes them a good model system for interrogating biogeochemical processes within
59 water columns (Comeau et al., 2012).

60 Microbial eukaryotes (0.2–20 μm, pico-/nanoeukaryotes) are important
61 components in microbial food webs and play a significant role in the biogeochemical
62 cycles (Massana et al., 2015; Unrein et al., 2014; Grob et al., 2007), as well as
63 contributing to plankton biomass and carbon export (Hernandez-Ruiz et al., 2018;
64 Leblanc et al., 2018). However, microbial eukaryotes are generally difficult to study
65 due to their small size and common lack of distinguishing morphological features,
66 especially among pico- and nanoeukaryotes. A molecular approach can be used to
67 compensate for the lack of traditional microscopic methods, providing us with a
68 convenient way to study these small-sized eukaryotes. The application of 18S rRNA

69 gene-based molecular tools has revealed a high taxonomic diversity of microbial
70 eukaryotes in some oligotrophic and extreme regions (Richards et al., 2005; Zhao et
71 al., 2011; Marquardt et al., 2016). Nevertheless, previous research exploring the
72 molecular diversity and the population fluctuations in these far cold and oligotrophic
73 lakes of Antarctica is limited.

74 The small size, short generation time, quick reflection of environmental
75 conditions and genetic plasticity of microbial eukaryotes make them excellent
76 bioindicators reflecting environmental disturbances and the quality of ecosystems
77 (Karimi et al., 2017; Bouchez et al., 2016). A previous study revealed the presence of
78 Alveolates and Dinoflagellates among small deep-sea Antarctic plankton eukaryotes
79 (0.2–5 μm) and demonstrated that their diversity was affected by temperature and
80 salinity (Lopez-Garcia et al., 2001). Microscopic observations have also been used to
81 show that diatoms in the lakes of Fildes Peninsula region accounted for 59.8% of the
82 total number of phytoplankton species, and that water temperature and nutrients
83 resulted in the variations in nano-and microphytoplankton abundance and
84 composition (Zhu et al., 2010). A relatively low number of taxa, such as *Nitzschia*,
85 *Achnanthes*, and *Navicula*, etc., have also been investigated from periodically
86 brackish water ponds near the Polish Antarctic Station on King George Island, whose
87 abundance were influenced by the nutrients in the water (Kawecka et al., 1998).
88 Indeed, the microphytoplankton communities of the shallow lakes of the Antarctic
89 Peninsula, are influenced by nutrients and surrounding inputs (Mataloni et al., 2000).
90 Although several studies on other regions have explored the fluctuations of microbial
91 eukaryotes and their relationship with environmental factors, the spatio-temporal
92 variation, co-occurrence pattern, and community assembly of microbial eukaryotes in
93 Antarctic (Fildes Peninsula) freshwater lakes have been rarely investigated.

94 Deterministic and stochastic processes are considered the two main ecological
95 processes in community assembly (Ofiteru et al., 2010). Deterministic processes are
96 based on the ecological niche theory; some deterministic factors (environmental

97 conditions and species interactions) influence and determine community assembly
98 (Powell et al., 2015). Stochastic processes are based on the neutral theory, which
99 states that random birth or death, drift, and dispersal events also play an essential role
100 in community assembly (Bahram et al., 2016). Deterministic processes are prevalent
101 in building whole ecosystem communities (Liu et al., 2020) where selection leads to
102 species classification, and applying similar habitats thus results in similar community
103 assemblages. However, other studies have supported an important role of stochastic
104 processes (e.g., drift and dispersal) in community assembly, where dispersal is the
105 movement of species over spatial locations and drift is associated with the relative
106 abundance of the species (Massana and Logares, 2013; Wu et al., 2019). Stochastic
107 processes have been shown to account for up to 95% of the microbial eukaryotic
108 community assembly in a set of lakes in Eastern Antarctica (Logares et al., 2018).
109 Stochastic processes have also been found to prevail in micro-and nanoplankton
110 eukaryotic communities in the intertidal zones of southeast Fujian, China (Kong et al.,
111 2019). Nonetheless, the study of microbial eukaryotic community assembly processes
112 in Antarctica still requires further investigations for a more comprehensive view.

113 Few studies have been conducted on the microbial eukaryotic diversity and
114 community assembly processes of the freshwater lakes on the Fildes Peninsula,
115 Antarctica. Our study attempted to analyze the microbial eukaryotic samples of five
116 freshwater lakes collected over three summers using high-throughput 18S rRNA
117 sequencing. We aimed to (I) understand the diversity and co-occurrence of microbial
118 eukaryotes and (II) explore the influencing factors and their community assembly
119 processes.

120 **2 Material and Method**

121 **2.1 Study area, sample collection and measurement of environmental** 122 **variables**

123 Field samples were collected on the 34th (2017/2018), 35th (2018/2019), and
124 36th (2018/2019) Chinese Antarctic Research Expedition (CHINARE) in January

125 2018 (34th), December 2018 (35th), and December 2019 (36th). The investigations
126 were conducted in the Chinese Great Wall Station area on King George Island, the
127 largest of the South Shetland Islands. Surface water samples were collected from five
128 lakes, namely Chang Hu (CH), Kitec (KT), Xi Hu (XH), Yan Ou (YO), and Yue Ya
129 (YY) (Fig. 1). Moreover, the physio-chemical parameters of water samples were
130 measured synchronously.

131 CH has a narrow strip shape, surrounded by bulges, with major inputs from
132 surrounding glacial melting water. KT is the closest to the Corinthian ice cap and is
133 the source of drinking water for the Chilean station, occurring close to the airport for
134 access to the Fildes Peninsula. KT is the largest lake in the investigated area. XH is
135 the drinking water source area for the Chinese Great Wall Station. YO is surrounded
136 by mountains and is snow-covered, with moss and lichen growing in the soil; it is the
137 smallest lake in the area of investigation and is relatively sensitive to the effects of
138 scientific expeditions. YY, situated on Ardley Island, is situated far from human
139 activities but the chemistry of its waters is influenced by the excrements of penguins
140 dwelling on the island.

141 Water temperature (WT), pH, and salinity (Sal) were measured using an
142 RBRconcerto C.T.D (Canada). In addition to the in-situ measurements, a water
143 sample obtained 0.5 m below the surface was collected at each monitoring site using a
144 5 L plexiglass sampler. For measurements of chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) contents, 1 L water
145 samples were filtered using GF/F filters (0.70 μm , Whatman), and Chl *a* was then
146 extracted with 90% acetone over 24 h and measured spectrophotometrically. Nutrients,
147 including ammonia (NH_4^+), nitrite (NO_2^-), silicate (SiO_3^{2-}), and phosphate (PO_4^{3-})
148 were measured spectrophotometrically with a San⁺⁺ continuous flow auto-analyser
149 (Skalar, the Netherlands) after filtering following the procedure described by Hansen
150 and Koroleff (1999).

151 2.2 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and Illumina MiSeq

152 1 L surface water was collected and prefiltered through a 20 μm mesh sieve to

153 remove most of the mesozooplankton and large particles, then directly filtered
154 through a 0.2 µm pore size nucleopore membrane filter (Whatman). The filters were
155 frozen at -80°C in CTAB buffer prior to the laboratory experiments. The DNA
156 extraction was performed as described by Luo et al. (2015).

157 PCR was performed using primers by barcode flanking the hypervariable V4
158 region of the 18S rRNA gene: 3NDf (Charvet et al., 2012) with the reverse primer
159 V4_euk_R2 (Brate et al., 2010). The PCRs were conducted in 20 µL reactions with
160 0.2 µM of each primer, 10 ng of template DNA, 1 × PCR buffer, and 2.5 U of Pfu
161 DNA Polymerase (Promega, USA). The amplification program consisted of an initial
162 denaturation step at 95 °C for 2 mins, followed by 30 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 55°C
163 for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, and a final extension of 72 °C for 5 min. The PCR
164 product was extracted from 2% agarose gel and purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel
165 Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, CA, USA) according to
166 manufacturer's instructions and quantified using a Quantus™ Fluorometer (Promega,
167 USA). Purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar and paired-end sequenced (2×
168 300) on an Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, USA) according to the
169 standard protocols described by Wefind Biotechnology Co., Ltd. (Wuhan, China).

170 The raw 18S rRNA gene sequencing reads were demultiplexed, quality-filtered
171 by fastp version 0.20.0 (Chen et al., 2018) and merged by FLASH version 1.2.7
172 (Magoc and Salzberg, 2011) with the following criteria: (i) the 300 bp reads were
173 truncated at any site receiving an average quality score of <20 over a 50 bp sliding
174 window, and the truncated reads shorter than 50 bp were discarded, reads containing
175 ambiguous characters were also discarded; (ii) only overlapping sequences longer
176 than 10 bp were assembled according to their overlapped sequence. The maximum
177 mismatch ratio of overlap region is 0.2. Reads that could not be assembled were
178 discarded; (iii) Samples were distinguished according to the barcode and primers, and
179 the sequence direction was adjusted, exact barcode matching, 2 nucleotide mismatch
180 in primer matching.

181 Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with a 97% similarity cutoff were clustered
182 using UPARSE version 7.1 (Edgar, 2013), and chimeric sequences were identified and
183 removed. The taxonomy of each representative sequence was analyzed by RDP
184 Classifier version 2.2 (Wang et al., 2007) against the 18S rRNA database (Silva v138)
185 (Quast et al., 2013) using a confidence threshold of 0.7.

186 The analysis of the OTUs obtained using the UPARSE clustering method have
187 been widely used for high-throughput sequencing analysis (Gad et al., 2022; Xu et al.,
188 2022; Zhang et al., 2022; Reboul et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2022). Some of the diversity
189 indices in our study were more comparable to previous research using 97% sequence
190 similarity OTUs (Chen et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020b), as
191 comparisons of these statistics using the same bioinformatics tool seem to remain
192 persuasive (Li et al., 2019; Glassman and Martiny, 2018).

193 A total of 726,700 valid sequences of the 18S rRNA gene in all samples were
194 obtained, and the average length of the acquired reads was 443 base pairs. The OTUs,
195 classified as metazoa, unassigned and unclassified sequences, were filtered based on
196 taxonomic metadata. Finally, the sequences were normalised at the lowest sequences
197 depth and rarefied at 16,717 reads, yielding a total of 520 OTUs, distributed among
198 28 phyla. The Good's coverage values were above 99.9%, confirming that the
199 libraries could represent most species in these lakes, with rarefaction curves reaching
200 saturation (Fig. S1).

201 2.3 Community composition and diversity

202 The richness and Shannon index (H) were measured using the “vegan” R
203 package based on the OTUs table, respectively. The nearest-taxon index (NTI) was
204 used to measure the degree of phylogenetic clustering of the taxa on a within-
205 community scale for communities. High or positive values indicated clustering taxa
206 across the overall phylogeny, while lower negative values indicated an overdispersion
207 of taxa across the phylogeny (Horner-Devine and Bohannan, 2006). The NTI
208 quantifies the number of standard deviations that the observed mean nearest taxon

209 distance (MNTD) is from the mean of the null distribution with 999 randomisations
210 determined in the “Picante” R package.

211 The non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of the microbial eukaryotic
212 communities was performed using the relative abundance of OTUs (Roberts, 2013).
213 An Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) investigated differences in the microbial
214 eukaryotic communities between the groups. The unweighted pair-group method with
215 arithmetic means (UPGMA) was used to determine the similarity between the
216 samples using clustering analysis according to community composition similarity.
217 These analyses were performed in the “Vegan” and “Phangorn” R packages. All
218 calculations were based on similarity matrices (1-dissimilarity of the Bray–Curtis
219 distance metric).

220 2.4 Influencing factors of the community structure

221 The Canoco 4.5 software (Ter Braak and Smilauer, 2002) was used to rank
222 species and environmental factor data, and the ranking model was determined by the
223 de-trending correspondence analysis (DCA) of OTUs data. All environmental factors,
224 except pH, were $\log(x+1)$ transformed prior to analysis to improve normality and
225 homoscedasticity. To reduce multicollinearity among the environmental factors, all
226 variance inflation factors (VIFs) were kept below 10. The environmental factors
227 influencing the composition of the microbial eukaryotic community were selected by
228 999 Monte Carlo permutation tests at the significant level ($P < 0.05$). In addition, the
229 relative importance of water temperature, physicochemical factors, and nutrients was
230 assessed using the variation partitioning analysis (VPA).

231 2.5 Co-occurrence network analysis

232 We constructed one co-occurrence network based on the samples acquired over
233 the whole study period. To reduce the complexity of the data sets, OTUs occurring in
234 at least 5 samples were retained to construct the network. Only robust ($|r| > 0.6$) and
235 statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) correlations were incorporated into the network

236 analyses. Finally, the network was visualised by Gephi software (Bastian et al., 2009).

237 2.6 Ecological community assembly analysis

238 The neutral community model (NCM) was used to measure the potential role of
239 stochastic processes in the assembly of microbial eukaryotic communities based on
240 the relationship between the OTUs frequency and their relative abundance (Chen et
241 al., 2019), which was derived from neutral theory (Zhou et al., 2014). The parameter
242 N_m represents the metacommunity size, and R^2 represents the degree of fit to a
243 neutral community model.

244 The Stegen null model was used to further evaluate the contributions of
245 deterministic and stochastic processes to community assembly (Stegen et al., 2012).
246 The β -nearest taxon index (β NTI) was calculated using phylogenetic distance and
247 OTU abundance (Stegen et al., 2013; Webb et al., 2002). The relative contributions of
248 variable selection and homogeneous selection were estimated from the percentage of
249 pairwise comparisons whose β NTI were > 2 and < -2 , respectively. We further
250 calculated the Bray-Curtis-based Raup-Crick index (RC_{bray}) to investigate the
251 pairwise comparisons that deviated from the selection (Evans et al., 2017; Stegen et
252 al., 2013). When integrated with the value of $|RC_{\text{bray}}|$, the underlying community
253 assembly processes could represent a homogenizing dispersal ($|\beta\text{NTI}| < 2$ and RC_{bray}
254 < -0.95), dispersal limitation ($|\beta\text{NTI}| < 2$ and $RC_{\text{bray}} > +0.95$) and undominated
255 processes (i.e., weak selection, weak dispersal, diversification, and drift processes)
256 with $|\beta\text{NTI}| < 2$ and $|RC_{\text{bray}}| < 0.95$. The null community of all the samples was
257 randomised 999 times to obtain the average null expectations.

258 **3 Results**

259 3.1 Physicochemical properties

260 Water temperature ranged from 0.90°C to 7.14°C, and the water temperature in
261 YO was significantly higher than in the other lakes (Table S1, $P < 0.05$). Nutrients in
262 five lakes showed lower values of 0.00-0.15 μM (NO_2^-), 0.05-0.74 μM (NH_4^+) and

263 0.02-2.29 μM (PO_4^{3-}). Relatively higher and lower levels of nutrients were identified
264 in YY and XH, respectively. The lowest value of SiO_3^{2-} was recorded in YY (1.43 μM)
265 and the highest in CH (51.5 μM). The highest and lowest Chl *a* were reached in YY
266 and CH (2.11 and 0.25 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, respectively). pH showed minimum and maximum
267 values in YY (7.65) and CH (8.27). Sal values ranged from 0.00-0.14 PSU and were
268 significantly lower in YO than in the other lakes ($P < 0.05$).

269 3.2 Diversity and composition of microbial eukaryotic communities

270 A total of 9 dominant phyla were identified, accounting for over 98% of the
271 sequences. These dominant phyla mainly consisted of microbial eukaryotic
272 phytoplankton, with various relative abundances between different lakes (Fig. 2a).
273 Chrysophyta (34.91% in CH–78.88% in XH), Chlorophyta (15.17% in KT–35.88% in
274 YY), and Cryptophyta (0.01% in YO–23.71% in CH) were most abundant in the
275 studied lakes. Cryptophyta in KT was significantly more abundant than in XH and YO,
276 and Pyrrophyta in XH was significantly more abundant than in YY ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 2b).
277 Haptophyta represented 0.09% of the sequence in KT and up to 4.93% in YO;
278 Alveolates represented 0.02% of the sequence in XH and up to 1.00% in CH, while
279 unclassified Stramenopiles-Alveolates-Rhizaria (SAR) represented 1.12 % in XH and
280 8.05 % in YO.

281 The relative abundances of the dominant taxa in the same lake exhibited some
282 interannual variations. The relative abundances of Chrysophyta in CH₁₉, YO₁₉,
283 and YY₁₉ samples were lower than in the other samples, while the relative
284 abundances of Cryptophyta in CH₁₉ and YY₁₉ were lower than in the other
285 samples of CH and YY, respectively (Fig. 2a).

286 A total of 21 dominant genera were identified (Fig. 2c), accounting for over 87%
287 of the sequences. The dominant genera included *Hydrurus*, *Paraphysomonas*,
288 *Ochromonas*, *Synura*, and *Monochrysis* belonging to Chrysophyta, *Komma* in
289 Cryptophyta, *Monomastix*, *Chlamydomonas*, and *Mantoniella* belonging to
290 Chlorophyta.

291 As shown in Fig. 2c, the abundance of the dominant genera differed
292 interannually among the investigated lakes. The relative abundance of *Komma* varied
293 from 0 to 48.52%, which showed an increasing trend over the years in CH and YY.
294 The ranges of *Paraphysomonas* and *Ochromonas* were 3.06–56.88% and 0.06–
295 18.86%, showing an increase followed by a decrease in XH over the years. The
296 highest relative abundances of *Hydrurus* were in samples XH_18 and YO_18 than in
297 the other samples. *Ochromonas* in CH was significantly lower than in YO and XH
298 ($P<0.05$, Table S2).

299 The richness, Shannon index, and NTI exhibited interannual variations but
300 showed no significance ($P>0.05$) (Fig. 3a, c, e). The order of NTI and Shannon index
301 values all showed 2018>2017>2019; the species richness were highest during the
302 expedition season 2017 and lowest in 2018. The ranges of richness and Shannon
303 index were 113–268 and 1.70–3.50, respectively, with YY having the lowest values
304 which were significantly lower than in KT (Fig. 3b, d, $P<0.05$). The range of NTI was
305 0.62–1.56, with the lowest value recorded in YO which was significantly lower than
306 in KT (Fig. 3f, $P<0.05$). KT had the highest Shannon index, richness, and NTI, and
307 CH also exhibited relatively higher richness value (Fig. 3b, d, f).

308 The total number of OTUs shared between 2017-2019 was 239, and 32, 49, and
309 66 unique OTUs were identified for 2017, 2018, and 2019, respectively (Fig. 3g). The
310 total number of OTUs shared by the five lakes was 103, and 59 (CH),43 (KT),9
311 (XH),14 (YO), and 15 (YY) unique OTUs were distinguished among the lakes (Fig.
312 3h).

313 The NMDS results divided the samples into five clusters according to their
314 similarity of microbial eukaryotic community (stress value = 0.12) (Fig. 4a). In
315 addition, the ANOSIM based on Bray-Curtis distance indicated that the differences
316 between the lakes were significant (Global R = 0.70, $P<0.01$). Meanwhile, no
317 significant differences were detected by ANOSIM among the interannual variation
318 ($R=0.013$, $P=0.393$).

319 The UPGMA clustering analysis (Fig.4b) showed the same lakes in a different
320 year, such as CH_17 and CH_18, YY_17 and YY_18, YO_17 and YO_18 clustered
321 together. YO lake was distant from the other lakes and clustered into a separate group.

322 3.3 Driving factors and co-occurrence patterns

323 Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) demonstrated that the first two
324 sequencing axes explained 21.84% and 17.11% of the community variation,
325 respectively (Fig. 5a). The samples from the same lake were closer, with a more
326 similar community structure. More importantly, the Monte Carlo analysis confirmed
327 that the water temperature and PO_4^{3-} significantly affected the microbial eukaryotic
328 communities ($P < 0.05$). The VPA indicated that the monitored environmental factors
329 explained 9.34% of the microbial eukaryotic community variability among lakes, but
330 there was still a large amount of unexplained variation (90.66%, Fig. 5b).

331 A total of 220 nodes linked by 1521 edges comprised the microbial eukaryotic
332 community network. The majority of nodes in the network had many connections.
333 Notably, the positive associations among species were predominant in the network
334 (Fig. 5c), comprising with 81.82% of the associations, whereas the portion of negative
335 association was only 18.18%. In addition, the positive interactions were mainly found
336 within the same taxonomic affiliations, such as Chrysophyta, or between a few
337 different taxonomic affiliations, such as Chrysophyta and Chlorophyta. The negative
338 correlations on the other hand mainly were reflected between Chrysophyta and
339 Chlorophyta. Only around 8% of OTUs correlated directly with environmental factors
340 ($P < 0.05$). Meanwhile, only two of the top 20 OTUs with the highest degree centrality
341 were directly associated with environmental factors (water temperature and PO_4^{3-});
342 one belonged to Chrysophyta and the other to Chytridiomycota.

343 3.4 Community assembly processes

344 The Sloan neutral community model (NCM) showed the importance of neutral
345 processes for microbial eukaryotic communities (Fig. 6a), with the neutral processes

346 explaining 55.5% of the community variation. In addition, the NCM classified
347 microbial eukaryotic taxa into three groups (above prediction, below prediction, and
348 neutral prediction). In addition, compared to the above and below prediction groups,
349 we observed a higher contribution of neutral prediction group to community
350 abundance (86.4%) and richness (80%), which was dominated by Chrysophyta,
351 Chlorophyta, and Cryptophyta (Fig. 6b, c). The above prediction group accounted for
352 10.58% of the microbial eukaryotic richness but corresponded to only 0.96% of the
353 abundance, and was dominated by Chrysophyta, Chlorophyta, and Cercozoa.
354 Cryptophyta accounted for 16.58% of the abundance in the neutral prediction group
355 but was almost absent in the above prediction group. In contrast, Cercozoa was
356 present with a 9.38% abundance in the above prediction group, but only comprised
357 0.32% of the neutral prediction group.

358 The β NTI was mainly distributed in the region of stochastic processes with a
359 mean value of -0.48 and supported the results of the neutral model. The analysis of
360 community assembly processes showed that stochastic rather than deterministic
361 processes controlled the community assembly. Among them, homogenizing dispersal
362 dominated, with a proportion of 59.05%, followed by undominated processes and
363 dispersal limitation (Fig. 6d).

364 **4 Discussion**

365 **4.1 Dominant taxa and diversity**

366 The environmental conditions (e.g., low light and low nutrient contents, etc.) in
367 Antarctic freshwater lakes differ from those of temperate lakes. These special features
368 and their relative isolation has resulted in the development of unique communities and
369 survival strategies of the species adapted to such conditions (Pearce and Galand,
370 2008). In our study, the survival of taxa (Chrysophyta, Chlorophyta, and Cryptophyta)
371 might have depended on their survival strategies and adaptation to harsh conditions,
372 which allowed them to become the predominant species.

373 Chrysophyta dominated in the five lakes examined in our study, including

374 *Hydrurus*, *Paraphysomonas*, *Ochromonas*, and *Monochrysis*. First, their dominance
375 might have been due to their adaptation to a low nutrient availability. Chrysophyta
376 have been widely distributed in oligo- and mesotrophic lakes from both the maritime
377 and continental regions of Antarctica (Allende, 2009; Allende and Izaguirre, 2003;
378 Izaguirre et al., 2020; Richards et al., 2005). Secondly, Chrysophyta can still retained
379 a high cell density under low light conditions, since they can adapt to changing light
380 conditions (Yubuki et al., 2008). Furthermore, Chrysophyta is mixotrophic and can
381 even swim, allowing them to obtain available nutrients from other microorganisms,
382 and thus reducing the need for dissolved nutrients in the water (Pick and Lean, 1984;
383 Katechakis and Stibor, 2006). In addition, when environmental conditions change
384 dramatically, such as through freezing and nutrient changes, Chrysophyta can form
385 cysts (Nicholls, 1995), protecting their cells from resisting an unsuitable environment.
386 All these characteristics allow Chrysophyta to be the predominant species in the five
387 Antarctic lakes.

388 Chlorophyta was the second most dominant taxon in our study (15.17%–
389 35.88%), mainly consisting of the *Monomastix*, *Chlamydomonas*, and *Mantoniella*.
390 Chlorophyta was typically represented by flagellated species such as *Chlamydomonas*
391 spp., which dominate phytoplankton communities in different trophic statuses and
392 respond to adverse environmental conditions by forming temporary, non-swimming
393 cell populations encased in a gelatinous mother cell membrane (Izaguirre et al., 2003;
394 Allende and Mataloni, 2013; Toro et al., 2007). Several unicellular algae can undergo
395 mix acid fermentation, and some obligate photoautotrophic species can increase their
396 light capture efficiency through photoadaptation processes involving chlorophyll
397 accumulation (Morgan-Kiss et al., 2016; Atteia et al., 2013). These characteristics
398 might partially explain how Chlorophyta survived and occupied a specific advantage
399 in the lakes studied here.

400 Cryptophyta was the third most abundant taxon observed. Indeed, their
401 dominance has been interpreted as evidence of heterotrophic growth in winter and

402 mixotrophic growth throughout the year (Unrein et al., 2014). Cryptophyta dominated
403 under perennially ice-covered and coastal saline lakes in continental Antarctica
404 (Izaguirre et al., 2020). The ingestion of bacteria by mixotrophic Cryptophyta has
405 previously been observed in two perennially ice-covered lakes (Fryxell and Hoare) in
406 the McMurdo Dry Valleys (Roberts and Laybourn-Parry, 1999).

407 Compared to other aquatic ecosystems (Wang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020b;
408 Hernandez-Ruiz et al., 2018), the diversity of microbial eukaryotes in the Antarctic
409 lakes studied here was significantly lower (Shannon index 1.70–3.50, richness 113–
410 268). The diversity of the microorganisms reported here decreases from mid-latitude
411 to the poles (Santos et al., 2020). The isolation and harsh conditions, especially the
412 lower temperatures and nutrients availability, prevailing in Antarctic lakes accounted
413 for a low microbial eukaryotic diversity. In addition, the species-area relationships
414 model (SAR) states that there should be an increased species number as habitat area
415 increases with a specific area (Ma, 2018). An increase in the ice-free area may
416 drastically modify the biodiversity of an area (Pertierra et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2017;
417 Lee et al., 2017). Our results support the SAR model since a greater alpha diversity
418 was observed in the CH and KT where the habitat areas were much larger than the YY
419 and YO.

420 4.2 Influence of environmental factors on the community

421 Previous studies have demonstrated that abiotic factors affect microbial diversity
422 and community composition (Quiroga et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2017). In this study, we
423 found that water temperature and PO_4^{3-} were significant factors driving community
424 changes among the abiotic factors analysed. Some microorganisms have evolved to
425 grow under defined temperatures, allowing differences in the temperature adaptation
426 of different species (Wilkins et al., 2013). Water temperature has become a major
427 driving factor for microbial eukaryotic community variation since it can regulate
428 cellular activity and metabolic rates (Margesin and Miteva, 2011). The retreat of
429 glaciers due to global warming had the risk of reducing the abundance and diversity

430 of microorganisms, and more attention should be paid to the impact of temperature
431 changes on community structure (Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2021). The water
432 temperature in the YO was significantly higher than in the other lakes, and the
433 community of YO clustered into a separate group (Fig. 5b). Microorganisms are
434 highly sensitive to nutrients, and indeed, nutrients have been shown to represent
435 important factors of community differences in microbial eukaryote communities in
436 different areas (Zouari et al., 2018). In addition, PO_4^{3-} has been demonstrated to be
437 one of the environmental variables that “best” explained the picoeukaryotic
438 distributions in the Western Pacific Ocean (Liu et al., 2021).

439 Nevertheless, a small amount of community variation could be explained by the
440 environmental variables measured in our analysis. Our results indicate that these
441 environmental factors played a minor role in shaping the microbial eukaryotic
442 community structures. A substantial amount of variation remained unaccounted for
443 (Fig. 5), which could be due to several reasons. First, it is impossible to measure all
444 the environmental factors that could influence microbial communities and, thus, some
445 significant driving factors may not have been included in our study (Wang et al.,
446 2020a). Potentially vital abiotic factors in Antarctic lakes may include the solar cycle,
447 light availability, ice cover (thickness and duration), physical mixing of snow melt,
448 and other hydrological processes (Allende and Izaguirre, 2003; Lizotte, 2008).
449 Secondly, the relationships between the microorganisms considered here could not be
450 quantified, and these relationships could represent potentially essential factors shaping
451 the community structures in the studied lakes. For example, predation pressure can
452 manifest as a top-down control of microbial eukaryotes (Blomqvist, 1997). Finally,
453 stochastic processes such as ecological drift (birth, death) might also cause
454 unexplained community variation (Zhang et al., 2018).

455 4.3 Co-occurrence patterns

456 Network analysis can help us understand complex biological interactions and
457 ecological rules for community assembly within a specific ecological niche (Li and

458 Hu, 2021; Lupatini et al., 2014). Microorganisms can form various ecological
459 relationships, ranging from mutualism to competition, ultimately shaping the
460 microbial abundances (Faust and Raes, 2012). Positive associations in a network often
461 indicate common preferred environmental conditions or niche-overlapping, whereas
462 negative associations imply competition or niche division (Faust and Raes, 2012). Our
463 network analysis revealed that the positive correlations were much more common
464 (82%) than negative ones (18%). These results suggested that positive relationships
465 (e.g., due to cross-feeding, niche overlap, mutualism, or commensalism) might play a
466 more important role in the lake ecosystems of Antarctica than negative relationships
467 (e.g., predator-prey, host-parasite, or competition) (Chen and Wen, 2021). Similar
468 results have been obtained through the study of small planktonic eukaryotes (0.2–20
469 μm) inhabiting the surface waters of a coastal upwelling system (Hernandez-Ruiz et
470 al., 2018). Notwithstanding, further studies are needed to corroborate the biological
471 interactions and other nonrandom processes (for example, cross-feeding versus niche
472 overlap) between the species pairs detected by network analyses. In addition, only 8%
473 of the OTUs were significantly correlated with environmental factors, suggesting that
474 microbial eukaryotes had a relatively lower response to environmental factors.

475 4.4 Community assembly processes

476 In general, deterministic and stochastic processes exist simultaneously in a
477 community assembly (He et al., 2021; Chase, 2010). Several factors such as habitat
478 connectivity and size (Orrock and Watling, 2010), productivity (Chase, 2010),
479 disturbance (Liang et al., 2020), predation (Chase et al., 2009), and resource
480 availability (Kardol et al., 2013) can influence the relative importance of stochastic
481 and deterministic processes in a community assembly. The importance of stochastic
482 processes has been previously illustrated for other microbial eukaryotic communities
483 in aquatic ecosystems (Chen et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020a). For example,
484 picoeukaryotic communities in the lower oxygen layer of the Bengal Bay were shown
485 to be dominated by stochastic processes (Chen et al., 2022). Results from our study

486 supported a more prominent role of stochastic processes over deterministic ones in
487 shaping the assembly of microbial eukaryotic communities. Hence, environmental
488 variables explained only a small amount of variation in the microbial eukaryotic
489 community studied here, and a small number of taxa were significantly correlated
490 with environmental factors.

491 In our study, the microbial eukaryotic community showed a good fit with the
492 neutral model (Fig. 6a), suggesting that community variation could be explained by
493 stochastic processes such as birth, death, and migration to a large extent. The NCM
494 can also attribute the patterns observed of community assembly to different
495 population behavior (Zhang et al., 2021). Here, the NCM separated the studied taxa
496 into three groups which had different community structures (Fig. 6), indicating that
497 these taxa might differ in their adaptability to the environment or their dispersal rates
498 (Chen et al., 2019). In addition, the neutral prediction group contributed a high
499 proportion to both the species abundance (86.4%) and richness (80.0%) in our study.
500 Previous studies have shown that the neutral prediction group also dominated the
501 microbial eukaryotic community in a subtropical river in terms of richness and
502 abundance (Chen et al., 2019). Similar results in this study suggest that microbial
503 eukaryotes studied here were more susceptible to stochastic processes.

504 The importance of stochastic processes has been previously illustrated by the
505 microbial eukaryotic communities of lakes in East Antarctica (Logares et al., 2018).
506 Antarctic freshwater lakes can receive external microbial colonies from the input of
507 microorganisms from the surrounding ice melt, atmospheric transport, human
508 activities, or bird migration (Unrein et al., 2005). Zeng et al. (2019) showed that
509 homogenizing dispersal occupied a high proportion of community assembly processes
510 in freshwater lakes, and similar results were obtained in our study. Most
511 microorganisms detected in the sea have also been found in lakes in East Antarctica,
512 suggesting that some marine taxa in the lakes could be the product of homogenizing
513 dispersal from the sea to the lakes (Logares et al., 2018). In addition, the five studied

514 lakes were covered in ice for most of the year and were limited by geographical
515 distance, resulting in the limited dispersal of microorganisms (0.95%). Undominant
516 processes accounted for 40% of the community assembly in our study, including
517 ecological drift and other complex processes that have not been fully quantified, such
518 as weak selection and diffusion (Mo et al., 2018). This suggest that microbial
519 eukaryotic communities might be formed by some highly complex assembly
520 mechanisms in Antarctic freshwater lakes.

521 **5 Conclusion**

522 In conclusion, a unique microbial eukaryotic community structure and low alpha
523 diversity (richness and Shannon index) have been demonstrated in five freshwater
524 lakes of the Fildes Peninsula, Antarctica. Water temperature and PO_4^{3-} were identified
525 as important factors driving the variation of community structures ($P < 0.05$).
526 Stochastic processes and biotic co-occurrence patterns were shown to be important in
527 shaping microbial eukaryotic communities in the area. Our study provides a better
528 understanding of the dynamic patterns and ecological assembly processes of microbial
529 eukaryotic communities in Antarctic oligotrophic lakes (Fildes Peninsula).

530 **Data Availability Statement**

531 The raw 18S reads have been deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive
532 database with the accession numbers PRJNA805287.

533 **Author Contribution Statement**

534 Conceptualization: Chunmei Zhang and Yonghong Bi; methodology: Chunmei
535 Zhang and Wei Luo; molecular technique: Huirong Li; physico-chemical properties:
536 Bin Wang, Yangjie Li, and Zhongqiang Ji; sample collection: Yinxin Zeng and
537 Haitao Ding; funding acquisition: Yonghong Bi and Wei Luo; supervision: Yonghong
538 Bi and Wei Luo; writing - original draft: Chunmei Zhang; writing-review & editing:
539 Yonghong Bi and Wei Luo.

540 **Competing interests**

541 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or

542 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
543 paper.

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933 **Figure Captions**

934 **Fig. 1** (a) Location of the five studied lakes on the Fildes Peninsula, King George
935 Island, Antarctica, (b) Lake Xi Hu (XH), (c) Lake Yan Ou (YO), (d) Lake Chang Hu
936 (CH), (e) Lake Yue Ya (YY), and (f) Lake Kitec (KT).

937 **Fig.2** Comparison of microbial eukaryotic community composition. (a) Temporal and
938 spatial dynamics of relative abundance on Phylum level in five lakes from 2017 to
939 2019. The 17, 18, and 19 represent the expedition season 2017/2018, 2018/2019, and
940 2019/2020, respectively. (b) Differential analysis of microbial eukaryotes in different
941 lakes. The Lakes that showed no significant differences are not shown ($P > 0.05$).
942 (c) Temporal and spatial dynamics of relative abundance on the genus level in the
943 studied five lakes. (note: $**P < 0.01$, $*P < 0.05$). (Chlorophyta: *Atractomorpha*,
944 *Chlamydomonas*, *Mantoniella*, *Chlorella*, *Choricystis*, *Crustomastix*, *Microglena*,
945 *Monomastix*, *Nannochloris*; Chrysophyta: *Chrysosphaerell*, *Hydrurus*, *Mallomonas*,
946 *Monochrysis*, *Ochromonas*, *Paraphysomonas*, *Spumella*, *Synura*, *Tessellaria*;
947 Cryptophyta: *Komma*; Haptophyta: *Diacronema*; Cercozoa: *Heteromita*. The relative
948 abundance in any lake was less than 1% is defined as others).

949 **Fig.3** Microbial diversity and Venn diagram for different years and lakes. (a, b)
950 Variations in the number of microbial operational taxonomic units (OTUs); (c, d)
951 variations in the microbial Shannon index; (e, f) variations in the within-community
952 nearest-taxon index (NTI); (g, h) Venn diagram showing the unique and shared OTUs.
953 Homogeneity and one-way ANOVA analyses of variance were used to test the
954 significance of the indices. “ns” represents no significant differences ($P > 0.05$),
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956 lakes containing the same letters showed no significant difference ($P > 0.05$)

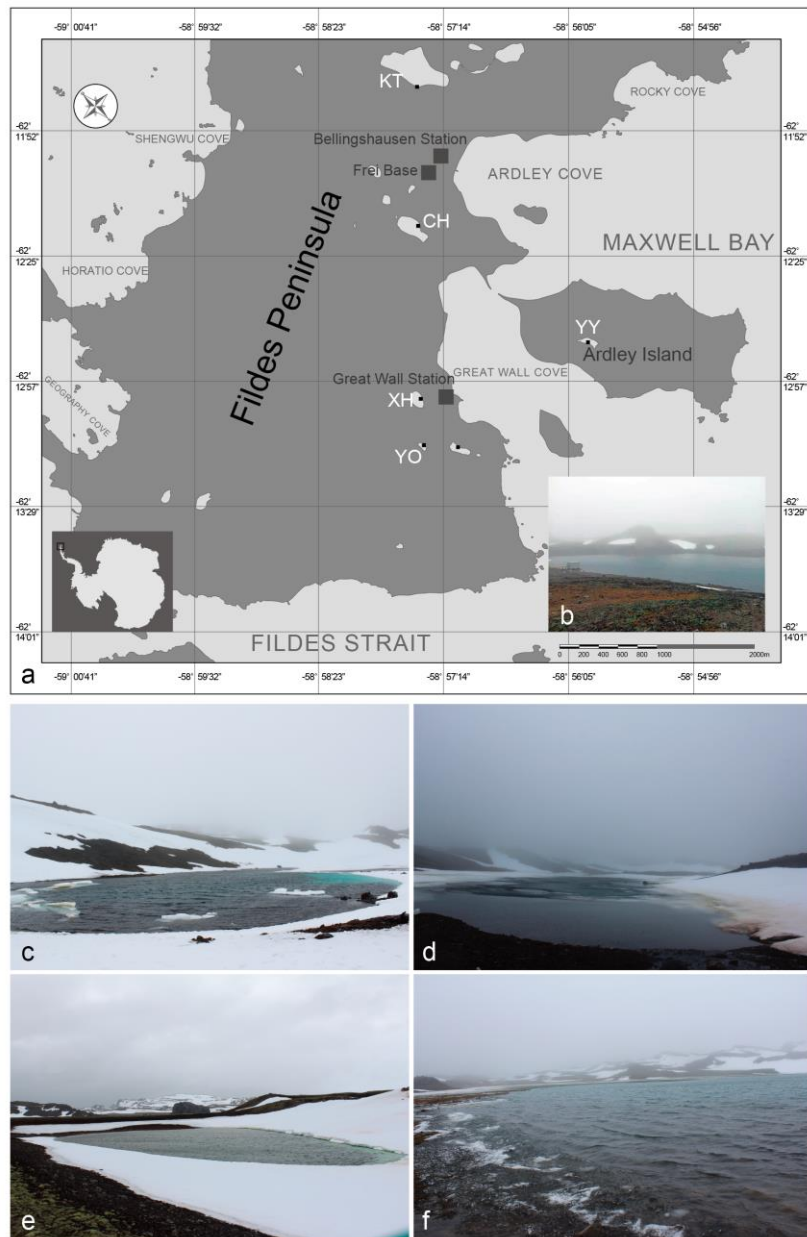
957 **Fig. 4** Temporal variability analysis of non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS)
958 ordination of the microbial eukaryotic communities (a) and clustering of five lakes

959 based on similarity (b).

960 **Fig.5** The effect of environmental variables on microbial eukaryotic communities, and
961 co-occurrence pattern: (a) Canonical correlation analysis plots and (b) variance
962 partitioning analysis. Sal: salinity; WT: water temperature; NO_2^- : nitrite nitrogen;
963 PO_4^{3-} : phosphate. (c) Network analysis revealing the interspecies associations
964 between microbial eukaryotic operational taxonomic units (OTUs), and the
965 correlation between environmental factors and OTUs in the lakes' integrated networks.
966 The size of each OTUs or environmental factor (node) is proportional to the degree
967 centrality. Others: other phyla and unclassified taxa.

968 **Fig. 6** Relative influences of deterministic and stochastic processes on microbial
969 eukaryotic community assembly based on the neutral community model (NCM) and
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972 within a 95% confidence interval (black), while non-neutral processes included the
973 above and below prediction (dark green and red). (b) Proportions of the richness and
974 abundance of the three groups (above prediction, below prediction, and neutral
975 prediction) based on the NCM. (c) Abundance composition of the three groups in the
976 microbial eukaryotic community. (d) Null model analysis revealing the fraction of
977 ecological processes. The percent of community assembly is governed primarily by
978 various deterministic processes, such as homogenous and heterogeneous selections,
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982 **Fig. 1**



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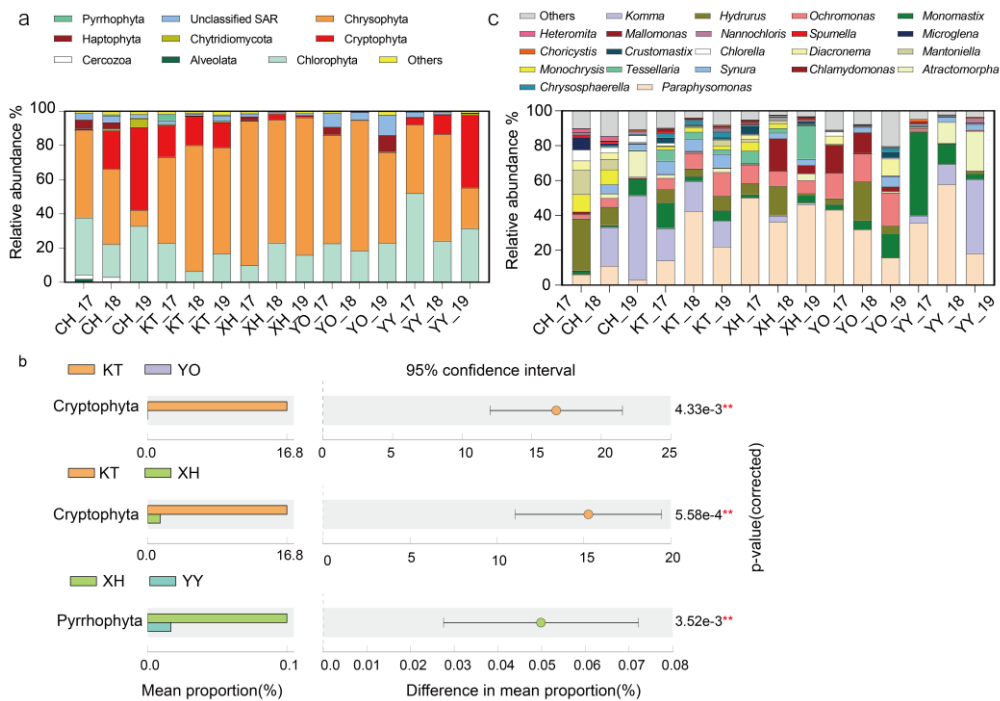
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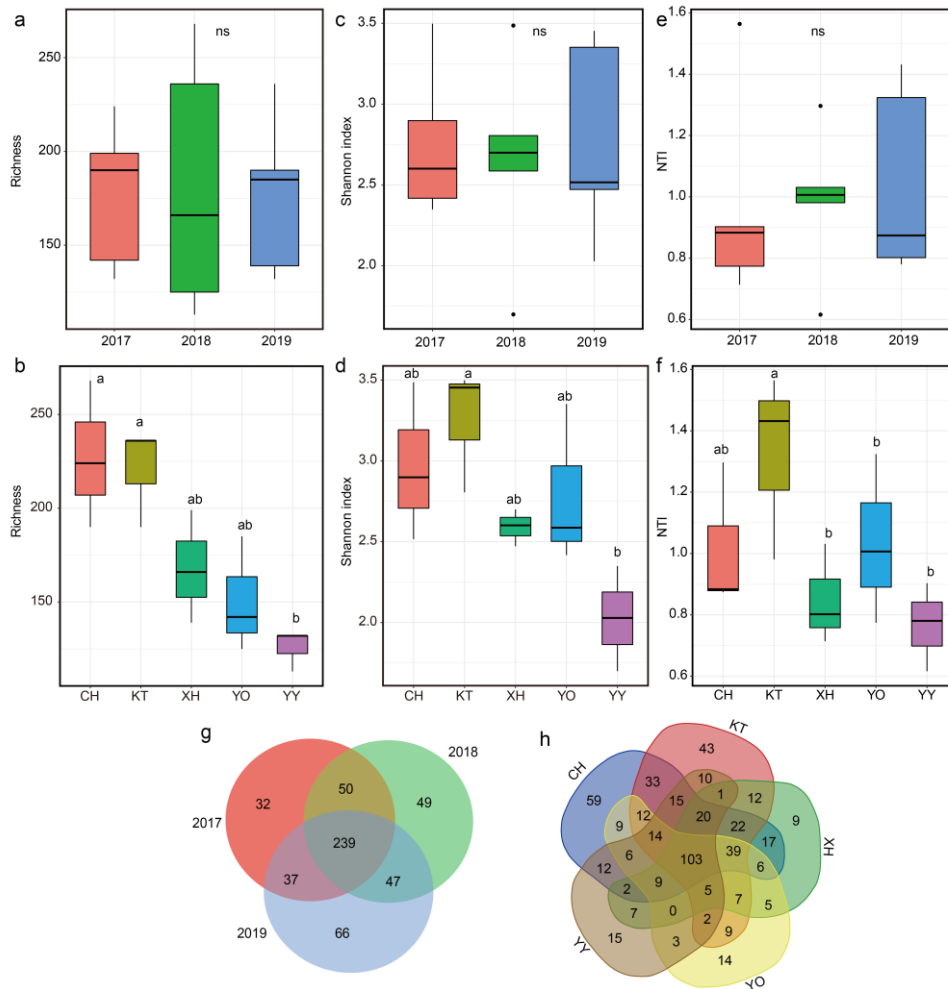
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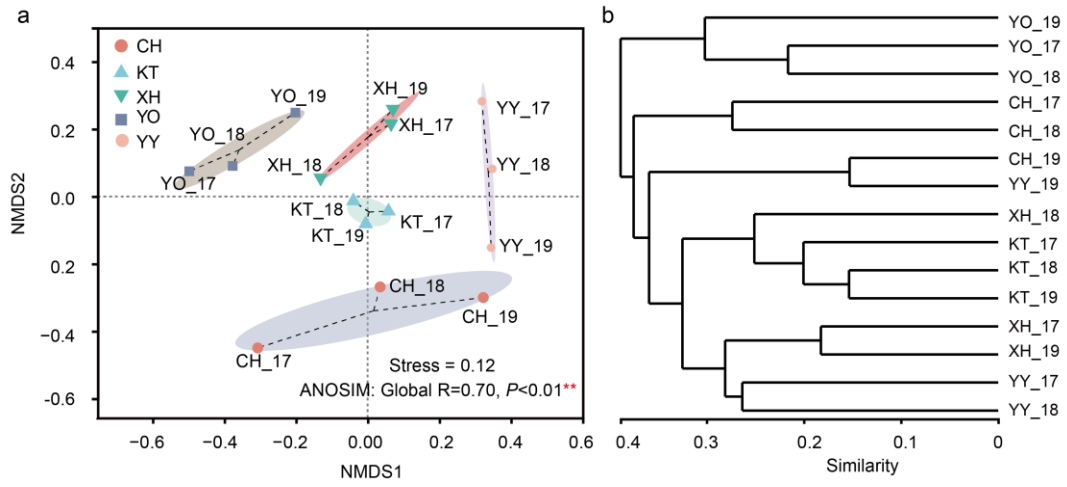
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1019 **Fig. 4**



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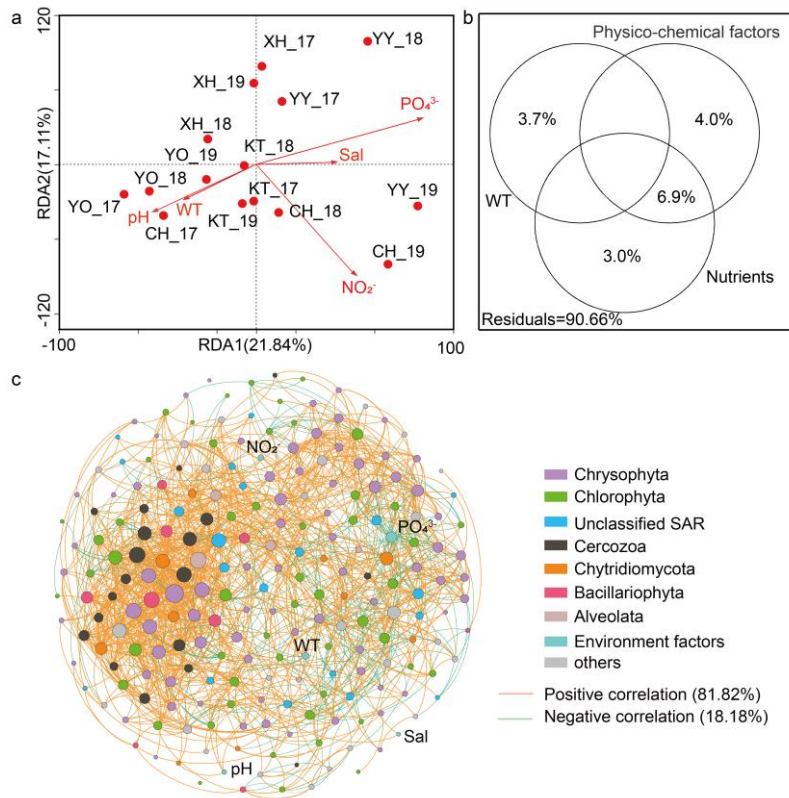
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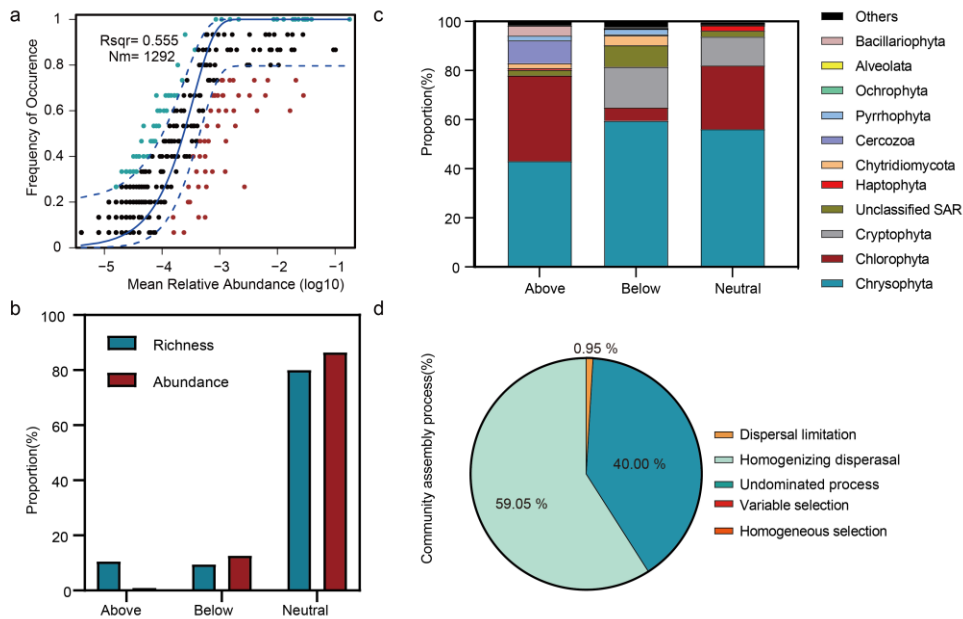
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