1	Differentiation of cognate bacterial communities in thermokarst
2	landscapes: implications for ecological consequences of permafrost
3	degradation
4	Running title: Bacterial communities in thermokarst landscape
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16 Abstract

17 Thermokarst processes likely result in new habitats harboring novel bacterial communities 18 in degraded permafrost soil (PBCs), thermokarst lake sediments (SBCs), and lake water 19 (WBCs). Our study aimed to investigate the paired PBCs, SBCs, and WBCs across the 20 Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP) by assessing the spatial pattern of diversity as well as 21 assembly mechanisms of these bacterial communities. Each habitat had distinct bacterial 22 assemblages, with lower alpha diversity and higher beta diversity in WBCs than in SBCs 23 and PBCs. However, up to 41% of the OTUs were shared by PBCs, SBCs, and WBCs, 24 suggesting that many taxa originate from the same sources via dispersal. SB \subseteq and WB \subseteq 25 had reciprocal dispersal effects and both were correlated with PBCs. Dispersal limitation 26 was the most dominant assembly process shaping PBCs and SBCs while homogeneous 27 selection was the most dominant for WBCs. Bacterial communities of the three habitats 28 correlated differently with environmental variables, but latitude, mean annual precipitation, 29 and pH were the common factors associated with their beta diversity, while total 30 phosphorus was the common factor associated with their assembly processes. Our results 31 imply that thermokarst processes result in diverse habitats that have distinct bacterial 32 communities that differ in diversity, assembly mechanisms, and environmental drivers.

33 Keywords: thermokarst; permafrost; bacteria, community assembly, Qinghai-Tibet
34 Plateau

35 **1 Introduction**

Permafrost is an important landscape in high latitude and altitude regions, covering 15%
of the land area of the Northern Hemisphere (Obu, 2021) and 40% of the Qinghai-Tibet
Plateau (QTP) (Zou et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2021), and containing twice as much carbon as

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39 is currently present in the atmosphere (Schuur et al., 2009; Hugelius et al., 2014; Mishra et 40 al., 2021). Permafrost is highly sensitive to climate warming (Wu et al., 2007; Jorgenson 41 et al., 2010; Biskaborn et al., 2019), which is expected to reduce 50-90% of permafrost 42 cover by 2100 (Lawrence et al., 2012; Chadburn et al., 2017). As a result of ice-rich 43 permafrost thaw, thermokarst lakes and ponds are formed (Kokelj and Jorgenson, 2013; 44 Farquharson et al., 2016) and extensively distributed across the Arctic and sub-Arctic 45 regions (de Jong et al., 2018) as well as the QTP (Niu et al., 2011; Luo et al., 2020). The 46 initial sediment and water in thermokarst lakes originate from the melting of permafrost, 47 and they are continuously replenished through the collapse of permafrost and precipitation 48 (West and Plug, 2008; de Jong et al., 2018). Thus, thermokarst lake sediments and water, 49 as well as the surrounding degraded permafrost soil, represent three distinct habitats 50 derived from the original permafrost during the process of thermokarst formation (Figure 51 1 Figure 1). It is well known that thermokarst processes substantially influence regional 52 hydrological, ecological, and biogeochemical processes (Chin et al., 2016; In'T Zandt et 53 al., 2020; Manasypov et al., 2021) and initiate a strong positive climate feedback to global 54 warming (Walter et al., 2006; Schuur et al., 2008; Schaefer et al., 2011; Anthony et al., 55 2018). However, the microbial differences and relationships among these distinct habitats 56 in thermokarst landscapes are largely unknown.

Understanding microbes in thermokarst landscapes, and elsewhere, is important because microbial communities play pivotal roles in driving biogeochemical and ecological processes. To understand thermokarst microbial communities, we need to understand the assembly mechanisms structuring them, a central research topic in microbial ecology (Stegen et al., 2012; Nemergut et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2014; Zhou and Ning, 2017). In 62 the assembly of microbial communities, both deterministic and stochastic processes occur 63 simultaneously but with contributions that can vary (Chase, 2010; Zhou et al., 2013; 64 Vellend et al., 2014; Makoto et al., 2019). Typically, deterministic processes place a strong emphasis on niche-based mechanisms, including ecological selection, environmental 65 filtering, and biotic interactions (Zhou and Ning, 2017). Conversely, stochastic processes 66 67 involve neutral mechanisms like random birth and death, unforeseen disturbance, 68 probability-based dispersal, and ecological drift (Chave, 2004; Chase, 2010; Zhou et al., 69 2014). In various ecosystems or habitats, the significance of deterministic and stochastic 70 processes can differ greatly and be shaped by a multitude of environmental factors (Tripathi 71 et al., 2018; Aguilar and Sommaruga, 2020; Jiao and Lu, 2020; She et al., 2021). During 72 thermokarst formation, vast areas of permafrost have been transformed to thermokarst 73 lakes, leading to major changes in physicochemical environments as well as in biological 74 communities of these regions. Thus, it is also expected that the microbial communities 75 experience major changes in occupying degraded permafrost soil, thermokarst lake 76 sediments, and lake water, and in doing so, display different assembly mechanisms (Figure 77 1Figure 1).

Better understanding community assembly in these systems is important because thawing permafrost and thermokarst lakes are greenhouse gas emission hotspots (In'T Zandt et al., 2020; Mu et al., 2020; Elder et al., 2021). Close relationships between biogeochemical processes and microbial community assembly have been generally demonstrated (Bier et al., 2015; Graham et al., 2016; Le Moigne et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2022a). Assembly processes inevitably influence biogeochemical functions by shaping community diversity and composition (Graham et al., 2016; Leibold et al., 2017; Mori et al., 2018). For example, 85 dispersal (a stochastic process) can suppress biogeochemical functioning by increasing the 86 proportion of maladapted taxa (Strickland et al., 2009; Nemergut et al., 2013; Graham and 87 Stegen, 2017), while selection (a deterministic process) may have positive influence on 88 biogeochemical function by facilitating locally adapted taxa (Graham et al., 2016). In 89 particular, stochastic dispersal has been suggested to suppress the mineralization of organic 90 carbon in soil and water (Le Moigne et al., 2020; Luan et al., 2020). Therefore, it is 91 hypothesized that the relative influence of deterministic and stochastic processes on 92 community assembly could impact the biogeochemical functions of microbial 93 communities (Strickland et al., 2009; Nemergut et al., 2013; Pholchan et al., 2013; Graham 94 and Stegen, 2017). Given the importance to understand how microbial community 95 variations affect the biogeochemical cycles in permafrost and thermokarst landscapes, it is 96 necessary to have a deeper understanding of the assembly mechanisms in shaping 97 microbial communities that form following permafrost degradation.

98 In this paper we evaluated these ideas on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP), which is known 99 as the "Third Pole" of the Earth and is therefore uniquely positioned as an indicator of 100 global change (Yao et al., 2012). Pronounced environmental changes in response to climate 101 warming on the QTP have been observed and documented, especially in the past half 102 century (Piao et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018; Ren et al., 2019a). Major changes are 103 predicted to continue on the QTP and permafrost thawing is among the most prominent but 104 little is known about the microbial communities in these rapidly emerging ecosystems. To 105 fill this gap, we investigated water and sediment in thermokarst lakes across the QTP as 106 well as permafrost soil around the lakes (Figure 1 Figure 1). Our aims were to (1) assess 107 the spatial pattern of alpha and beta diversity of bacterial communities, and (2) evaluate 108 the community assembly mechanisms and environmental responses of the bacterial 109 communities in degraded permafrost soil, as well as in the sediment and water of 110 thermokarst lakes.

111 **2 Methods**

112 2.1 Study area, field sampling, and chemical analysis

113 This work was conducted across the QTP in July 2021 (Figure S1Figure S1). In total, 44 114 sites were investigated by collecting paired samples of lake water, lake sediment, and 115 surrounding permafrost soil (Figure 1 Figure 1a) (Ren et al., 2022a). The sampling strategy 116 and chemical analysis methods were described in detail in our previous publications (Ren 117 et al., 2022a, b). For water sampling of each lake, surface water samples were collected at 118 a depth of 0.3 to 0.5 m with three replicates. For microbial analysis, 200 mL of water was 119 filtered using a 0.2-µm polycarbonate membrane filter (Whatman, UK) for DNA extraction. 120 The remaining water samples were transported to the lab for other physicochemical 121 measurements. For sediment sampling, the top 15 cm of sediment was collected from 3 122 points. Sediment samples for microbial analysis were collected in a 45-mL sterile 123 centrifuge tube, and the remaining samples were air-dried for analyzing physicochemical properties. For permafrost sampling, five topsoil cores were collected along three 25-m 124 125 transects with increasing distances to the lake shore, respectively. The soils from one 126 transects were homogenized. Soil samples for microbial analysis were stored in 45-mL 127 sterile centrifuge tubes and the remaining soils were used for analyzing physicochemical 128 properties. For each sampling site, pH, conductivity (Cond), organic carbon (DOC in water 129 and SOC in sediment and soil), total nitrogen (TN), and total phosphorus (TP) were 130 measured according to our previous publications (Ren et al., 2022a, b). Moreover, the QTP

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- 131 climate dataset (Zhou, 2018) was obtained from the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center
- 132 (https://data.tpdc.ac.cn/en/), and was utilized to extract the mean annual temperature (MAT)
- 133 and mean annual precipitation (MAP) for each of the study sites.



Figure 1 (a) The process of thermokarst lake formation in ice-rich permafrost (modified from Ren et al, 2022a). (b) A schematic view of the relationships between permafrost soil, lake sediment, and lake water. (c) Summary of the differences between distinct habitats of the bacterial communities in permafrost soil, lake sediment, and lake water.

139 2.2 DNA extraction, PCR, and sequencing

The methods of DNA extraction, PCR, and sequencing were described in detail in our
previous publication (Ren et al., 2022a). In brief, t<u>T</u>he Magen Hipure Soil DNA Kit
(Magen, China) was used to extract DNA from soil (0.5 g frozen soil), sediment (0.5 g

143	frozen sediment), and water (membrane filter) samples according to the manufacturer's
144	protocols. Extraction blanks were routinely performed in parallel. The prokaryotic 16S
145	rRNA gene's V3-V4 hypervariable regions were amplified using universal primers 343F-
146	TACGGRAGGCAGCAG and 798R-AGGGTATCTAATCCT (Nossa et al., 2010). PCRs
147	were conducted in 25 µl reaction mixture containing 2.5 µl of TransStart buffer, 2 µl of
148	dNTPs, 1 µl of each primer, 0.5 µl of TransStart Taq DNA polymerase, and 20 ng template
149	DNA. The PCR reactions were conducted on a thermal cycler (ABI GeneAmp® 9700,
150	USA) using the followed procedure: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 5 min, 24 cycles of
151	denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s followed by annealing at 56 °C for 30 s and extension at
152	72 °C for 20 s, and a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. To reduce amplification bias, three
153	individual PCR amplifications were performed for each sample and the triplicate PCR
154	products were combined and, purified. DNA libraries were verified on 2% agarose gels
155	and quantified using a Qubit 4 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA).,
156	and quantified. Next generation sequencing of the amplicon products was conducted on an
157	Illumina Miseq Platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Automated cluster generation
158	and 250/300 paired-end sequencing with dual reads were performed following the
159	manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing of the amplicon products was done on the
160	Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's
161	instructions. The forward and reverse reads were joined and assigned to samples based on
162	barcode and truncated by cutting off the barcode and primer sequence. Raw sequences were
163	trimmed of ambiguous bases and low-quality sequences (quality score lower than 20).
164	After trimming, and the paired-end reads were joined and de-noised using QIIME1.9.1
165	(Caporaso et al., 2010). The sequences were subjected to the following denoising criteria:

166 sequences with ambiguous or homologous regions, as well as those below 200 bp in length, 167 were excluded; sequences with at least 75% of bases having a quality score above Q20 were retained; and chimeric sequences were identified and eliminated. All sequences from 168 169 extraction blanks were removed. The effective sequences were grouped into Operational 170 Taxonomic Units (OTUs) using a 97% sequence similarity threshold and annotated the 171 taxonomic classifications against the SILVA 138 database (released on 02-Nov-2020) 172 (Quast et al., 2013). The singletons were removed, and the sequences were rarefied to the 173 lowest number of sequences per sample were normalized to (24,251 sequences) per sample 174 to eliminate the bias from the sampling effort.

175 **2.3** Analyses

176 Three α -diversity indices, including observed number of OTUs (OTU richness), Shannon 177 diversity, and phylogenetic diversity (PD), were calculated using QIIME 1.9.1 (Caporaso 178 et al., 2010). The "ses.mntd" function in the picante 1.8.2 package was used to calculate 179 the standardized effect size measure of the mean nearest taxon distance (SES.MNTD) for 180 assessing the phylogenetic clustering of bacterial communities (Kembel et al., 2010). The 181 β-diversity was calculated as the Bray-Curtis distance based on the relative abundance of 182 OTUs. In order to determine the habitat niche occupied by each taxon, we utilized the 183 "spaa" package (Zhang, 2016) in R to calculate the Levin's niche width (Levins, 1968). The formula of niche breadth is $B_i = 1/\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2$, where B_i represents the niche breadth of OTU_i 184 185 across the communities, n is the total number of communities, and p_i is the proportion of 186 OTU_i in each community. Differences in α -diversity and β -diversity among bacterial 187 communities in different habitats, including permafrost soil bacterial communities (PBCs), 188 lake sediment bacterial communities (SBCs), and lake water bacterial communities

189 (WBCs), were assessed using Wilcoxon rank-sum test. The relationships between 190 taxonomic and environmental variables were assessed using Spearman correlation, and the 191 P-values were corrected using the FDR method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Mantel 192 tests were performed to examine the correlation between environmental variables and β-193 diversity. A Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) analysis was conducted to 194 examine the distribution of PBCs, SBCs, and WBCs using the "metaMDS" function in the 195 vegan 2.5-7 package based on the Bray-Curtis distance using the relative abundance of 196 OTUs. (Oksanen et al., 2020). The distinctiveness of these communities was confirmed 197 through a non-parametric statistical test (ANOSIM) using the "anosim" function in the 198 vegan package. The habitat niche occupied by each species was estimated by calculating 199 Levin's niche breadth (Levins, 1968) with the use of the spa 0.2.2 package (Zhang, 2016). 200 Species with a broader niche breadth were distributed more evenly across a wider range of 201 habitats, compared to those with a narrower niche breadth.

202 Structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to assess the relationships among 203 location (including latitude, longitude, and elevation), climate (including mean annual 204 temperature and mean annual precipitation), and physicochemical parameters variables 205 (including pH, conductivity, nutrients concentrations and stoichiometric ratios) of each 206 habitat (permafrost soil, lake sediment, and lake water), as well as their bacterial 207 communities (PB, SB, and WB). In model building, the SEM incorporated prior 208 knowledges: (a) location and climate factors potentially influence all the studied bacterial 209 communities, (b) physicochemical factor of each habitat potentially influences the 210 corresponding bacterial communities, and (c) permafrost soil potentially influences 211 thermokarst lake sediment and water, while lake sediment and water interact with each 212 other. In the SEM, location, climate, and physicochemical environments were reduced in dimensions by principal component analysis (PCA), respectively, using the "prcomp" 213 214 function of the vegan package, and the first axis (PCA1) was used in SEM. For community 215 structure, the first axis of NMDS was used. SEM was constructed using the lavaan package 216 (Rosseel, 2012). The fit of SEM was assessed using standard indices, including chi-square 217 (χ^2) , goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square residual 218 (RMR), and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) (Hu and Bentler, 1999; 219 Barrett, 2007).

Phylogenetic trees of bacteria were constructed in the R package ggtree 3.2.1 (Yu et al., 2017) using the top 1000 abundant OTUs in PBCs, SBCs, and WBCs, respectively. For each phylogenetic tree, a heatmap was built in the inner ring represents Spearman's correlation between OTUs and environmental variables. The middle ring was built to represent the frequency of the OTUs in our studied sites. The outer ring was built to represent the relative abundance of the OTUs.

226 A null model analysis was performed to investigate the processes shaping the assembly of 227 bacterial communities in permafrost soil, lake sediment, and lake water using the R 228 package picante 1.8.2 (Kembel et al., 2010). This analysis based on the calculation of the 229 beta nearest taxon index (βNTI) to measure the extent of deterministic processes in shaping 230 the phylogenetic composition of the communities, as well as a Bray-Curtis-based Raup-231 Crick matrix (RC_{Bray}) to assess the relative influences of stochastic processes (Stegen et al., 232 2013; Zhou and Ning, 2017). Because homogeneous selection results in communities that 233 share greater phylogenetic similarity, the proportion of homogeneous selection was 234 calculated as the fraction of pairwise comparisons with $\beta NTI < -2$. On the other hand, 235 heterogeneous selection, leading to communities with lesser phylogenetic similarity, was 236 measured as the fraction of pairwise comparisons with $\beta NTI > +2$. Because homogeneous 237 dispersal results in communities exhibiting greater taxonomic resemblance, the extent of 238 its impact was measured as the proportion of pairwise comparisons with $-2 < \beta NTI < 2$ 239 and $RC_{Brav} < -0.95$. Conversely, communities constrained by dispersal limitation display 240 lesser taxonomic similarity, and the measure of dispersal limitation was derived from the 241 fraction of pairwise comparisons with $-2 < \beta NTI < 2$ and RC_{Bray} > 0.95. -Finally, the 242 fraction of the pairwise comparisons with $-2 < \beta NTI < 2$ and $-0.95 < RC_{Bray} < 0.95$ was 243 identified as "undominated". Mantel tests were conducted to test the relationships between

- 244 environmental variables and β NTI.
- All the statistical analyses were carried out in R 4.1.2 (R Core Team, 2020).

246 **3 Results**

247 3.1 General distribution patterns of α-diversity

248 After quality filtering, 3,201,132 high quality sequences were obtained and clustered into 249 9,361 OTUs, of which, 3870 OTUs were core OTUs shared by bacterial communities in 250 permafrost soil, lake sediment, and lake water (Figure S2Figure S2). Moreover, a large 251 number of OTUs were shared by PBCs and SBCs (n=7053), of which, 16.4% were enriched 252 in lake sediment and 19.3% were enriched in permafrost soil (Figure S2Figure S2). 253 However, a relatively small number of OTUs were shared by PBCs and WBCs (n=4007) 254 and by SBCs and WBCs (n=4431), and only a very small proportion of OTUs were 255 enriched in lake water (Figure S2Figure S2). Bacterial communities had a significantly 256 lower α -diversity in lake water than in lake sediment and permafrost soil (Figure 2Figure 257 $\frac{2}{2}a$). α -diversity was not significantly different between PBCs and SBCs (Figure 2Figure

258 2a). Correlation analyses showed that phylogenetic diversity of PBCs was positively 259 correlated with SOC, TN, and C:N:P ratios (Figure 2Figure 2b). For SBCs, α -diversity 260 indices were positively correlated with MAT, MAP, SOC, TN, C:P and N:P, while 261 negatively correlated with latitude and pH (Figure 2Figure 2b). For WBCs, α -diversity 262 indices were negatively correlated with pH, and Shannon diversity was negatively 263 correlated with DOC, TN, and C:P (Figure 2Figure 2b).

264 PBCs and SBCs had a significantly greater phylogenetic diversity than WBCs (Figure 265 2Figure 2 a and Figure 3Figure 3). The OTUs in PBCs had significantly higher frequency 266 than that of SBCs and WBCs (Figure 3Figure 3). The top 1000 abundant OTUs in PBCs 267 were highly correlated with environmental variables, particularly with latitude, MAP, SOC, 268 TN, TP, and C:N:P ratios (Figure 3Figure 3a). The top 1000 abundant OTUs in SBCs were 269 more commonly positively correlated with MAP, SOC, TN, and C:N:P ratios, but more 270 commonly negatively correlated with latitude and pH (Figure 3Figure 3b). The top 1000 271 abundant OTUs in WBCs had relatively fewer significant relationships with environmental 272 variables in general, but were negatively correlated with latitude, conductivity, pH, DOC, 273 TN, and C:N:P ratios, while more positively correlated with MAP (Figure 3Figure 3c). In 274 addition, WBCs had significantly higher SES.MNTD than PBCs and SBCs (Figure 3Figure 275 3d), suggesting higher phylogenetic clustering of bacterial taxa in WBCs.







Figure 3 Phylogenetic tree of the top 1000 OTUs in <u>bacterial communities in</u> (a) permafrost soil-(PBC), (b) lake sediment-(SBC), and (c) lake water-(WBC). Tree tips are colored by major phylum. The inner ring of the heatmap represents spearman's correlation between OTUs and environmental variables. Only significant (p<0.05) results are shown. The middle ring represents the frequency of the OTUs in our studied sites. The outer ring represents the relative abundance of the OTUs. (d) Boxplots showing differences of OTU's

frequency and SES.MNTD values among bacterial communities in permafrost soil (PBCs),
lake sediment (SBCs), and lake water (WBCs). The different lower-case letters represent
significant differences assessed using Wilcoxon rank-sum test.

294 **3.2** Community composition and β-diversity patterns

295 PBCs were dominated by Proteobacteria (30.4%), Acidobacteriota (25.3%), Bacteroidota 296 (11.4%), Actinobacteriota (6.8%), Chloroflexi (5.2%), and Gemmatimonadota (5.2%) 297 (Figure 4Figure 4a). SBCs were dominated by Proteobacteria (35.2%), Bacteroidota 298 (20.0%), Acidobacteriota (11.3%), Desulfobacterota (6.4%), Chloroflexi (6.3%), and 299 Actinobacteriota (5.8%) (Figure 4Figure 4a). WBCs were dominated by Proteobacteria 300 (46.9%), Bacteroidota (29.2%), and Actinobacteriota (17.4%) (Figure 4Figure 4a). While 301 Proteobacteria were predominant in all three habitat types, these dominant phyla had 302 significantly different relative abundances among these habitats. Proteobacteria and 303 Bacteroidota had a significantly higher relative abundance in WBCs than in SBCs and 304 PBCs (Figure 4Figure 4a). The relative abundance of Actinobacteriota was the highest in 305 WBCs but was not significantly different between PBCs and SBCs (Figure 4Figure 4a). 306 Gemmatimonadota and Acidobacteriota were significantly enriched in PBCs than in SBCs 307 and WBCs. Desulfobacterota and Chloroflexi were significantly enriched in SBCs than in 308 PBCs and WBCs (Figure 4Figure 4a).

These phyla responded differently to environmental variables (<u>Figure 4</u>Figure 4b). For example, Actinobacteriota and Gemmatimonadota in PBCs and Actinobacteriota and Desulfobacterota in SBCs were negatively correlated with nutrient concentrations and ratios, while Desulfobacterota in PBCs and Acidobacteriota in SBCs were positively correlated with nutrient concentrations and ratios (<u>Figure 4Figure 4b</u>). pH was a frequently 314 correlate<u>d with</u> for taxa in various taxonomic groups across all three habitats (<u>Figure</u>
 315 <u>4bFigure 5b</u>)

Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis along with non-parametric 316 317 statistical tests showed that bacteria in different habitats formed distinct communities 318 (Figure 5Figure 5a). The extent of difference was larger for WBCs vs PBCs (β =0.98; 319 $R_{ANOSIM} = 0.989$, P<0.001) than the differences for WBCs vs SBCs (β =0.96; $R_{ANOSIM} =$ 320 0.967, P<0.001). There was the least dissimilarity between PBCs and SBCs (β =0.81; 321 $R_{ANOSIM} = 0.384$, P<0.001). The fitted SEM model showed that PBCs had direct effects on 322 SBCs and WBCs, and the latter two had reciprocal effects on each other (Figure 5Figure 323 $\frac{5}{5}$ b). In addition, location, climate, and permafrost soil physicochemical environments had 324 direct effects on PBCs. Climate had direct effects on SBCs while lake water 325 physicochemical environments had direct effects on WBCs (Figure 5Figure 5b).

326 WBCs had a higher β -diversity than SBCs and PBCs, suggesting that bacterial 327 communities were more spatially heterogeneous in lake water than in lake sediment and 328 permafrost soil (Figure 5cFigure 6a). Taxa in PBCs had higher habitat niche breadths than 329 taxa in SBCs and WBCs (Figure 5dFigure 6b). We estimated the distance decay 330 relationship of bacterial community similarity. Significant distance-decay relationships 331 were observed for all communities but the fitness values were relatively low (Figure 332 S3Figure S3), indicating weak decay of community similarity with geographic distance in 333 thermokarst landscape. We also explored the main environmental variables that influence 334 the variations of the bacterial communities (Figure 6Figure 7). β -diversities of PBCs, SBCs, 335 and WBCs were all significantly correlated with latitude, MAP, and pH (Figure 6Figure 7). 336 In addition, β -diversity of PBCs was also significantly correlated with all the other

environmental variables except MAT and conductivity. β-diversity of SBCs was also
significantly correlated with conductivity and C:N (Figure 6Figure 7). β-diversity of WBCs
was also significantly correlated with elevation, MAT, conductivity, DOC, TN, and TP
(Figure 6Figure 7). The results suggested that the compositional variation among PBCs,
SBCs, and WBCs was differentially structured by spatial, climatic, and physicochemical
variables.



Figure 4 (a) Relative abundances of major phyla in bacterial communities in permafrost soil (PBCs), lake sediment (SBCs), and lake water (WBCs). The different low-case letters represent significant differences assessed using Wilcoxon rank-sum test. (b) Spearman correlations show the relationships between the relative abundance of major phyla and

348 environmental factors. The color represents the correlation coefficient, which shown in 349 number when the result is significant (p<0.05).



Figure 5 (a) Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination showing the distribution of bacterial communities in permafrost soil (PBCs), lake sediment (SBCs), and lake water (WBCs). The differences between these communities are confirmed by the nonparametric statistical test (ANOSIM). (b) Structural equation modeling analysis depicting

356 the relationships between location (including latitude, longitude, and elevation), climate 357 (including mean annual temperature and mean annual precipitation), physicochemical 358 environments (pH, conductivity, nutrients concentrations and stoichiometric ratios) of each 359 habitat. Solid and dashed arrows represent the significant and nonsignificant relationships, 360 respectively. Red and green arrows represent positive and negative relationships, 361 respectively. Significant path coefficients are shown adjacent to the path with *, **, and 362 *** denoting the significant level of p<0.05, p<0.01, and p<0.001, respectively. (c) β -363 diversities within and between PB, SB, and WB. (d) Habitat niche breadth of the bacterial

364 <u>communities.</u>





367 breadth of the bacterial communities.



369 Figure 67 Pairwise correlations between environmental variables as well as the Mantel tests 370 between environmental variables and β -diversity and beta nearest taxon index (β NTI) for 371 (a) bacterial communities in permafrost soil, (b) bacterial communities in lake sediment, 372 and (c) bacterial communities in lake water. β -diversity was calculated as Bray-Curtis 373 distance. The lines denote significant relationships while the line width represents the 374 Mantel's r statistic. Pairwise correlations between environmental variables are shown in 375 color gradient matrix. The color represents Pearson's correlation coefficient, which shown 376 in number when the result is significant (p < 0.05). The abbreviations of the environmental 377 variables are explained in the Methods section.

378 3.3 Assembly processes

379 To explore the mechanisms underlining the observed distribution patterns, a null-model-380 based framework was employed to quantify the deviation of phylogenetic turnover. PBCs 381 had significantly higher β NTI than SBCs and WBCs (Figure 7Figure 8a). Deterministic 382 processes contributed 51.3%, 41.2%, and 44.9% to community variations for the bacterial 383 communities in permafrost soil, lake sediment, and lake water, respectively (Figure 384 $7\frac{\text{Figure 8}}{\text{Figure 8}}$). In particular, the results showed that homogeneous selection contributed a 385 larger fraction to the assembly of the WBCs (44.8%), followed by SBCs (35.2%) and PBCs 386 (29.7%) (Figure 7Figure 8b). Heterogeneous selection influenced PBCs (21.6%) more than 387 $SBC_{S}(6.0\%)$ and $WBC_{S}(0.1\%)$. Dispersal limitation contributed a larger fraction to SBC_{S} 388 (57.2%) than to PBCs (45%) and WBCs (37.5%).

389 The relationships between β NTI and major environmental variables were used to estimate 390 changes in the relative influences of deterministic and stochastic assembly processes. 391 Mantel tests showed that the assembly processes of bacterial communities in permafrost 392 soil, lake sediment, and lake water had similarities and differences in the responses to 393 environmental variables (Figure 6Figure 7). Particularly, differences of TP were 394 significantly associated with βNTI of PBCs, SBCs, and WBCs, implying that an increasing 395 divergence of TP could contribute to a shift from homogeneous selection to heterogeneous 396 selection in the assembly of bacterial communities in the QTP thermokarst landscape. 397 Moreover, β NTI of PBCs was also significantly associated with other environmental 398 variables, except elevation, MAT, and conductivity. β NTI of SBCs was also significantly 399 associated with latitude, MAP, conductivity, pH, and C:N, while βNTI of WBCs was 400 significantly associated with longitude, conductivity, and TN.



407 of <u>bacterial communities in permafrost soil (PB), lake sediment (SB), and lake water</u>
408 (WB)PBCs, SBCs and WBCs. "Non-dominant" indicates that the fraction was not
409 dominated by any single process.

410 4 Discussion

411 Thermokarst lakes and degraded permafrost are distinct habitats derived from original 412 permafrost during the process of thermokarst formation. Degraded permafrost can be 413 further converted to thermokarst lake sediment during the continuous process of 414 thermokarst formation (Figure 1). In our studied thermokarst landscapes across the QTP, 415 bacterial communities in degraded permafrost soil (PCBs), thermokarst lake sediment 416 (SBCs), and thermokarst lake water (WCBs) differed in multiple aspects, such as α -417 diversity, *B*-diversity, community composition, community assembly rules, and 418 environmental responses (Figure 1c), supporting a view in which thermokarst formation 419 generates novel habitat conditions and microbial communities in landscapes formerly 420 occupied by permafrost.

421 4.1 Alpha diversity and community composition

422 Permafrost soil and lake sediments on the QTP had significantly higher alpha diversity than 423 lake water. A considerable proportion (41%) of OTUs were shared among PCBs, SCBs, 424 and WCBs. However, besides a small number of unique OTUs, only a small proportion of 425 OTUs were enriched in lake water. In addition, bacterial communities were also 426 significantly different in composition and structure among permafrost soil, lake sediment, 427 and lake water, but with lower dissimilarities between PCBs and SBCs. Due to the origin 428 of thermokarst lakes from permafrost, there is no doubt that permafrost soil, lake sediments, 429 and lake water should share a certain number of OTUs.

Thermokarst lakes are known to have sediments that derive from the permafrost soil and are constantly replenished by the collapse of nearby permafrost (Payette et al., 2004; West and Plug, 2008; Veremeeva et al., 2021). This suggests that permafrost soil and lake 433 sediments are likely to have high levels of similarity in bacterial diversity and community 434 composition. Thus, there is no doubt that permafrost soil, lake sediments, and lake water 435 should share a certain number of bacteria. Indeed, our study showed that 41% OTUs were 436 shared among PB, SB, and WB, while 75% OTUs were shared between PB and SB. 437 Additionally, our prior research has shown that there are close correlations between the 438 abiotic features of the two environments (Ren et al., 2022b). However, despite these 439 similarities and connections, we found substantial differences in the bacterial communities 440 of permafrost soil and lake sediments. As proposed by the Baas-Becking hypothesis (Baas-441 Becking, 1934), environmental selection is partially responsible for variation in microbial 442 communities, which are also shaped by other ecological processes, such as diversification 443 and dispersal limitation. Indeed, iIn our study, alpha diversity and the dominant phyla 444 found in PBCs and SBCs responded differently to various environmental variables. In 445 addition, there were significant differences in composition and structure among PB, SB, 446 and WB, while the dissimilarities between PB and SB were the lowest.

447 Bacterial communities in lake water had significantly lower alpha diversity as well as 448 distinct community composition and structure in comparison to bacterial communities in 449 permafrost soil and lake sediment. However, PBCs and SBCs had direct influence on 450 WBCs. For thermokarst lakes, the water first originates from the thawing of the ice-rich 451 permafrost and the lake is then fed by precipitation-derived and permafrost-derived water 452 (Yang et al., 2016a; Narancic et al., 2017; Wan et al., 2019). Microorganisms present in 453 lake water have a diverse range of sources, including terrestrial inputs and other sources 454 such as bacteria distributed with the atmosphere, associated with plants and animals, and 455 carried by migratory birds and animals (Ruiz-Gonzalez et al., 2015). Thus, there was a 456 relatively small proportion of OTUs shared between permafrost soil and lake water, as well 457 as between lake sediment and water, and only a few shared OTUs were enriched in lake 458 water. It is a well-established fact that different habitats often support distinct microbial 459 communities (Fierer et al., 2012; Hugerth et al., 2015; Louca et al., 2016). The contrast in 460 bacterial community composition between lake sediments and water has been extensively 461 documented (Briee et al., 2007; Gough and Stahl, 2011; Yang et al., 2016b; Ren et al., 462 2017). In addition, sediment generally harbor a higher species-level diversity of bacteria 463 compared to lake water (Lozupone and Knight, 2007; Ren et al., 2019b). For example, in 464 a permafrost thaw pond of Andes, it was also found that water samples had lower alpha diversity than lake sediment and permafrost samples (Aszalós et al., 2020). Permafrost soil 465 466 and lake sediment may provide more habitat heterogeneity for bacterial taxa than the water 467 column, supported by our observation that the bacterial taxa had higher niche breadth in 468 permafrost soil and lake sediment than in lake water. Moreover, in hydrologically 469 connected terrestrial-aquatic ecosystems, bacterial communities can present distinct but 470 directional spatial structure driven by terrestrial recruited taxa (Ruiz-Gonzalez et al., 2015). 471 Thus, these community similarities between distinct bacterial habitats might be the result 472 of common bacterial source (original permafrost) and the differences are likely caused by 473 subsequent environmental selection, colonization from multiple other bacterial sources, 474 and distinct assembly mechanisms.

Despite connections driven by dispersal, distinct thermokarst habitats had distinct different
bacterial community composition, as seen in previous work (Ottoni et al., 2022). All the
dominant phyla were significantly different in relative abundance among permafrost soil
(PBCs), lake sediment (SBCs), and lake water (WBCs)PB, SB, and WB. In this study,

479 Proteobacteria, Bacteroidota, Actinobacteriota, Gemmatimonadota, Acidobacteriota, 480 Desulfobacterota, and Chloroflexi dominated bacterial communities in permafrost soil 481 and/or thermokarst lakes despite high variabilitiesy. Similar dominance of these taxa has 482 also been found in permafrost and thermokarst landscapes in other areas (Aszalós et al., 483 2020; Belov et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2022). The most commonly reported bacterial groups 484 in permafrost environments include members of Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, 485 Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, and Chloroflexi (Steven et al., 2009; Altshuler 486 et al., 2017; Ottoni et al., 2022), as observed in our samples.

487 *4.2 Beta diversity and assembly processes*

488 In our studied regions across the QTP, PBCs, SBCs, and WBCs all had a high beta diversity 489 (average values > 0.7), with WBCs showing the highest, suggesting that bacterial 490 communities shifted substantially across the large spatial scale of our sampling. Moreover, 491 beta diversities of PBCs, SBCs, and WBCs were significantly correlated with each other, 492 further suggesting that the bacteria in different habitats had a considerable proportion of 493 members from the same source, the original pristine permafrost soil. The significantly 494 lower mean SES.MNTD for PBCs indicate that bacterial communities in permafrost soil 495 were more closely phylogenetically clustered and suffered stronger environmental filtering 496 than those in lake sediment and water (Langenheder et al., 2017), consistent with the 497 observation that PBCs had lower beta diversity than SBCs and WBCs. SES.MNTD is 498 sensitive to changes in lineage close to the phylogenetic tips (Kembel et al., 2010). The 499 higher SES.MNTD observed for SB and WB suggest the possibility that the bacteria in 500 lake sediment and water exhibit a substantial divergence in the co-occurring species, and 501 thermokarst lakes have experienced colonization by bacterial species originating from 502 <u>distinct clades or lineages from external sources following permafrost thaw (Webb et al.,</u>
503 2002; Stegen et al., 2013).

504 The structure of bacterial communities can vary across spatiotemporal scales and different 505 habitats (Ren et al., 2017; Aguilar and Sommaruga, 2020; Pearman et al., 2020). A key 506 objective in the field of microbial ecology is to determine the relative influence of 507 stochastic and deterministic processes in shaping the assembly of communities (Stegen et 508 al., 2013; Zhou and Ning, 2017). In this study, deterministic processes contributed 51.3%, 509 41.2%, and 44.9% to community variation for the bacterial communities in permafrost soil, 510 lake sediment, and lake water, respectively. Homogeneous selection contributed a larger 511 fraction to the assembly of the WBCs (44.8%), followed by SBCs (35.2%) and PBCs 512 (29.7%). Heterogeneous selection influenced PBCs (21.6%) more strongly than SBCs 513 (6.0%) and WBCs (0.1%). In addition, bacterial communities in lake water displayed a 514 higher influence of homogeneous selection but lower influence of heterogeneous selection 515 compared to those in lake sediments and permafrost soil-in our study. The reason for this 516 might be that Long-term changes in thermokarst lakes result in homogenized habitats and 517 consequently strong homogenous selection on bacterial communities (Ning et al., 2019). 518 In contrast, permafrost soil is a highly heterogeneous environment across spatial scales 519 (Etzelmüller, 2013; Nitzbon et al., 2021), creating a wide range of habitats which can 520 impose strong heterogeneous selection pressures on bacterial communities. Furthermore, 521 permafrost soil is characterized by limited nutrient availability due to the frozen state of 522 organic matters (Beermann et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2023), while lake water offers a more 523 diverse and abundant array of dissolved organic compounds and nutrients. As a result, 524 bacterial communities in permafrost soil might be more sensitive to variations in resource 525 availability, rendering them more strongly influenced by heterogeneous selection. 526 Deterministic processes could also cause the communities to be more dissimilar through 527 heterogeneous selection, which also imposed strong control on PBCs.In addition, 528 **D**dispersal limitation contributed a larger fraction to SBC_{s} (57.2%) than to PBC_{s} (45%) 529 and WB_{Cs} (37.5%). The dispersal of microorganisms is often considered as a passive 530 process that results in community variation and turnover coupled with the function of 531 environmental filtering (Cline and Zak, 2014; Stegen et al., 2015; Custer et al., 2022). The 532 high dispersal limitation of microbial communities in thermokarst lakes could be 533 potentially explained by that their isolated nature of thermokarst lakes being endorheic 534 results in limited connectivity and strong restriction of microbial dispersal, as well as strong 535 environmental filtering. Additionally, the prolonged frozen phase of thermokarst lakes and 536 permafrost soil restrict the movement of microorganisms (Vargas Medrano, 2019; 537 Vigneron et al., 2019). Furthermore, geographical barriers, exemplified by prominent 538 mountain ranges like the Tanggula Mountains, Kunlun Mountains, Nyenchen Tanglha 539 Mountains, and Bayan Har Mountains, serve as impediments to the dispersal of both 540 macro- and microorganisms (Wan et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2022c). 541 Particularly in lake sediment, where bacterial communities are more isolated over distances 542 and will not disperse as far as those in lake water and permafrost soil, resulting in stronger 543 influence of dispersal limitation (Martiny et al., 2006; Xiong et al., 2012). Although the 544 "everything is everywhere" hypothesis suggests that many microorganisms have a 545 cosmopolitan distribution, their slow mobility allows for the development of regional 546 phylogenetic differences and the emergence of specialized, endemic taxa in isolated 547 habitats, resulting in a low likelihood of microorganisms dispersing to suitable distant sites 548 (Telford et al., 2006). Therefore, dispersal processes in this thermokarst landscape may be 549 restricted by the lack of hydrological connection, limited movement of water, short 550 duration since thawing, and strong environmental filtering, contributing to the observed 551 high dispersal limitation in the studied permafrost soil and thermokarst lakes. This 552 inference is supported by many previous studies showing that dispersal limitation plays a 553 major role in structuring microbial communities in lakes (Telford et al., 2006). Strong 554 dispersal limitation for bacterial communities in permafrost has also been documented 555 across an Alaskan boreal forest landscape (Bottos et al., 2018). In-addition, bacterial 556 communities in lake water displayed a higher influence of homogeneous selection 557 compared to those in lake sediments and permafrost soil in our study. The reason for this 558 might be that long-term changes in thermokarst lakes result in homogenized habitats and 559 consequently strong homogenous selection on bacterial communities. Deterministic 560 processes could also cause the communities to be more dissimilar through heterogeneous 561 selection, which also imposed strong control on PBCs.

562 4.3 Environmental influences

563 Understanding how environmental factors shape bacterial communities is a crucial aspect 564 in the field of microbial ecology (Fierer and Jackson, 2006; Pla-Rabes et al., 2011). With 565 global warming, climatic and physicochemical environments will be strongly altered in 566 permafrost areas. On the QTP in particular, air temperature and precipitation are increasing 567 in most regions (Xu et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2018). Moreover, organic carbon and nutrient 568 stocks in permafrost are decreasing (Turetsky et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021) and thermokarst 569 lakes are developing, driving dynamic environmental change (Luo et al., 2015; Vucic et 570 al., 2020). These environmental disruptions likely impose strong influences on bacterial 571 communities in thermokarst landscapes. In our study, bacterial communities were differentially correlated with various measured environmental variables. In our data, pH 572 573 was consistently identified as a strong correlate of microbial community structure and 574 diversity, as is often observed in terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems worldwide (Fierer and 575 Jackson, 2006; Xiong et al., 2012). While such correlations between pH and bacterial 576 communities have been widely found, the regulation mechanisms still remain unknown 577 (Malard and Pearce, 2018). Moreover, the influences of pH are often species- and location-578 specific (Malard and Pearce, 2018; Egelberg et al., 2021). In this study, pH had 579 significantly negative relationships with alpha diversity of bacterial communities in lake 580 sediment and water, and had negative or positive correlations with some phyla. Moreover, 581 differences in pH might drive community variation observed between PBCs, SBCs, and 582 WBCs, and shift community assembly processes for PBCs and SBCs. Moreover, with 583 permafrost degrading and thermokarst developing, nutrient status will be strongly altered 584 in permafrost areas. On the QTP in particular, air temperature and precipitation are 585 increasing in most regions (Xu et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2018)Organic carbon and nutrient 586 stocks in permafrost are decreasing (Turetsky et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021) and thermokarst 587 lakes are developing, leading to dynamic environmental change (Luo et al., 2015; Vucic et 588 al., 2020). These environmental disruptions likely impose strong influences on bacterial 589 communities in thermokarst landscapes. Our study also showed that nutrient (C, N, and P) 590 concentrations and stoichiometric ratios were strongly related to alpha diversity 591 (particularly for SBCs) and community variation and assembly (particularly for PBCs). 592 High organic matter content, for instance, has been shown to support diverse and complex 593 microbial communities (Garrido-Benavent et al., 2020; Ren and Gao, 2022). The role of 594 nutrient availability in shaping bacterial communities has also been well established 595 (Torsvik et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2020). High organic matter content, for 596 instance, has been shown to support diverse and complex microbial communities (Garrido-597 Benavent et al., 2020; Ren and Gao, 2022).-For example, Actinobacteria and 598 Gemmatimonadota have a negative, while Gemmatimonadota has a positive relationship 599 with organic carbon and nutrients in permafrost (Romanowicz and Kling, 2022; Fu et al., 600 2023), in line with our results. The fact that different bacterial phyla exhibited varied 601 responses to changes in organic carbon and nutrient further emphasizes the intricate 602 interplay between microorganisms and their environment. Due to their ecological strategies, 603 metabolic features, and environmental preferences, bacteria in permafrost respond 604 differentially to nutrient status and other stressors (Carbonero et al., 2014), driving adaptive 605 changes in community composition and function (Mackelprang et al., 2017). In addition, compared to permafrost soil and lake water, lake sediment can exhibit more stable 606 607 physicochemical conditions. However, permafrost soil and lake water experience more 608 dynamic and extreme environmental changes, which drive the bacterial communities. The 609 results of SEM also in line with bacterial community assembly that deterministic processes 610 had stronger influences on PB and WB than on SB. In addition, T thermokarst lakes have 611 sediment directly formed from permafrost soil, and thus, permafrost soil environments and 612 bacterial communities had strong associations with that of lake sediment. 613 In addition to physicochemical environments, location and climate were also suggested to

613 In addition to physicochemical environments, location and climate were also suggested to
614 influence bacterial communities in distinct habitats. <u>On the QTP in particular, air</u>
615 <u>temperature and precipitation are increasing in most regions (Xu et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2018).</u> Warming and altered precipitation regimes under climate change have been

617 demonstrated to affect alpha diversity and composition of stream microbial communities 618 at continental scales (Picazo et al., 2020). Our study indicates that location (particularly 619 latitude) and climate (particularly MAP) factors are important in shifting bacterial 620 communities in thermokarst landscapes. Particularly for bacterial communities in 621 permafrost soil, location and climate have been evidenced as strong factors in shaping 622 microbial communities (Tas et al., 2018; Barbato et al., 2022). Understanding large-scale 623 pattern of bacterial communities is increasingly important to offer insights into the impacts 624 of climate change (Picazo et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2021). As global climate changes, QTP 625 is getting warmer and more humid (Xu et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2018). Therefore, significant alterations to the physical, chemical, and biological properties of thermokarst lakes on the 626 627 QTP can be expected in the coming decades. Based on "space-for-time" substitution, our study serves as a foundation for predicting the potential impact of climate change on 628 629 bacterial communities in thermokarst landscapes.

630 5 Conclusion

631 In this study, we investigated bacterial communities in paired water and sediment samples 632 in thermokarst lakes as well as permafrost soil around the lakes across the QTP. esults 633 showed that each habitat had distinct bacterial assemblages, with lower alpha diversity in 634 lake water and higher beta diversity in lake sediment and permafrost soil. There was 635 considerable overlap in OTUs across habitats. Bacterial communities in permafrost soil 636 and lake sediment were influenced by dispersal limitation, while those in lake water were 637 driven by homogeneous selection. Environmental variables, including latitude, mean 638 annual precipitation, and pH, affected bacterial community variations in all habitats. The

- 639 study highlights the unique bacterial communities and ecological impacts of permafrost
- 640 degradation in diverse habitats created by thermokarst processes.

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651 **Conflict of interest disclosure:**

The authors declare no competing interests.

653 Author's contributions:

- 654 Z.R. designed the study, did the analyses, and prepared the manuscript, performed the field
- work and laboratory work. All the authors prepared the manuscript.

656 Ethics approval statement:

- 657 Not applicable
- 658 **Permission to reproduce material from other sources:**

659 Not applicable

660 **Originality-Significance Statement:**

This is our original study and not submitted to elsewhere

662 Supplementary Information

- Figure S1 Map of the 44 sampling sites of permafrost soil and thermokarst lakes across the
- 664 Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. The distribution of the permafrost was cited from Zou et al., 2017.
- This map was cited from Ren et al, 2022a.
- 666 Figure S2 (a) Venn diagram showing the unique and shared OTUs among distinct bacterial
- 667 communities in permafrost soil (PB), lake sediment (SB), and lake water (WB). (b) The
- volcano plot showing the shared OTUs that significantly (t-test, P < 0.05) enriched in a
- 669 certain habitat. The volcano plot was constructed using log₂ (fold change) on x-axis and –
- 670 log₁₀ (p-values of t-test) on y-axis.
- 671 Figure S3 Distance-decay curves showing community similarity of bacterial communities
- 672 in permafrost soil (PB), lake sediment (SB), and lake water (WB) against geographic
- 673 distances between sampling sites. Solid lines denote the ordinary least-squares linear
- 674 regressions.
- 675

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