Title

Ecological relevance of abundant and rare taxa in a high-diverse elastic hypersaline

microbial mat, using a small-scale sampling

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Abstract

We evaluated the microbial diversity and metabolomic signatures of a hypersaline elastic microbial mat from Cuatro Ciénegas Basin (CCB) in the Chihuahuan Desert of Coahuila, México. We collected ten samples within a small scale (1.5-meters transect) and found a high microbial diversity through NGS-based ITS and 16S rRNA gene sequencing. A very low number of taxa were abundant and shared between all sites, whereas the rare biosphere was more phylogenetically diverse (FPD index) and phylogenetically disperse (PSC index) than the abundant taxa for both analyzed libraries. In regard to potential biotic interactions (Pearson analysis), there were more positive correlations than negative. We also found a distinctive metabolomic signature for each sample and were able to tentatively annotate several classes of compounds with relevant biological properties. Together, these results reveal cohesive, diverse and fluctuating microbial communities, where abundant and rare taxa appear to have different ecological roles.

Introduction

Microbial mats are tightly interacting communities, usually self-sustaining, that are horizontally stratified with multilayered biofilms embedded in a matrix of exopolysaccharides binding cells and inorganic substances together (Bolhuis et al., 2014; Prieto-Barajas et al., 2018; Stolz, 2000). These stratified structures, as well as stromatolites, are the oldest communities found in the fossil record, informing our understanding of ancient metabolic interactions (Gutiérrez-Preciado et al., 2018; Nutman et al., 2016).

Although modern microbial mats and stromatolites are geographically widespread (Gerdes, 2010), their distribution is restricted to extreme environmental conditions where multicellular algae and grazing organisms cannot grow (Bebout et al., 2002). One such site, with a high diversity of microbial mats and stromatolites, is the desert oasis of the Cuatro Ciénegas Basin (CCB), found in the Chihuahuan Desert of the

state of Coahuila in northern México. This small site (150,000 km^2) is extremely

biodiverse – in particular for microbes (Souza, Eguiarte, et al., 2018) – and is

considered of international importance by the RAMSAR convention

(www.ramsar.org). CCB is characterized by an imbalanced stoichiometry (i.e., very

low concentration of phosphorus) (Elser et al., 2005, 2006; Papineau, 2010;

Planavsky et al., 2010), which appears to be a strong selective pressure driving

microbial lineages to adapt locally and form extremely cohesive and co-adapted

microbial communities (Souza, Eguiarte, et al., 2018). The uniqueness of microbial

life in CCB -- characterized as an "Astrobiological Precambrian Park" (Souza et al.,

2012) -- is reflected in the presence of ancient marine lineages (Rebollar et al., 2012;

Souza et al., 2006; Souza, Eguiarte, et al., 2018), rich prokaryotic communities

(López-Lozano et al., 2013; Pajares et al., 2012, 2013; Souza, Olmedo-Álvarez, et

al., 2018) , and diverse fungal (Velez et al., 2016) and viral communities (Taboada

et al., 2018), as well as a high microbial diversity within microbial mats and

stromatolites (Bonilla-Rosso et al., 2012; De Anda et al., 2018; Peimbert et al.,

2012).

In March 2016, we discovered an outermost elastic layer microbial mat in CCB,

which enables the formation of dome-like structures under wet conditions (Fig. 1).

Figure 1

(A) The Cuatro Ciénegas Basin within México, and geographic location of Archaean Domes in Pozas Azules Ranch. (B) Detail of an Archaean Domes slice. (C) Domes when the sampling was conducted (note the size scale). Photos by David Jaramillo.

The internal microbial layer, insulated by an outer aerobic community, thrives under an anaerobic environment, rich in methane and hydrogen sulfide, and small volatile hydrocarbons that recreate the atmosphere of the Archaean Eon, hence we named these mats "Archaean domes" (Medina-Chávez et al., 2020). Similar types of elastic mats have previously been described in marine tidal zones, although their formation is relatively rare (Gerdes et al., 1993).

Given their functional richness, microbial mats are ideal systems for analyzing the role of microbial interactions in maintaining community structure under extreme conditions (Paerl & Yannarell, 2010; Prieto-Barajas et al., 2018). In this sense, there are three approaches that can improve our understanding of biotic interactions and processes at an evolutionary scale (Mayfield & Levine, 2010) for microbial mat communities. First, determine the phylogenetic diversity of communities under extreme environmental conditions where, for example, abiotic filtering and competitive exclusion have been reported as drivers of phylogenetic clustering (Goberna et al., 2014;). Second, investigate the ecology of microbial subcommunities, such as those of rare taxa, a less-studied topic than the whole community (Liu et al., 2019) but important to explore for their potential contribution to ecological processes (Jia et al., 2018). Third, analyze the metabolomics of communities, which is one of the functional expressions of diversity and an underexplored aspect of microbial communities that can help complete our understanding of the observed diversity. Moreover, metabolomics can also elucidate ecological aspects (Sardans et al., 2011) that help uncover the reciprocal interactions between ecology and evolution, known as eco-evolutionary feedbacks (D. M. Post & Palkovacs, 2009).

In this study, we evaluated the microbial diversity, the rare biosphere, and its metabolomic signature within this elastic hypersaline microbial mat from CCB, across ten samples collected within a 1.5-meter transect. Specifically, we aimed: 1) to explore microbial diversity analyzing amplicons of the 16S rRNA and ITS regions,

109 2) to determine whether rare and abundant taxa are phylogenetically structured; 3)
110 to evaluate microbial metabolomic signatures as an approximation to eco-
111 evolutionary feedbacks; and 4) to approximate biotic interactions.
112
113 **Results**
114 ***Microbial taxonomic composition***
115 16S rRNA gene and ITS libraries revealed the occurrence of different microbial
116 lineages, as genera composition showed (Fig. 2).

117
118 Figure 2
119 Genera relative abundance of taxa in Archaean Domes, Cuatro Ciénegas Basin
120 sample. A) Bacteria (only showed the most common taxa, more than 1% of diversity)
121 B) Fungi (using Merge database, only fungal ASVs. NA is for ASVs that were not
122 assigned to any genera, but phylum only).
123

Overall, 40 prokaryote phyla were detected from the 16S rRNA gene libraries (Suppl.
Fig. 1A), and a total of 6,063 different ASVs were found, with a proportion of 11.8%
of unclassified reads (Suppl. Table 2). Bacteroidetes was the most abundant phylum,
representing around 23% of the prokaryotic diversity in the samples, followed by
Proteobacteria with ≈ 19% and Cyanobacteria with nearly 18%. Spirochaetes and
Chloroflexi represented ≈ 8% and ≈ 4% of the prokaryotic diversity, respectively.
Nearly 2% were Firmicutes, Patesibacteria and Halanaerobiota (Suppl. Fig. 1A).
A total of 410 genera of Bacteria were detected in the 10 sampled sites (S1-S10) at
a 1.5 m-scale. From those, only 9 genera were abundant (representing ≈ 70% of
total abundance, Fig. 2 A): *Coleofasciculus* (or *Microcoleus*), *Spirochaeta*,
Catalinimonas, *Desulfovermiculus*, *Halanaerobium*, *Tangfeifania*, *Sungkyunkwania*,
Sediminispirochaeta and *Imperialibacter*. The remaining 401 genera can be
classified as rare biosphere, with ≈ 30% of total abundance (less than 1% each, Fig.
2 A). Moreover, 28 ASVs of Archaea were obtained using our 16S primers,
comprising two phyla, Woesearchaeota and Euryarchaeota (Suppl. Fig. 1a).
Halobacteria class was the most abundant, and we detected 4 genera: *Halovivax*,
Halorubrum, Halorussus and *Haloasta* (Suppl. Table 2).
For the ITS region libraries, we successfully obtained reads for six of the sampled
sites (S1 to S4, S6 and S7). For the Forward-Only ITS database, we detected 923
different ASVs. The majority of the classified reads belong to Alveolata protists (77%,
Suppl. Fig. 1B), followed by Fungi (11%) and Viridiplantae (8%); Metazoa, Protista,
Amoebozoa, Rhodoplantae, Chromista and Stramenophila comprised the remaining
4%. Unassigned taxa were 50% of all reads (Suppl. Table 2). The majority of ASVs
within Forward ITS database could not be accurately classified at lower taxonomic
categories, particularly for three common ASVs (ASV0 (unclassified), ASV1
(Ciliophora) and ASV2 (Ciliophora)), which comprise nearly 70% of the abundance
in ITS reads for all sites. Using Merge ITS ASVs database for a better taxonomic
assignment, Fungal ASVs comprising 18 genera were detected, with phyla
Ascomycota, Basidiomycota and Rozellomycota present in all samples (Fig. 2B).
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Alpha and beta diversity

Rarefaction curves (Suppl. Fig. 2A and 2B) showed similar results for both the

Forward-Only ITS region libraries (S1, S2, S3, S4, S6, S7), and 16S rRNA gene

libraries, as all sites reached an asymptote, suggesting an adequate sampling effort.

Only 183 ASVs (3% of the diversity) were shared between all sites for 16S rRNA

gene libraries (Fig. 3A), forming a very small core, but comprised 72.4% of all reads

(composed of twenty-one phyla), while most of the ASVs were unique to a specific

site or shared between two or three sites. For ITS libraries, the 56 shared ASVs (6%)

comprised 94.7% of all reads (Fig. 3B).

Figure 3

Graphic representation of shared ASVs within Archaean Domes mats sampling
sites. Number of shared ASVs is represented by black bars, showing the exact
number on the top. Dots below bars denote sites where those ASVs are shared, and
lines joining dots indicate the shared sites. Colored bars at bottom left of the main
figure are for ASVs number within each site. Pays show taxonomy of shared ASVs
within all sites (a few but abundant ASVs core). (A) 16S Archaea and Bacteria, rRNA
gene database, (B) Fungi and other Eucarya, Forward-Only ITS database.

16S rRNA ASVs alpha diversity (Table 1) ranged from 2470 expected ASVs

according to Chao1 in S2 (Shannon = 7.4, highest Shannon index value), to 544

expected ASVs in S9 (Shannon = 6.1). In the case of the ITS region libraries

(Forward-Only ITS database), the most ASV Chao1 diversity for Eukarya was S6

with 393 expected ASVs and a Shannon diversity of 2.5; S3 had the lowest Chao1

diversity, with 199 expected ASVs, but this site had the highest Shannon value of 3

(Table 1).

ITS region						
	α diversity			Phylogenetic diversity		
Sample	Observed	Chao	Shannon	Faith PD	Faith PD rare	Faith PD abundant
1	322	322	1.827	86.309	42.596	18.161
2	226	226	2.713	60.622	40.846	14.516
3	199	199	3.062	47.289	30.370	14.774
4	270	275	1.783	83.008	51.513	16.287
6	383	393	2.501	131.435	75.352	28.794
7	337	344	2.008	114.983	60.352	18.865

16S rRNA						
	α diversity			Phylogenetic diversity		
Sample	Observed	Chao	Shannon	Faith PD	Faith PD rare	Faith PD abundant
1	1761	1773.203	6.863	544.704	290.491	44.159
2	2399	2470.398	7.402	789.807	368.430	84.442
3	1068	1071.318	6.256	211.745	156.204	20.064
4	1564	1568.664	6.499	500.787	259.828	40.627
5	1344	1358.842	6.882	220.536	172.299	21.557
6	2345	2353.855	6.301	851.168	302.103	131.337
7	2156	2172.218	6.838	759.536	328.238	97.486
8	1195	1217.568	6.487	205.987	139.839	22.798
9	544	544	6.126	160.368	94.201	18.577
10	828	875.634	5.115	283.017	148.655	36.514

Table1

Alpha diversity indices for 16S rRNAgene and Forward-Only ITS region databases
from Archaean Domes CCB microbial mats.

Paired beta bacterial diversity among microbial mat samples for both the 16S rRNA

gene and ITS region databases ranged from 0.2 to 0.7 for the Bray-Curtis diversity

values and 0.3 to 0.7 according to the Jaccard-1 values (Suppl. Fig. 3 A and B). For

both indexes, S10 is different from the rest of the 16S rRNA gene libraries, and S1,

S2, S4, S6, S7 were associated in a cluster. In the ITS libraries, there are two main

clusters (S1, S2 and S4; S3, S6 and S7). A significant geographic pattern in the

Mantel test (p=0.0402) was found for Jaccard-1 of the 16S library, however we did

not find significant values based on geography for ITS libraries for either Jaccard-1

or Bray-Curtis.

Phylogenetic Diversity

For both libraries, Faith Phylogenetic Diversity showed that rare ASVs were more

diverse than abundant ASVs (Table 1), and Phylogenetic Species Clustering (PSC)

measures showed that abundant ASVs were clustered within phylogeny, while rare

ASVs were disperse (Fig. 4 A and B).

Figure 4
Graph representing null model distribution of Phylogenetic Species Clustering
(nmdPSC) values for all community, abundant and rare taxa from 16S rRNA
database (A) and Forward-Only ITS database (B). Dotted lines are showing
nmdPSC significant values: > +2 is consistent with a sample that had more
phylogenetic overdispersion than expected by chance alone, and nmdPSC value <
-2 indicates more phylogenetic clustering than expected by chance alone; values in

the range +2 and -2 had a null model distribution. nmdPSC values are reported in
Suppl. Table 5.
215

Approximation to biotic interactions: Pearson analysis

In order to identify potential biotic interactions within the dominant taxa from the three

domains of life within the Archaean Domes, we calculated Pearson correlations

between ASVs (Fig. 5).

Figure 5
Pearson correlation analysis within the most common (i.e., involving more than 1%
of diversity) Bacteria, and all genera of Archaea and Fungi (from Merge ITS
database). Colored squares are for significant correlations (P≤0.05), blue for positive
ones and red for negatives.
226
227 We analyzed the most abundant ASVs (above 1%) from the 16S rRNA gene libraries

228 and both ITS databases, along with 22 Archaea ASVs. We observed that most of

229 the negative co-occurrence correlations are associated with Bacteria, in particular

230 the Bacteroidetes phylum. Within the complete correlation matrix, we observed 22

231 negative co-occurrence correlations, along with 9 for Archaea, 14 for Fungi, and 6 for

232 Eukarya (see Suppl. Table 3 for interaction counts). In addition, we observed that

233 Archaea-Archaea correlations (Fig. 5) were mostly positive (80), the majority of them

234 enclosed within Archaea ASVs (32), whereas Eukarya-Eukarya interactions had the

235 fewest positive correlations (4). Remarkably, in the cross-kingdom fungal

236 interactions, most of the negative fungal correlations (8 of 14) were observed in

237 Rozellomycota.

239 ***Metabolomic profile***

240 We found a wide range of metabolites based on heatmap and GNPS molecular

241 networking analysis (Fig. 6 and Suppl. Fig. 4 A&B).

243 Figure 6
244 Molecular network of soil samples grouped metabolite features into 140 chemical
245 families. Each node in the network represents one metabolite feature. Nodes
246 connected to each other are structurally-related (cosine MS^2 similarity score ≥0.7).
247

Untargeted metabolomics analysis of microbial communities is complicated, due to

the complexity and heterogeneity of this matrix and the scarcity of the secondary

metabolites extracted. The 1,341 molecular features at unique retention times

(Suppl. Fig. 4 A&B) shared several common regions across all samples, allowing us

to group them into three main clusters (cluster 1, samples 3-5 and 10; cluster 2,

samples 1, 2 and 6; and cluster 3, samples 7-9, Suppl. Fig. 4B). We found highly

heterogeneous metabolic profiles in all samples, and no significant associations

were observed between metabolite features and ITS or 16SrRNA abundance

matrices.

On the other hand, GNPS molecular networking analysis grouped the metabolite

features in 18,547 nodes distributed into 83 chemical families (sub-networks) of ≥ 3

members, 57 families of two metabolite features, and 875 singletons (Fig. 6).

Detected compounds in the GNPS and detailed metabolomic analysis of the main

ions observed in LC-MS/MS data, focused in microbial metabolites, allowed us to

tentatively identify several secondary metabolites that passed our quality criteria ($\leq$

5 ppm mass error; Suppl. Table 4 and Fig. 7).

Figure 7

Structures of microbial metabolites tentatively annotated in samples S1-S10 ($\leq$ 5

ppm mass error).

Discussion

Microbial composition at a microscale

Our study revealed a remarkably high microbial diversity within a 1.5 m scale in an elastic microbial mat located at an extreme site. Altogether, we found 40 prokaryotic phyla, including 410 genera of Bacteria and 4 of Archaea, as well as 18 Fungal genera (Fig. 2 and Suppl. Fig. 1).

Bacteria

The bacterial phyla (Suppl. Fig. 1) detected in our study site are common components of hypersaline microbial mats (Bolhuis et al., 2014; Visscher et al., 2010): Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria, Cyanobacteria, Chloroflexi, and Firmicutes, among other abundant phyla, which are similar at this broad taxonomic level to other sites in CCB (Bonilla-Rosso et al., 2012; Breitbart et al., 2009; De Anda et al., 2018; Nitti et al., 2012). As expected from a microbial mat, a primary producer was present and abundant in all of our samples: *Coleofasciculus* (*Microcoleus)* (Fig. 2), a filamentous nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria genus well-adapted to saline conditions (De Wit et al., 2013; Ramos et al., 2017) that has been reported in Guerrero Negro microbial mats (Des Marais, 2010; Wong et al., 2016). We also found the abundant taxon *Catalinimonas,* which is a halophilic Bacteroidetes marine genus (Choi et al., 2013) that has not been previously reported in microbial mats. Another common taxon in our samples is the *Spirochaeta* genus (Bolhuis et al., 2014; Margulis et al., 2006), an anaerobic chemo-organotrophic taxa abundant in hypersaline marine mats (Ben Hania et al., 2015). Interestingly, the *Spirochaetes* phylum has not been detected previously in any CCB mats (Bonilla-Rosso et al., 2012; de Anda et al., 2018; Peimbert et al., 2012). We also observed *Desulfovermiculus*, a sulfate-reducing Deltaproteobacteria, and *Halanaerobium*, a thiosulfate-reducing Firmicute that is halophilic and can form spores (Liang et al., 2016), both of which are common genera in marine microbial mats (Bolhuis et al., 2014).This suggests that this shallow salty pond could be more similar to marine lineages than other sites in CCB (see Rebollar et al., 2012; Souza et al., 2006, 2018).

Previous metagenomic analysis from a mat in Churince within CCB reported 1,431
OTUs (de Anda et al., 2018) – four times less diverse than the Archaean Domes
(6063 ASVs). Other studies within CCB, also with complete metagenomes, retrieved
250 expected OTUs using 31 core genes (Bonilla-Rosso et al., 2012). Therefore, it
is possible that using high coverage 16S tags may reveal a hidden high-diverse rare
biosphere in these microbial mats.
Regarding the high diversity within the Archaean Domes and comparing it with other
microbial mats (since ASVs and OTUs are reported providing similar ecological
results (Glassman & Martiny, 2018)), Cardoso et al. (2019) reported 977 OTUs in
marine microbial mats, and Wong et al. (2015) found 4800 OTUs in Shark Bay, which
are considered some of the most diverse microbial mats worldwide.
311
Archaea
In a recent metagenomic study of the Archaean Domes (Medina-Chávez et al.,
2020), Archaea taxa formed a constant core that is more diverse than any other site
within or outside of CCB. In those metagenomes, Archaea represented nearly 5% of
the total reads, accounting for 230 ASVs.
In our data, by using 16S rRNA gene amplicons, we only detected two main phyla,
as expected given the nature of the amplified region (Suppl. Fig. 1 and Suppl. Table
2). These were Woesearchaeota, a mainly halophilic phylum and potentially
syntrophic within methanogens (Liu et al., 2018; Ortiz-Alvarez & Casamayor, 2016),
and Euryarchaeota, within which we found four halophilic genera: *Halovivax*,
Halorubrum, Halorussus and *Haloasta*, all of them previously reported within saline
habitats and sediments (McGonigle et al., 2019; Zaitseva et al., 2018)*.* The
metagenomic data (Medina-Chávez et al., 2020) and the 16S rRNA gene amplicons
were sampled from the same pond at different times and space, and both showed
lineages common to hypersaline habitats.
327
Fungi
Fungal members represent a diverse and common component of hypersaline water
columns and mats (Cantrell et al., 2013) and have been suggested to play a role in

the degradation of EPS (exopolymeric substances) (Cantrell & Duval-Pérez, 2013).

Our results suggest that unidentified uncultured members of the Ascomycota and

Rozellomycota comprise the core mycobiota of the analyzed mats, as they occurred

across all the samples (Fig. 3B). In addition, it is feasible that these abundant

heterotrophs occupy a unique niche within the micro-scale of microbial mats, where

they can degrade the abundant EPS produced in the CCB microbial mats (Breitbart

et al., 2010; De Anda et al., 2018; Peimbert et al., 2012). In particular, halotolerant

taxa such as members within the genera *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*, and *Nigrospora*

have been repeatedly reported in microbial mats at other locations (Cantrell et al.,

2013; Cantrell & Duval-Pérez, 2013), evidencing their adaptation to extreme

conditions. Thus, it appears that, similar to other microbial mats, fungal members

occupy a unique niche within the micro-scale of the Archaean Domes (Cantrell et

al., 2011).

Other eukaryotes

The overall diversity of protists in the Archaean Domes is comparable to the diversity

observed in other microbial mats (329 ASVs, Suppl. Table 2). For example, Saghaï

et al. (2017), reported nearly half of the 586 18S rRNA OTUs they analyzed as

Protozoa in a saline shallow pond mat in Chile, while ≈ 500 eukaryotic 18S rRNA

OTUs were observed in mats from hydrothermal vents in Guaymas Basin (Pasulka

et al., 2019), where half of them were likewise classified as Protozoa taxa. More than

1500 eukaryotic 18S rRNA OTUs were detected in microbialites in Highborne Cay,

Bahamas, and Hamelin Pool (Shark Bay), Australia (Edgcomb et al., 2014), with also

a half proportion being Protozoa.

In our sample, there are three abundant ASVs of Alveolata protists that represent

nearly 70% of the ITS region (Suppl. Fig. 1B, Forward-Only ITS database) in all

sequenced sites (S1-S4, S6, S7). Two of the three ASVs are Ciliophora (i.e. ciliates),

which is the most diverse phylum of protists, with 3,500 described species, most of

which are cosmopolites (Gao et al., 2016). It will therefore be interesting to analyze

more molecular markers in the future to distinguish the protist lineages, as well as to

microscopically study the protists to reach a closer taxonomic identification. Other

Protozoa ASVs were observed at low numbers and belong to the Amoebozoa
phylum, and the ancestral algae from the kingdom Chromista were also observed at
a low abundance (Suppl. Fig. 1B).

Although research on halophilic protozoan is still young, it has made great progress
in recent years (Harding & Simpson, 2018). Protozoa in general are grazing
organisms, as is the case with *Fabrea salina* ,one of the few classified low
abundance ITS ASVs in our study (Merge database, Suppl. Table 2). This ciliate is
present in microbial mats and feeds on *Cyanotece sp.*, a Cyanobacteria associated
with algae mats (Carrasco & Perissinotto, 2012). Indeed, in hypersaline
environments, most ciliates are known to be important components of the pelagic
microbial food loop (Liu et al., 2016). Amoebae have also been observed as grazers
(Hauer et al., 2001; Hauer & Rogerson, 2005; F. Post et al., 1983) on cyanobacteria
in surface mud samples from a salt pond in Eilat, within the Salton sea in Southern
California (Hauer & Rogerson, 2005). Even though the diversity of protists is low,
their prevalence, along with the large amount of viruses found in metagenomic
samples (28% of the metagenomes from Medina-Chávez et al., 2020), strongly
suggests that predator-prey interactions could be very important for the dynamics of
the system (Carreira et al., 2020).

Alpha and beta diversity

The studied microbial mats –which are subject to extreme and fluctuating
environmental conditions– have a similar Shannon diversity as soil bacterial
communities (Dang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2018). The Shannon Index accounts
for both species evenness and abundance; hence, it could sub-represent diversity if
most of the diversity is part of the rare biosphere. For example, Site 3 for the Eukarya
database had the highest Shannon value, despite having the lowest ASV number
(Table 1), due to its higher evenness distribution of taxa. Meanwhile, Chao1 only
compares the observed diversity with the expected, given a species distribution,
which more accurately reflects the total diversity of the site (Table 1; Suppl. Fig. 2A
and 2B).

Given the extraordinary patchiness of the observed diversity, exemplified by genera

composition differences between sample sites (Fig 2A), as well as unique

metabolomic patterns in each sample (Suppl. Fig. 4A&B), beta diversity analysis

showed a large turnover between sites despite the small scale (Suppl. Fig. 3).

Accordingly, the different domains analyzed (i.e., the Bacteria database or the

Eukarya database) had a distinctive association pattern, showing a statistically

significant geographic association only for the bacterial database.

Our results suggest a small taxonomical and functional core in these hyper-diverse

10 samples of the Archaean Domes, formed by bacterial and Eukaya ASVs shared

among all sites, that make up a low fraction of the total taxa, but are highly abundant

(183 16S rRNA ASVs, that comprises 3% of taxa (Fig. 3A) and 72.4% abundance of

all reads; 56 (6%) shared ITS ASVs with 94.7% abundance of all reads) (Fig. 3B).

Interactions in the Archaean Domes, inferred from the co-occurrence or co

absence between sites.

In this study, we performed a Pearson correlation analysis (Fig. 5) to identify

potential ecological roles and interactions between the most abundant ASVs within

the three databases and 22 archaeal ASVs. Negative correlations (i.e. absence or

lower than expected co-occurrence) can be used to identify metabolic competition,

separated niches, antagonistic interactions, or any other relationship precluding co-

occurrence (Saghaï et al., 2017). Meanwhile, positive correlations (i.e. co-occurr

frequently or always observed) encompass a variety of relationships that include

mutualism, symbiosis, parasitism, predation, common abiotic niche requirements

(which are particularly relevant to complex microbial mat communities), associations

with redox gradients, and metabolic syntrophy (Saghaï et al., 2017). We found more

positive correlations than negative (Suppl. Tab. 3) in our analysis. However, these

correlations do not necessarily indicate direct interactions, since two taxa that are

co-present may not be in direct physical or metabolic contact, due to the spatial

heterogeneity intrinsic to microbial mats. Therefore, this result should be taken

cautiously, given the Pearson correlation assumptions, as well as the consideration

that only a small (but abundant) fraction of the diversity is taken into account.

On the other hand, some of the twenty-two archaeal ASVs analyzed (Fig. 5) formed

a pattern of co-presence associations, which is worth noting since the same ASVs

were also part of the Archaea core observed in a time series metagenomic study

(Medina-Chávez et al., 2020). These positive associations reflect the presence of

taxa within samples: for example *Halorubrum*, *Halobacteria* and Wosearchaes are

positively associated because they were detected (i.e. coexist) in sample 2, and

Halovivax, *Haolorusis* and *Halorubraceae* were detected in sample 6; a similar

situation occurs for the fungi and Eukarya ASVs associated with them. Future

detailed studies, including metagenomic analyses, are required to understand the

mechanism of this potential cooperation, since co-cultivation techniques are difficult

given the differential life strategies of Archaea, which grow very slowly compared

with the faster growth of Fungi in culture.

It is interesting that, while most of the known fungal species are cosmopolitan and

generalists, a few others are specialists, usually adapted to extreme conditions

(Cantrell et al., 2011). For instance, Rozellomycota is a relatively large and

widespread group of eukaryotes, branching at the base of the fungal tree of life

(Corsaro et al., 2014). This group of fungi includes a number of amoebae parasites

that have developed unique morphological and genomic adaptations to intracellular

parasitism (Vávra & Lukeš, 2013). Thus, the utmost negative correlations observed

in two Rozellomycota ASVs (Fig. 5) might suggest the endoparasitic lifestyle of

these early-diverging fungi in the analyzed Archaean Domes.

The majority of the negative associations found among the abundant taxa of this

study were bacterial interactions (Fig. 5; Suppl. Table 3). Among them, bacteria-

bacteria negative interactions were mainly between different phyla. These

interactions are likely not based on metabolic competition, as they are mainly found

between different phyla that could not be sharing a niche. However, antagonism has

been reported previously in Cuatro Ciénegas bacterial taxa (Aguirre-von-Wobeser

et al., 2014; Moreno Fontalba, 2017; Pérez-Gutiérrez et al., 2013) and within cross-

kingdom interactions (Velez et al., 2018), which may account for the negative

correlations observed here. Nevertheless, it is important to remember that these are

only negative correlations, and experimental data is needed to demonstrate
antagonism in this system.
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Phylogenetic diversity
Rare taxa
A third of the abundance of the bacterial genera detected in our samples belongs to
rare bacterial taxa (Fig. 2A). The rare biosphere was more phylogenetically diverse
(Faith Pylogenetic Diversity index, Table 1) and phylogenetically disperse
(Phylogenetic Species Clustering, Fig. 4) than the abundant taxa within these
samples for both the 16S rRNA and ITS libraries, suggesting that environmental
filtering is not occurring for the rare biosphere in this site. This evidence suggests
that these rare taxa could be a large reservoir of genetic diversity, as well as a matrix
of rich microbial interactions and diverse metabolic functions within this microbial
mat (Jia et al., 2018), perhaps presenting collective adaptations to the extreme
conditions.
468
Abundant taxa
The pattern of phylogenetic clustering of the abundant ASVs is supported by
Pearson analysis, with a higher number of positive associations in general (reflecting
co-presence of taxa) and negative bacterial-bacterial associations between different
phyla. This pattern could be similar to some soil bacterial communities that typically
show a coexistence of phylogenetically close relatives (Bryant et al., 2009; Horner-
Devine & Bohannan, 2006), which may be the product of abiotic filtering or
competitive exclusion (Goberna et al., 2014). Competitive exclusion seems to be a
likely explanation for the phylogenetic clustering observed for abundant bacterial and
eukaryotic ASVs, as proposed by Goberna et al. (2014), since the presence of
compounds with antimicrobial properties suggests high levels of competition among
those abundant microbes.
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Metabolomic profile

The dynamic and complex metabolomic profiles of the studied microbial mat was

consistent with the highly diverse microbial community observed in the metagenomic

analysis (Medina-Chávez et al., 2020) (Fig. 6 and Suppl. Fig. 4A&B).

Even though the expression of regulatory genes responsible for secondary

metabolites production depends on several factors (e.g. nitrogen or phosphate

starvation, stressors like heat, pH and damage to the cell wall, among others) (Baral

et al., 2018), along with the lack of soil metabolomics studies and the solubility of the

compounds for LCMS analysis, we were still able to tentatively annotate several

classes of compounds with interesting biological properties (Fig. 7). Many of these

compounds were found to overlap between most of the samples: the antibiotics

indolactam 1 (Irie et al., 1990), 8,9-dihydroindanomycin (Li et al., 2009),

neoindanomycin (Rommel et al., 2011) described from *Streptomyces* species, and

martensine A reported from the marine red alga *Martensia fragilis* (Kirkup & Moore,

1983); the cytotoxic daryamide C (Asolkar et al., 2006), gibbestatin B (Kinashi &

Sakaguchi, 1984) and furaquinocin H (Ishibashi et al., 1991), from *Streptomyces*

strains; the germination inhibitor colletofragarone A1, from fungi *Colletotrichum*

fragariae and *C. capsiciae* (Inoue et al., 1996); benzastatin A (Kim et al., 1996) and

periconiasin G (Zaghouani et al., 2016) from *S. nitrosporeus* and *Periconia* sp. F-31

with free radical scavenger and weak anti-HIV activities; and phomamide and

tomaymycin I form *Phoma lingam* (Ferezou et al., 1980) and *Nocardia* sp. (Tozuka

et al., 1983) with no biological activity described. Other metabolites of interest were

found in specific samples, for example the antifungal agents griseofulvin and

dechlorogriseofulvin, produced by microorganisms of the genera *Penicillium*,

Aspergillus, *Xylaria*, *Coriolus*, *Palicourea*, *Memnoniella*, *Khauskia*, *Carpenteles*,

Arthrinium, *Nigrospora*, *Stachybotrys*, and *Streptomyces* (Atta-ur-Rahmanro, 2005;

Kimura et al., 1992; Knowles et al., 2019; Park et al., 2006) were identified only in

S7; the antimitotic agent nostodione A from the blue-green alga *Nostoc commune*

(Kobayashi et al., 1994) commune in samples S2 and S6-S8; and the mycotoxins

citreohybridone B (Kosemura, 2003), setosusin (Fujimoto et al., 1996), roridin E

(Böhner et al., 1965) and ganoboninone A (Ma et al., 2015) in samples S8-S10.

Interestingly, several observed ions (Suppl. Table 4) do not match with any data
reported and could represent potentially new secondary metabolites.

Several compounds associated with fungi and osmotrophs, as well as to other
Eukarya, reflect the importance of studying the potential role of microorganisms
besides bacteria, within microbial mats (Carreira et al., 2020).

Perspectives

In view of our results, the complex metabolomic data suggests local adaptive
processes, following eco-evolutionary dynamics. These dynamics would create
cohesive, diverse and fluctuating communities where taxa constantly and actively
modify their own ecological niche and that of others (niche construction) (Laland et
al., 2016; Odling-Smee et al., 2003, Van Der Hooft et al., 2020). However, this should
be tested in future studies, exploring the possibility that the rare biosphere could
fulfill the majority of the trophic levels and metabolic tasks, implementing
metabolomics, mesocosms, and metagenomic time series approaches. Additional
perspectives could evaluate the effect of environmental filtering, deepening the
analysis of the biotic interactions, including the rare biosphere.

The high phylogenetic diversity and phylogenetic dispersion of the rare biosphere
may suggest that there is a diverse "seed bank" in the aquifer of CCB, a deep
biosphere fed by magmatic energy (Wolaver 2013) that constantly "seeds" the
Archaean Domes community, along with deep water and particular minerals.
Therefore, in this scenario, eco-evolutionary feedbacks could enhance community
cohesion in Red Queen-like dynamics (Haafke et al., 2016), a hypothesis stating that
"biotic factors provide the basis for a self-driving perpetual motion of the effective
environment and so of the evolution of species affected by it" (Van Valen, 1973). In
our system, there may be a constant change in biotic interactions, as well as
evolutionary landscapes, while the abiotic variables (i.e., gases, nutrients, pH, salts)
are also constantly changing, as a product of community feedback within the deep
aquifer. In the Archaean Domes, active niche construction may have allowed the
communities to co-evolve around a stable species core, given an influx of new
neighbors of microbes and viruses (Taboada et al., 2018) from the deep biosphere,

which constantly assembles complex and new interactions. These ideas require
further testing, along with the community's resilience to fluctuations within these
extreme conditions.
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Methods

Sampling site and sample collection

During the dry season (i. e. most of the year at CCB; Montiel-González et al., 2017),
the microbial mats of the Archaean domes remain humid and active under a salty
crust, which is then dissolved during the rainy season, allowing for increased
photosynthetic activity and the development of the dome-like structures.

The microbial mats of the Archaean domes were sampled during the rainy season
of 2018 (October), with ten evenly spaced samples (S1-S10) along a 1.5-meter
transect (26º 49' 41.7" N 102º 01' 28.7" W) in the 'Pozas Azules' ranch of Pronatura
Noroeste within CCB (Fig. 1). The salinity and pH were constant along the 1.5-meter
transect (salinity 53%, pH 9.8), and the average nutrient content showed a slight
stoichiometric imbalance (C:N:P 122:42:1), similar to the one measured during the
rainy season of 2016 (Medina-Chávez et al., 2020). Microbial mats and associated
sediments (8 cm) were collected and transferred to sterile conical tubes (50 mL),
stored at 4ºC, and subsequently frozen in liquid nitrogen until processing in the
laboratory.
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Total DNA extraction and amplicons sequencing

Prior to DNA extraction, approximately 0.5 g of each sample was rinsed with sterile
water. Total DNA extraction was performed following the protocol reported in de
Anda et al. (2018), which is based on slight modifications from the Purdy et al. (1996)
protocol.

DNA was sequenced at the Laboratorio de Servicios Genómicos, LANGEBIO for the
V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene (357F primer (Rudi et al., 1997), and the ITS
nDNA region (ITS1F/ITS4R for ITS; (White et al., 1990). For each sample**,** 5 mg of
genomic DNA (DO 260/280 1.8) was used; 16S amplicons were sequenced within
Illumina Next-Seq 500 platform (150 SE), and the ITS amplicons were sequenced

with a Mi-Seq platform (2x300 PE). All raw sequences generated are available at

GeneBank Bioproject PRJNA705156 (ITS accession SAMN18070760; 16S

accession SAMN18070761.

Bioinformatics analyses

The 16S rRNA amplicon reads were quality filtered and dereplicated using the QIIME

2 bioinformatics platform version 2019.7 (Bolyen et al., 2018). Sequences were

demultiplexed and truncated at the 20th bp from the left, and the 120th bp from the

right. Divisive Amplicon Denoising Algorithm 2 (dada2) was then used to filter by

sequence quality, remove chimeras, denoise, and create a table of amplicon

sequence variants (ASV) per sample. ASVs were then taxonomically classified using

the silva_132_99_v3v4_q2_2019-7 database. For all subsequent analyses the final

ASV table was rarefied to 760,000 reads. For abundant ASVs (>1%) and

Archaeobacteria ASVs, an additional taxonomic classification was conducted by

selecting those taxa with coincident classification across the results of *blastN* (both

type strain and 16S blast) (Altschul et al., 1990), the RDBP classifier (Q. Wang et

al., 2007), and Qiime2 (Silva database) (Bolyen et al., 2018; Quast et al., 2013).

The ITS amplicon reads were processed using the ITS-specific workflow of the

dada2 v1.13.1 package (Callahan et al., 2016) in R (R Core Team, 2020). Briefly,

cutadapt was used to remove primer and adapter contamination from the raw reads

(Martin, 2011). Prior to determining ASVs, reads with inconsistent bases were

excluded, and reads were required to have less than two expected errors based on

their quality scores. ASVs classification was inferred from forward and reverse reads

using the run-specific error rates (Qiime2 and R code is available at

https://gitlab.com/lauasuar/archaean-domes-repository).

Due to the wide range of sizes of the ITS amplicons reported for fungal species in

CCB (485-782 bp; (Velez et al., 2016)), two different strategies were implemented

to define taxonomic diversity. First, the pre-denoised ASVs were merged after

excluding reads with an overlap of less than 12bp and reads with mismatches in the

overlapping region. Chimeras were removed using the consensus method of

"removeBimeraDenovo" implemented in dada2. The taxonomic assignment was

performed with the UNITE database (Nilsson et al., 2019), using the RDP naive
Bayesian classifier (Wang et al., 2007) available in the *dada2* package with a
minimum bootstrap value of 80. ASVs with a minimum of 85% identity and with E-
values lower than e-45 were retained (Merge ITS database, Suppl Table 1). ASVs
without taxonomic assignment (mostly non-fungi organisms) were classified using
blastn, where only those ASVs within identities greater than 90% were enlisted
(Suppl. Table 1). The remaining ASVs were considered non-classified.

As a great proportion of the reads failed to merge (~56%), a parallel classification
was implemented using the forward independently. The RDP naive Bayesian
classifier was used on the two sets of reads (forward and reverse) to check for
congruence in the classification between of ASVs. ASVs that had an assignment
bootstrap value lower than 50, or showed inconsistent classifications among forward
and reverse reads, were aligned to the NCBI database to corroborate their
taxonomic assignment. Even though some ASVs reached a genus level assignment,
the taxonomic classification of forward reads was limited to the phylum level (ITS
table, Suppl. Table 2); a more robust classification of ASVs was reached when using
forward ASVs, thus all subsequent analyses were performed using the forward-only
ASVs. The Eukaryotic classification followed the UNITE database. The ITS table
abundance was rarefied to 167,660 reads using the *vegan* package (Oksanen et al.,
2013) in R (R Core Team, 2020).

In sum, the 16S rRNA amplicon filtered database included 760,326–1,973,982 high
quality reads per sample, with a total of 6,063 ASVs. The ITS amplicon filtered
database included 167,660–352,720 high quality reads per sample, with a total of
923 ASVs. ITS amplicons were obtained for only six samples (S1, S2, S3, S4, S6
and S7) due to DNA depletion in four samples (S5, S8, S9 and S10). The ASV
abundance tables and the amplicons sequences are available at
https://gitlab.com/lauasuar/archaean-domes-repository.

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Alpha and beta diversity estimates

To evaluate all samples from 16S (S1-S10) and 6 samples (S1-S4, S6, S7) from the

Forward-Only ITS database, we generated rarefied diversity plots using the *vegan*

package (Oksanen et al., 2013) in R (R Core Team 2020).

In order to visualize and count the number of overlapping ASVs within the ten

samples from the 16S rRNA gene and the six samples from the ITS region, we

constructed an UpSet plot using the *UpSetR* package (Conway et al., 2017) in R (R

Core Team 2020).

Alpha (i.e., Chao1, Shannon) and beta (i.e., Bray-Curtis, Jaccard) indices were

estimated using the 16S rRNA ASV abundance table, as implemented in Qiime2.

For the ITS ASV abundance table, alpha and beta diversity indices were estimated

with the the *phyloseq* package (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013) in R (R Core Team,

2020). The beta diversity indices were used to construct an UPGMA dendrogram of

samples (Carteron et al., 2012). Mantel tests (999 permutations) (Legendre &

Legendre, 2012) were conducted with the *vegan* package (Oksanen et al., 2013) to

unveil the relationships between beta diversity and geographic distance, as well as

between beta diversity and the metabolomic profile distance matrix (see below).

Phylogenetic diversity

We estimated phylogenetic diversity within samples using Faith's Phylogenetic

Diversity index (Faith, 1992) and the Phylogenetic Species Clustering index (Helmus

et al., 2007) using the *picante* package (Kembel et al., 2010) in R (R Core Team

2020). Given a phylogenetic tree, phylogenetic diversity (PD) estimates the total

length of branches encompassing a subset of taxa (*e.g.*, sampled communities),

where PD increases as the subset of taxa is more phylogenetically diverse (Faith,

1992). Phylogenetic Species Clustering (PSC) is a measure of the degree of

clustering of taxa across the phylogeny (Helmus et al., 2007), where a PSC value

approaching zero indicates that the subset of taxa are clustered within the

phylogeny.

To estimate the two metrics, we used the rarified diversity matrices and the

corresponding phylogenetic trees for bacterial and fungal ASVs, separately. We

tested the observed patterns of PSC across samples against 1,000 replicates under
a null model and estimated standardized effect sizes (SES) for this index. This
allowed us to identify samples that had more or less phylogenetic clustering than
expected by chance alone. To construct the null model, we randomized the entries
of the rarified diversity matrices while keeping total sample diversity constant. In
addition, we estimated PD and PSC for the most abundant and rare ASVs within
each site. To define rare and abundant ASVs, we estimated the first and third
quartiles (1Q, 3Q) of the distribution of ASV abundances for each site separately.
We used the sites' 1Q and 3Q as the thresholds to define rare and abundant ASVs;
the sites' 1Qs ranged from 3 to 16 reads per ASV, whereas the 3Qs ranged from 37
to 306 reads per ASV. We estimated SES for PD and PSC as defined above, using
matrices for rare and abundant ASV (R code for all phylogenetic diversity analysis
is available at https://gitlab.com/lauasuar/archaean-domes-repository).

The phylogenetic tree was generated by QIIME 2 (Bolyen et al., 2018) for 16S data.
For the ITS data (Forward-Only database), a phylogeny was obtained by applying
an equivalent phylogenetic QIIME 2 methodology, using Maftt (Katoh & Toh, 2010)
and FastTree (Price et al., 2009) within Cipres Science Gateway (Miller et al., 2010).
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Pearson correlation estimate among abundant taxa
We carried out an analysis of correlated presences and absences of microbial taxa
across communities to identify plausible interactions and ecological roles within
microbial genera (Karpinets et al., 2018). To do this, we used a normalized
abundance of six-sites matrix that included ASVs from both ITS databases and 16S
rRNA gene library (Suppl Table 1): <1% abundance classified the ASV 16S
database, 22 six-sites archaea ASVs, and <1% classified the ASV ITS database
(calculated without the first three high abundance ASVs). Data was Hellinger
transformed, with the *vegan* package (Oksanen et al., 2013) in R (R Core Team,
2020). This normalized matrix was used to calculate the correlogram with Pearson
correlation (positive and negative strong correlation ($r \geq 0.9$, $P \leq 0.05$)) using the R
Stats v3.6.1 library (R Core Team, 2020) and *corrplot* package for the graph (Taiyun
& Viliam, 2017).

Metabolomics

Soluble compounds extraction and LC-MS/MS analysis

The samples (10 g each) were extracted with 60 mL of $CHCl_3$-MeOH (1:1) in an

orbital shaker at 150 rpm for 24 hrs. The mixture was filtered, and the solvent was

evaporated under reduced pressure. The dried extracts were reconstituted in 60 mL

of CH_3CN-MeOH (1:1) and defatted with hexanes. Then the CH_3CN-MeOH layer

was dried under a vacuum and resuspended in MeOH (LC-MS grade) to yield a

concentration of 1 mg mL^{-1}. All samples were filtered with a 0.22 μm membrane and

analyzed using a Waters Acquity Ultraperformance Liquid Chromatography (UPLC)

system (Waters Corp.) coupled to a Thermo Q Exactive Plus (ThermoFisher) mass

spectrometer. The UPLC separations were performed using an Acquity BEH C_{18}

column (50 mm × 2.1 mm I.D., 1.7 μm; Waters) equilibrated at 40 °C and a flow rate

set at 0.3 mL min^{-1}. The mobile phase consisted of a linear CH_3CN-H_2O (acidified

with 0.1% formic acid) gradient starting at 15% to 100% of CH_3CN over 8 min. The

mobile phase was held for another 1.5 min at 100% CH_3CN before returning to the

starting conditions. High-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) data and MS/MS

spectra were collected in the positive/negative switching electrospray ionization

(ESI) mode at a full scan range of *m/z* 150−2000, with the following settings: capillary

voltage, 5 V; capillary temperature, 300°C; tube lens offset, 35 V; spray voltage 3.80

kV; sheath gas flow and auxiliary gas flow, 35 and 20 arbitrary units, respectively.

Untargeted metabolomics

The HRMS-MS/MS raw data was individually aligned and filtered with MZmine 2.17

software (http://mzmine.sourceforge.net/) (Pluskal et al., 2010). Peak detection was

achieved as follows: *m/z* values were detected within each spectrum above a

baseline, a chromatogram was constructed for each of the *m/z* values that spanned

longer than 0.1 min, and finally, deconvolution algorithms were applied to each

chromatogram to recognize the individual chromatographic peaks. The parameters

were set as follows for peak detection: noise level (absolute value) at 1×10^6,

minimum peak duration 0.5 s, tolerance for *m/z* variation 0.05, and tolerance for *m/z*

intensity variation 20%. Deisotoping, peak list filtering, and retention time alignment

algorithm packages were employed to refine peak detection. The join align algorithm
compiled a peak table according to the following parameters: the balance between
m/z and retention time was set at 10.0 each, *m/z* tolerance at 0.05, and retention
time tolerance size was defined as 2 min. The spectral data matrix (comprised of
m/z, retention time, and peak area for each peak) was imported to Excel (Microsoft)
for heatmap analysis using *R* (R Core Team, 2020).
Molecular networking was performed from the mzML files using the standard Global
Natural Products Social (GNPS) molecular networking platform workflow with the
spectral clustering algorithm (http://gnps.ucsd.edu; Aron et al, 2020). For spectral
networks, parent mass of 0.01 Da and fragment ion tolerance of 0.02 Da were
considered. For edges construction, a cosine score over 0.70 was fitted with a
minimum of 4 matched peaks, and two nodes at least in the top 10 cosine scores
(K) and maximum of 100 connected the components. After that, the network spectra
were searched against GNPS spectral libraries (full data, feature-based molecular
networking   can   be   accessed   here: https://
gnps.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/status.jsp?task=547303b749f041bb88eee71145de518
4) and graphic visualization of molecular networking was performed in Cytoscape
3.8.0 (Shannon et al., 2003). The chemical profiles were also dereplicated using UV-
absorption maxima and HRMS-MS/MS data against the Dictionary of Natural
Products v 29.1 and Dictionary of Marine Natural Products 2019 (Taylor and Francis
Group), MarinLite (University of Canterbury, New Zealand) and SciFinder (CAS)
databases as described by El-Elimat et al. (El-Elimat et al., 2013), for fungal and
bacterial small molecules. For candidate search, exact mass accuracy was set to 5
ppm. Heatmap visualization of metabolomic data table was generated in
MataboAnalyst (Pang et al., 2020).
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Competing interests

The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

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1261
1262 **Figure legends**

1263

1264 Figure 1
1265 (A) The Cuatro Ciénegas Basin within México, and geographic location of Archaean
1266 Domes in Pozas Azules Ranch. (B) Detail of an Archaean Domes slice. (C) Domes
1267 when the sampling was conducted (note the size scale). Photos by David Jaramillo.
1268
1269 Figure 2
1270 Genera relative abundance of taxa in Archaean Domes, Cuatro Ciénegas Basin
1271 sample. A) Bacteria (only showed the most common taxa, more than 1% of diversity)
1272 B) Fungi (using Merge database, only fungal ASVs. NA is for ASVs that were not
1273 assigned to any genera, but phylum only)

1274
Figure 3
Graphic representation of shared ASVs within Archaean Domes mats sampling
sites. Number of shared ASVs is represented by black bars, showing the exact
number on the top. Dots below bars denote sites where those ASVs are shared, and
lines joining dots indicate the shared sites. Colored bars at bottom left of the main
figure are for ASVs number within each site. Pays show taxonomy of shared ASVs
within all sites (a few but abundant ASVs core).
(A) 16S Archaea and Bacteria, rRNA gene database, (B) Fungi and other Eucarya,
Forward-Only ITS database.
1284
Figure 4
Graph representing null model distribution of Phylogenetic Species Clustering
(nmdPSC) values for all community, abundant and rare taxa from 16S rRNA
database (A) and Forward-Only ITS database (B). Dotted lines are showing
nmdPSC significant values: > +2 is consistent with a sample that had more
phylogenetic overdispersion than expected by chance alone, and nmdPSC value <
-2 indicates more phylogenetic clustering than expected by chance alone; values in
the range +2 and -2 had a null model distribution. nmdPSC values are reported in
Suppl. Table 5.
1294
1295   Figure 5
1296   Pearson correlation analysis within the most common (i.e., involving more than 1%
1297   of diversity) Bacteria, and all genera of Archaea and Fungi (from Merge ITS
1298   database). Colored squares are for significant correlations (P≤0.05), blue for positive
1299   ones and red for negatives.
1300
1301   Figure 6
1302   Molecular network of soil samples grouped metabolite features into 140 chemical
1303   families. Each node in the network represents one metabolite feature. Nodes
1304   connected to each other are structurally-related (cosine MS^2 similarity score ≥0.7).
1305
1306   Figure 7
1307   Structures of microbial metabolites tentatively annotated in samples S1-S10 (≤ 5
1308   ppm mass error).
1309
1310   Table1
1311   Alpha diversity indices for 16S rRNAgene and Forward-Only ITS region databases
1312   from Archaean Domes CCB microbial mats.
1313
1314   Suppl. Fig. 1
1315   (A) Phylum composition within 16S rRNA gene database (B) Kingdom composition
1316   (based on UNITE database eukaryotic taxonomy) within Forward-Only ITS region
1317   database.
1318
1319
1320

1321   Suppl. Fig. 2

1322   Rarefaction curves for 16S rRNA gene database (A) and ITS region Forward-Only

1323   ITS database (B).

1324

Suppl. Fig. 3

UPGMA dendrogram showing composition similarities among sampling sites

(Forward-Only ITS database for Eucarya UPGMA).

Branch length represent Bray-Curtis and Jaccard-1 dissimilarity coefficient, based

on (A) abundance of 16S rDNA sequences ASVs, and (B) abundance of ITS region

database ASVs. The numbers (height) are Bray-Curtis and Jaccard values.

1331

1332   Suppl. Figure 4

1333   Heatmap analysis showing relative abundance of metabolite features (MS ions in

1334   positive mode) in the Archaean Domes mats samples. On the scale bar, brick red

1335   color indicates increased metabolite levels, and blue color represents decreased

1336   levels. A shows non clustered samples and sites, B clustered samples and sites.

1337

1338   Suppl. Table 1.

1339   List of ASVs Blast hits with <90%, of non-fungal Merge ITS database.

1340

1341   Suppl. Table 2.

1342   Abundance tables (16S rRNA gene and ITS region taxa).

1343

1344   Suppl. Table 3.

1345   Counts of significant negative and positive correlations from Pearson Correlation

1346   Analysis (Figure 5).

1347

1348   Suppl. Table 4.

1349   Tentatively identified microbial metabolites in samples S1-S10 by GNPS and

1350   detailed metabolomic analysis.

1351

1352   Suppl. Table 5

1353   nmdPSC values