

1 **Highly diverse and unknown viruses may enhance Antarctic endoliths'**
2 **adaptability**

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44 **Abstract**

45
46 Rock-dwelling microorganisms are key players in ecosystem functioning of Antarctic ice free-
47 areas. Yet, little is known about their diversity and ecology. Here, we performed metagenomic
48 analyses on rocks from across Antarctica comprising >75,000 viral operational taxonomic units
49 (vOTUS). We found largely undescribed, highly diverse and spatially structured virus communities
50 potentially influencing bacterial adaptation and biogeochemistry. This catalog lays the foundation
51 for expanding knowledge of the virosphere in extreme environments.

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77 **Main**

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79 Viruses are among the most prevalent entities on our planet, with the ability to infect organisms
80 across all Domains¹. Sequencing advances are reshaping understanding of viral diversity across
81 Earth's diverse ecosystems, leading to a remarkable expansion of viral catalogs²⁻⁴. It is becoming
82 clear that viruses play key roles in global biogeochemical cycles through the modulation of host
83 population dynamics, and that the better-studied pathogenic viruses represent only a small
84 fraction of the virosphere⁵⁻⁷. Further, through auxiliary metabolic genes (AMGs), some viruses
85 can directly impact host metabolism to improve fitness⁸, including in extreme ecosystems.

86
87 Antarctic ice-free areas include several of the most inhospitable regions on Earth, among which
88 is the Mars counterpart: the McMurdo Dry Valleys. In these locations, where rocks represent the
89 main substratum, active life is possible for only a few specialized microorganisms; they survive
90 by dwelling in porous rocks, forming self-sustaining ecosystems called endolithic
91 communities^{9,10} are the primary life-forms present assuring the balance and functionality of these
92 otherwise inert ecosystems. Recent studies have shed light on their biodiversity and adaptation,
93 particularly the evolution of new and peculiar taxa spanning bacteria, fungi and archaea¹⁰⁻¹³.
94 However, the ecology and distribution of viral diversity from these communities remain wholly
95 unknown and, to date, viral studies have instead focused on Antarctic freshwater lakes¹⁴⁻¹⁶,
96 surrounding oceans¹⁷⁻¹⁹, and soils²⁰⁻²³.

97
98 Here, we provide a large-scale viral catalog from 191 Antarctic endolith metagenomes. We
99 sampled 37 localities across a broad range of environmental (e.g. 4 rock typologies, different
100 altitudes and sun exposure) and spatial conditions (i.e. Antarctic Peninsula, Northern Victoria
101 Land, and McMurdo Dry Valleys) (Table S1; Fig. 2A). We aimed to (i) untangle viral diversity in
102 these communities, (ii) predict AMGs and how they may drive the fitness of their hosts, and (iii)

103 explore ecological patterns (e.g., biogeography). This catalog is the first step toward
104 understanding the role of viruses in regulating biogeochemical cycling in the coldest and driest
105 region on Earth. This information is also critical for elucidating the role of viruses in whole
106 community adaptation in a scenario of global warming and expanding desertification²⁴.

107

108 Using VirSorter2²⁵, we predicted 101,085 viral sequences. We clustered these at 95% average
109 nucleotide identity into 76,984 viral operations taxonomic units (vOTUS)²⁶; we further used
110 VContact2²⁷ with INPHARED²⁸ reference genomes to cluster phage vOTUs into 7,598 viral
111 clusters (VCs), which approximate genus-level groupings based on gene-sharing networks. To
112 keep analysis focused on the most robust catalog, we filtered this collection using community
113 thresholds for length, detection, and quality (See Online Methods)²⁹⁻³¹. The final viral catalog
114 represented 14,797 viral sequences, including 2,695 prophage, which clustered into 11,806
115 vOTUs, of which 5,743 phage vOTUs (7,309 sequences) were successfully placed in 2,286 VCs;
116 the final catalog was predicted to predominantly be dsDNA phage, though 15.2% of vOTUs may
117 represent eukaryotic viruses (i.e. NCLDVs).

118

119 Our findings indicate that Antarctic rock communities host highly diverse and novel phage
120 populations, with only 1.8% (41 out of 2,286) of the VCs including reference sequences. The
121 remaining 98.2% were unique VCs (i.e., did not include reference genomes), and could represent
122 novel phage genera, greatly expanding the known diversity of viruses. Of the 41 VCs that did
123 include reference genomes, the majority were assigned to the *Caudoviricetes* class (formerly
124 *Caudovirales* order) of tailed double-stranded DNA bacteriophage (Fig. S1). Many genomes have
125 not yet been reclassified, leaving viral taxonomy in flux; under the new schema, most of the 41
126 VCs are unclassified³². The majority of unique VCs are represented by viral sequences from
127 sandstone communities (Fig. 1A), which represents an optimum substratum, in terms of rock traits

128 (e.g. porosity), for endolithic colonization³³, but is also the most represented substratum in this
129 work.

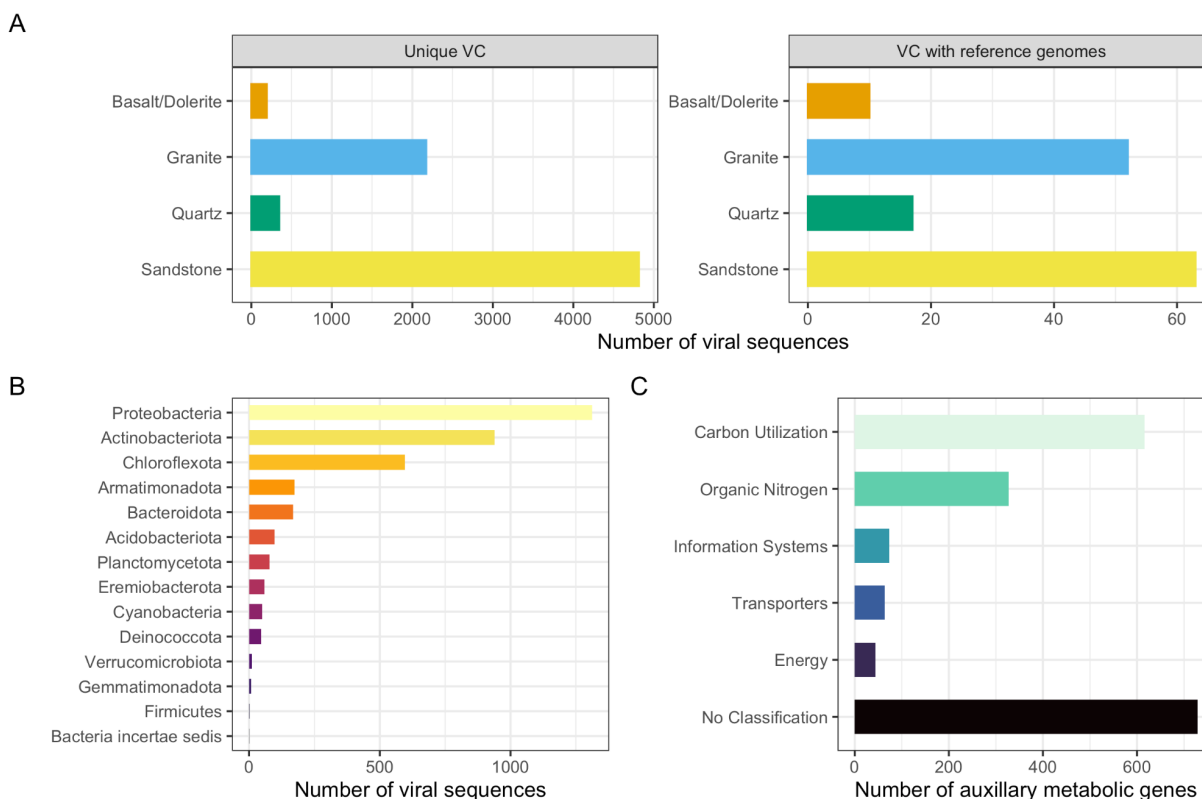
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131 We further established host–virus linkages using NCBI BLAST against complete bacteria and
132 archaea genomes from RefSeq, and Antarctic endolithic bacterial and archaeal metagenome-
133 assembled genomes (MAGs) (see Online Methods)^{34–36} to explore the potential effects of viruses
134 on host fitness, such as host-cell reprogramming through AMGs³⁷. While we were unable to
135 predict hosts for the majority of vOTUS, we observed that Proteobacteria, Actinobacteriota, and
136 Chloroflexota were the most commonly predicted host phyla (Fig. 1B), which are thought to be
137 core members of these communities^{11,38,39}. Using predictions against the Antarctic MAGs, we
138 predicted hosts for an additional 16.5% of viral sequences (Fig. S2).

139

140 We then sought to improve understanding on the functional profiles of retrieved phages using
141 DRAM-v⁴⁰. Notably, this catalog, which comprises metabolic novelty (39.3% of DRAM-v predicted
142 AMGs had no distilled classification), may complement other available resources, which have
143 largely been limited to coverage of human-related microbiomes (e.g. Li et al.⁴¹). Within identified
144 functions, we found putative phage AMGs related to carbon, energy and nitrogen metabolisms
145 (Fig. 1C). Specifically, within carbohydrate metabolism, glycoside hydrolases,
146 glycosyltransferases, and carbohydrate-binding domains predominated. Within nitrogen
147 metabolism, methionine degradation was the most prevalent module, and within energy, the
148 dominant modules were related to electron transport and photosynthesis. This highlights the utility
149 to connect vOTUs to Antarctic MAGs¹¹ and to implement complementary techniques (e.g. single-
150 cell genomics) to provide a deeper understanding of virus-bacteria dynamics. More importantly,
151 these findings underscore the complexity of virus-driven element biogeochemical cycles in the
152 rocks of Antarctica, which have traditionally been considered devoid of life.

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154

155 **Figure 1. Antarctica is an underappreciated source of phage novelty.** (A) Bar charts displaying the

156 number of viral sequences placed in VCs colored by rock type and divided by whether the VC is clustered

157 with reference genomes. (B) Bar chart displaying host predictions colored by predicted host phylum. (C)

158 Bar chart showing the number of predicted phage AMGs summarized by DRAM-v distilled metabolic

159 categories.

160

161 Given the geographic spread of sampling (see Online Methods and Table S1; Fig. 2A), we

162 assessed whether this catalog could be useful to answer ecological questions related to viral

163 community dynamics. While the dominant vOTUs at each site were taxonomically unclassified

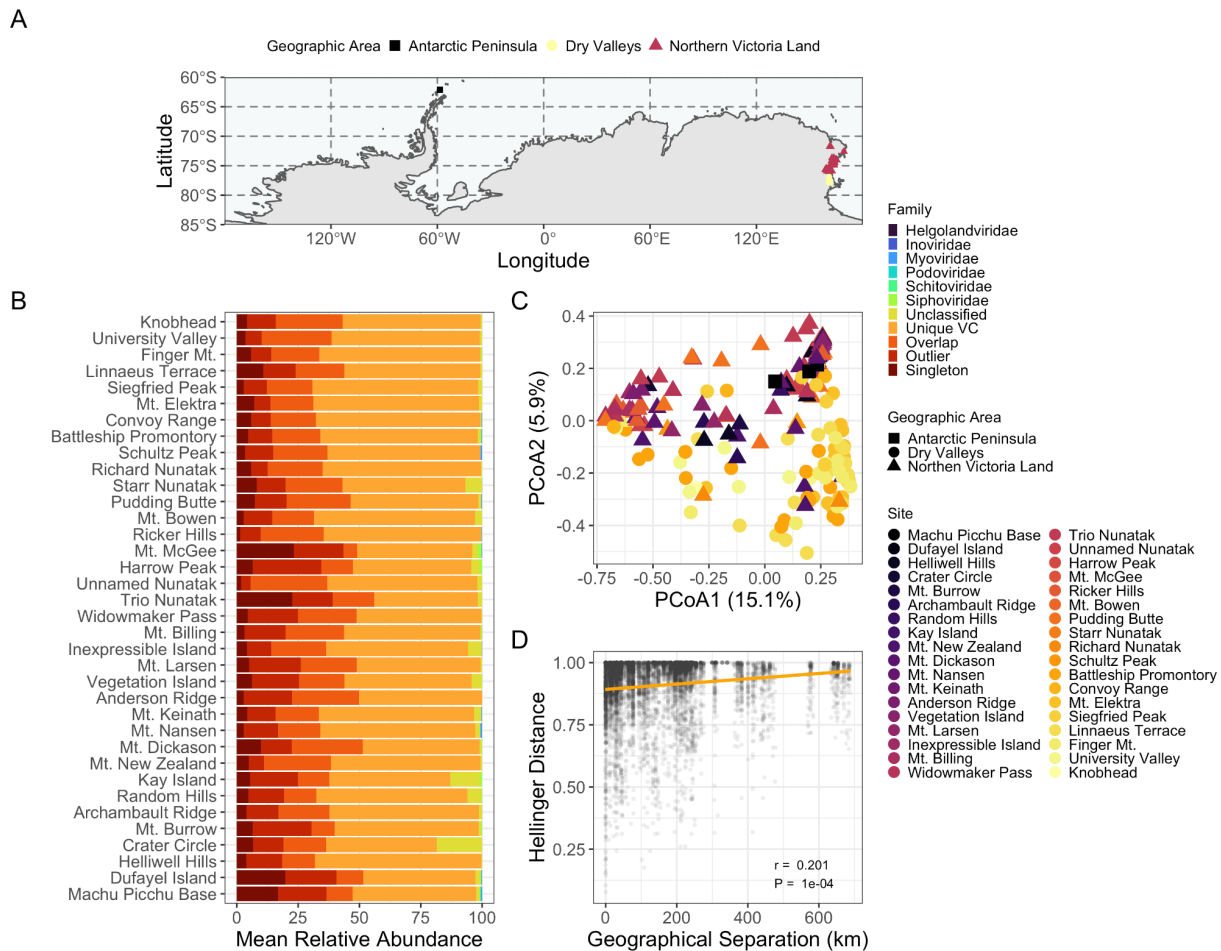
164 and largely members of unique VCs and thus possible novel genera (Fig. 2B), when investigating

165 between-sample diversity (beta diversity) we observed a significant pattern related to site

166 specificity (Fig. 2C; PERMANOVA, $p < 0.001$), and further detected significant distance decay

167 across sandstone communities (Fig. 2D; $r = 0.197$, $p < 0.001$), indicating clear latitudinal spatial

168 structuring of viral communities. In further support of this, we were able to detect only 41.0% of
 169 vOTUs at more than one site, with 29.4% of vOTUs detected across two or more geographic
 170 regions and only 1.45% detected across all regions. Of the vOTUs detected across all regions,
 171 the majority were in unique VCs (66.7%) and none were in VCs with reference data. We
 172 hypothesize that this viral spatial structuring reflects the reported dispersion limitation and local
 173 composition and adaptation of hosts in these communities^{11,12}. Similar spatial structuring has also
 174 been observed in grassland soil viromes, purportedly as a result of local assembly dynamics^{42,43}.
 175



176
 177 **Figure 2. Spatial structuring of viral communities in Antarctic rocks.** (A) Map showing collection sites
 178 with shapes and colors representative of the broad geographic area. (B) Stacked bar charts displaying the
 179 mean relative abundance of phage vOTUs at each site colored by predicted viral families. Sequences that

180 were clustered into VCs with reference data are labeled by their taxonomy, sequences clustered without
181 reference genomes are labeled “Unique VC”, while the rest are labeled based on their VContact2 status
182 (i.e., singleton [share few or no genes with other genomes], overlap [share genes with genomes in multiple
183 VCs], or outlier [share genes, but cannot confidently be placed in a VC]). (C) Principal-coordinate analysis
184 (PCoA) visualization of Hellinger distances of viral communities. Samples are colored by site, with sites
185 ordered by latitude, and have shapes based on geographic areas. (D) A scatter plot depicting a significant
186 positive distance-decay relationship between sandstone viral community beta diversity (Hellinger distance)
187 and geographical distance (km) between sites.

188

189 This study represents the most exhaustive geographic endeavor to date to capture the viral
190 genomic diversity across ice-free regions of Antarctica and the first large-scale effort to explore
191 the virosphere in endolithic communities. This catalog is a comprehensive repository for exploring
192 the diversity, function, spatial ecology, and host-virus dynamics of this enigmatic continent. We
193 also unveiled a possible influence of some viruses on carbon, energy and nitrogen metabolisms
194 under conditions of oligotrophy up to the limit for life sustainability; this may be a key role for the
195 resilience of these communities. This work is a good model for exploring adaptability of microbial
196 communities in a scenario of global warming and expanding desertification.

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198 **Methods**

199

200 *Study area*

201 191 rocks colonized by endolithic communities were collected in thirty-eight sites in Antarctica
202 including Antarctic Peninsula ($n = 3$), McMurdo Dry Valleys, Southern Victoria Land ($n = 80$),
203 and Northern Victoria Land ($n = 108$) during more than 20 years of Italian Antarctic Expeditions.
204 Different rock typologies (sandstone $n = 141$, granite $n = 43$, quartz $n = 5$, and basalt/dolerite n
205 $= 2$) were sampled. Samples were collected along a latitudinal transect ranging from -62.10008

206 -58.51664 to -77.874 160.739 at different environmental conditions namely sun exposure
207 (northern sun exposed and southern shady rocks) and an altitudinal transect from sea level to
208 3,100 m above sea level (a.s.l.) to provide a comprehensive overview of Antarctic endolithic
209 diversity (Supplementary Table 1). The presence of endolithic colonization was assessed by
210 direct observation in situ. Rocks were excised using a geologic hammer and sterile chisel, and
211 rock samples, preserved in sterile plastic bags, transported, and stored at -20 °C in the Culture
212 Collection of Antarctic fungi of the Mycological Section of the Italian Antarctic National Museum
213 (MNA-CCFEE), until downstream analysis.

214

215 *Study data*

216 In total, the dataset included 191 metagenomes, of which 100 have been assembled as described
217 in Albanese et al.¹¹. The remaining metagenomes were generated, sequenced, and assembled
218 as described below. The final metagenomic set represented 149,585,625 metagenomic contigs.

219

220 *DNA extraction, library preparation, and sequencing*

221 Total community DNA was extracted from 1 g of crushed rocks using DNeasy PowerSoil Pro Kit
222 (Qiagen, German), quality checked by electrophoresis using a 1.5% agarose gel and Nanodrop
223 spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher, USA) and quantified using the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Life
224 Technologies, USA) according to Coleine et al.¹⁰. Shotgun metagenomic sequencing paired-end
225 libraries were constructed and sequenced as 2×150 bp using the Illumina NovaSeq platform
226 (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA) at the Edmund Mach Foundation (San Michele all'Adige, Italy) and
227 at the DOE Joint Genome Institute (JGI).

228

229 *Sequencing reads preparation and assembly*

230 The metashot/mag-illumina v2.0.0 workflow (<https://github.com/metashot/mag-illumina>,
231 parameters: --metaspades_k 21,33,55,77,99) was used to perform raw reads quality trimming
232 and filtering, assembly and contigs binning on the metagenomic samples. In brief, adapter
233 trimming, contaminant (artifacts and spike-ins) and quality filtering were performed using
234 BBDuk (BBMap/BBTools v38.79, <https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/>). During the quality
235 filtering procedure i) raw reads were quality-trimmed to Q6 using the Phred algorithm; ii) reads
236 that contained 4 or more “N” bases, had an average quality below 10, shorter than 50 bp or under
237 50% of the original length were removed. Samples were then assembled individually with SPAdes
238 v3.15.1⁴⁴ (parameters –meta -k 21,33,55,77,99).

239

240 *Identification and clustering of viral genomes*

241 Using a workflow similar to Guo et al.⁴⁵, viral sequences were identified in metagenomic
242 assemblies using VirSorter2 v. 2.2.3²⁵ using --min-length 5000, --min-score 0.5, and --include-
243 groups dsDNAphage,NCLDV,RNA,ssDNA,lavidaviridae. CheckV v0.8.1³¹ was run on the
244 VirSorter2 predicted viral sequences using the “end_to_end” workflow VirSorter2 was then run
245 again on the viral sequences from CheckV workflow with the --prep-for-dramv option. DRAM-v v.
246 1.2.2⁴⁰ was then used to “annotate” sequences and then “distill” annotations into predicted
247 auxiliary metabolic genes (AMGs) for phage.

248

249 Viral sequences were clustered into 95% similarity viral operational taxonomic units (vOTUs)
250 using CD-HIT v. 4.8.1²⁶ with the following parameters: -c 0.95 -aS 0.85 -M 0 -d 0. Prodigal v.
251 2.6.3⁴⁶ was used to predict open reading frames in vOTUs using the -p meta option. VContact2
252 v. 0.9.19 was then run on predicted proteins from phage vOTUs and predicted proteins from the
253 INPHARED August 2022 viral reference database to generate viral clusters (VCs) based on gene-
254 sharing networks^{27,28}. We assigned taxonomy to phage vOTUs based on VC membership as in

255 Santos-Medellin et al⁴². Predicted viral sequences and 95% similarity vOTUS are archived on
256 Zenodo⁴⁷.

257

258 *Viral host-prediction*

259 Hosts were predicted for the phage sequences identified using (i) a database of complete
260 genomes from NCBI RefSeq, and (ii) a previously published database of representative
261 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) from Antarctic endolith samples. To produce (i), we
262 used “ncbi-genome-download” to download all complete bacterial (n = 25,984) and archaeal (n =
263 416) genomes, as of April 7, 2022, from NCBI RefSeq⁴⁸. For (ii), we downloaded MAGs from
264 Zenodo (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7313591). We then used NCBI BLAST 2.12.0+ to convert these
265 two databases into blast databases using “makeblastdb” and used “blastn” to compare vOTUs to
266 these databases³⁴. We filtered the blastn results in R based on existing thresholds^{35,36,49}. Briefly,
267 database matches had to share ≥ 2000 bp region with $\geq 70\%$ sequence identity to the viral
268 sequence and needed to have a bit score of ≥ 50 and minimum e-value of 0.001. Further to ensure
269 matches did not represent partial or entirely viral contigs when searching against the MAG
270 database, matches had to cover $< 50\%$ of the total MAG sequence length. As in Korthari et al.³⁶,
271 only the top five hits matching these thresholds were considered, with host predictions made at
272 each taxonomic level only if the taxonomy of all hits were in agreement. Discrepancies resulted
273 in no host prediction for that taxonomic level. We then combined host predictions from both the
274 RefSeq and MAG databases together; if there were discrepancies between the two databases,
275 we defaulted to the MAG-based prediction.

276

277 *Ecological analysis of vOTUs*

278 We mapped reads from each metagenome to vOTUs using BBMap with a minid=0.90 to quantify
279 vOTU relative abundance⁵⁰. We then used SAMtools to convert resulting sam files to bam files

280 and genomecov from BEDTools to obtain coverage information for each vOTU across each
281 metagenome^{51,52}. We then used bamM to parse bam files and calculate the trimmed pileup
282 coverage (tpmean), which we used here in our analysis of viral relative abundance⁵³. We
283 removed vOTUs which displayed < 75% coverage over the length of the viral sequence and viral
284 sequences < 10 kbp in length prior to downstream analyses in R⁵⁴. Thresholds for analysis of
285 vOTUs were based on community guidelines for length (i.e. ≥ 10 kbp), similarity (i.e. $\geq 95\%$
286 similarity), and detection (i.e. $\geq 75\%$ of the viral genome length covered $\geq 1x$ by reads at $\geq 90\%$
287 average nucleotide identity)^{29,30}. To be conservative, we also removed vOTUs with a CheckV
288 quality score of “not-determined” prior to downstream analysis. The viral abundance (tpmean),
289 quality, taxonomy and annotation results were imported, analyzed, and visualized in R using many
290 packages including tidyverse and phyloseq^{55,56}. Analysis scripts associated with this study are on
291 GitHub and archived in Zenodo⁵⁷.

292

293 To compare viral diversity between metagenomes (i.e., beta diversity), we calculated the Hellinger
294 distance, the Euclidean distance of Hellinger transformed abundance data. We performed
295 Hellinger transformations using the transform function in the microbiome R package, calculated
296 the Hellinger distance using the ordinate function in phyloseq, and then visualized these distances
297 using principal-coordinate analysis (PCoA). We performed permutational multivariate analyses of
298 variance (PERMANOVAs) with 9,999 permutations to test for significant differences in mean
299 centroids using the model: Distance ~ Site + Rock type. Models were tested with “by = margins”
300 and “by = terms” with all sequential combinations. We ran the ordistep and ordiR2step functions
301 to help assess optimal parameters to include in the model. Since PERMANOVA tests are
302 sensitive to differences in group dispersion, we also tested for significant differences in mean
303 dispersions using the betadisper and permutest functions from the vegan package in R with 9,999
304 permutations.

305

306 To test for correlations between viral community distances (Hellinger distances) and geographic
307 distances, we first subset the data to exclude metagenomes from the Antarctic Peninsula, and to
308 account for variation between rock types, subset the data to include only metagenomes
309 representing sandstone samples. We calculated geographical distances between metagenomes
310 using the `dism` function in the `geosphere` package in R. We performed Mantel tests in the `vegan`
311 R package to assess correlations between the community and geographic distances using 9,999
312 permutations. Mantel tests were repeated with exclusion of community distances when the
313 geographic distance was zero to assess if patterns persisted in the absence of data from the
314 same site.

315

316 **Data availability**

317 Metagenomes raw data are available under the NCBI accession numbers listed in Supplementary
318 Table 1. Analysis scripts and intermediate data files associated with this study are on GitHub
319 (https://github.com/stajichlab/Antarctic_Virus_Discovery) and archived in Zenodo
320 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7374327>). Fasta files representing the entire catalog of predicted
321 viral sequences and 95% similarity vOTUS are archived and available on Zenodo
322 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7245811>).

323

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348

349 **Authors contribution**

350 C.L.E., J.E.S., and C.C. conceived and designed the study. L.S. collected the samples. C.P,
351 T.G.R. and S.T. oversaw and managed the metagenome sequencing and standard analysis.
352 C.L.E. performed bioinformatic and statistical analysis with contributions from J.E.S. and M.S..
353 C.L.E. and C.C. interpreted results with contributions from M.S. and S.R.. C.L.E. and C.C. wrote
354 the paper with contributions from all co-authors.

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