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1 **The biogeography of abundant and rare bacterioplankton**
2 **in the lakes and reservoirs of China**

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4

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8

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10

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 Bacteria play key roles in the ecology of both aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems,
24 however little is known about their diversity and biogeography, especially in the rare
25 microbial biosphere of inland freshwater ecosystems. Here we investigated aspects of
26 the community ecology and geographical distribution of abundant and rare
27 bacterioplankton using high-throughput sequencing and examined the relative
28 influence of local environmental variables and regional (spatial) factors on their
29 geographical distribution patterns in 42 lakes and reservoirs across China. Our results
30 showed that the geographical patterns of abundant and rare bacterial subcommunities
31 were generally similar, and both of them showed a significant distance-decay
32 relationship. This suggests that the rare bacterial biosphere is not a random assembly,
33 as some authors have assumed, and that its distribution is most likely subject to the
34 same ecological processes that control abundant taxa. However we identified some
35 differences between the abundant and rare groups as both groups of bacteria showed a
36 significant positive relationship between sites occupancy and abundance, but the
37 abundant bacteria exhibited a weaker distance–decay relationship than the rare
38 bacteria. Our results implied that rare subcommunities were mostly governed by local
39 environmental variables, whereas the abundant subcommunities were mainly affected
40 by regional factors. Additionally, both local and regional variables which were
41 significantly related to the spatial variation of abundant bacterial community
42 composition were different to those of rare ones, suggesting that abundant and rare
43 bacteria may have discrepant ecological niches and may play different roles in natural
44 ecosystems.

45

46 Introduction

47 Bacterioplankton are a fundamental component of aquatic ecosystems, having an
48 extremely high level of genetic diversity, and playing essential roles in global
49 biogeochemical cycles (Newton *et al.*, 2011). This means that understanding the
50 diversity of aquatic bacteria and their biogeographical patterns is a major ecological
51 goal, because it provides an insight into the deeper ecological processes and
52 mechanisms that underlie and maintain bacterial diversity and ecosystem function
53 (Hanson *et al.*, 2012). However, unlike the extensive studies of biogeographical
54 patterns of large animals and plants, works on the spatial scaling of bacterial diversity
55 is still limited (Preston, 1948; Green and Bohannan, 2006; Martiny *et al.*, 2006;
56 Ramette and Tiedje, 2007; Logue and Lindström, 2008; Barberán and Casamayor,
57 2010; Jones *et al.*, 2012; Brown *et al.*, 2014). A further complicating fact is that most
58 bacterial communities comprise a large number of species. A few of these species are
59 very abundant, others are moderately abundant, and a large number species, often
60 called the ‘rare biosphere’, are represented by only a few individuals. This highly
61 diverse and rare microbial biosphere is largely unexplored (Pedrós-Alió, 2012).
62 Influential studies interpreted as showing that ‘everything is everywhere’ (developed
63 by Baas-Becking, 1934) in microbial ecology have made use of the rare biosphere
64 community as a way of testing large scale biogeographical ideas. For example, using
65 varied culture conditions to demonstrate the presence of protist taxa in a lake that was
66 not ecologically suitable for them so that they were present at the site in such low
67 numbers that they were undetectable by direct microscopy of uncultured samples (see,
68 for example, Fenchel *et al.*, 1997; Finlay, 1998; Hambright *et al.*, 2015). In the past
69 few years, a revolution in high-throughput and deep sequencing is allowing a much
70 more direct identification of the rare biosphere community in an environment
71 (Pedrós-Alió, 2012; Logares *et al.*, 2014).

72 Recent high-throughput sequencing studies indicated that the ‘rare biosphere’
73 fraction of the bacterial community follows biogeographical patterns similar to those
74 of the most abundant members of the community and have distinct spatial distribution
75 patterns in Arctic Ocean and coastal Antarctic lakes (Galand *et al.*, 2009; Logares *et*
76 *al.*, 2013). Other studies provided evidence of an occupancy–abundance relationship
77 for soil and marine abundant bacteria communities (Nemergut *et al.*, 2011), implying
78 that the dispersal probability of rare bacteria is limited compared to abundant taxa
79 (Holt *et al.*, 2004; Logue, 2010). In this context inland waters are particularly
80 interesting as they have significantly more bacterial groups and are more diverse than
81 marine waters on a global scale (Barberán and Casamayor, 2010). Until now it has
82 remained unclear if rare bacterial taxa follow similar biogeographical patterns as
83 abundant taxa in inland lake and reservoir ecosystems.

84 In general, microorganisms, like larger organisms, are influenced by complex and
85 interacting sets of abiotic and biological processes, leading to variation in their
86 community distribution patterns at different spatial scales (Green and Bohannan, 2006;
87 Ramette and Tiedje, 2007; Logue and Lindström, 2008; Jones *et al.*, 2012). For larger
88 organisms it has been suggested that abundant taxa dominate major ecosystem
89 processes (e.g. carbon flow and nutrient cycling), while rare taxa can be regarded as
90 propagule banks and play minor but non-negligible roles but may switch to being
91 more important abundant taxa as environmental conditions change (Grime, 1998;
92 Magurran and Henderson, 2003). More recently, similar suggestions have been made
93 for marine microbial systems (Pedrós-Alió, 2012; Logares *et al.*, 2014), implying that
94 abundant and rare bacterial taxa may have different ecological responses to
95 environmental changes. In this study, we hypothesized that the possible controlling
96 factors of biogeographical distribution of rare bacteria subcommunities were different
97 from those of abundant bacteria subcommunities in lakes and reservoirs at a large
98 scale.

99 Bacterial metacommunities are normally assembled by both local environmental
100 variables (environmental filtering and biotic interactions) and regional factors
101 (dispersal related processes) (Fenchel, 2003; Nemergut *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2013).
102 Some studies have showed that local factors are more important (Fierer and Jackson,
103 2006, Graham and Fine, 2008; Cavender-Bares *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2013), while
104 other studies hold that bacterial communities are assembled by regional forces
105 (Leibold *et al.*, 2004; Cottenie, 2005; Martiny *et al.*, 2006). Recently, Lindström and
106 Langenheder (2012) depicted the relationship between regional and local factors
107 along gradients of dispersal rate and selective strength. It has been suggested that
108 nature of bacterial communities are important in the creation of wider biogeographical
109 patterns as the dispersal potential could affect the connection between community
110 composition and local and regional factors (Lindström and Langenheder, 2012; Lear
111 *et al.*, 2014). The most abundant bacteria can disperse readily as there are, by
112 definition, many more individuals which can potentially be involved in a dispersal
113 event. In contrast, rare bacteria are less abundant, and so their dispersal rate should be
114 low compared to abundant taxa. Therefore, we hypothesized that the relative influence
115 of regional and local factors for abundant bacterioplankton subcommunities were
116 different from rare subcommunities.

117 In this study, we used high-throughput sequencing to investigate the aquatic
118 bacterial community along a latitudinal gradient ranging from 24 to 50 °N (over 2700
119 km) in 42 lakes and reservoirs across China. We sort to determine and compare the
120 biogeographical patterns and drivers for abundant and rare bacterial subcommunities
121 at a continental scale. Specifically, we aimed to answer the following key questions:
122 do abundant and rare taxa show similar or different biogeographical patterns in lakes

123 and reservoirs at a continental scale? Are the controlling factors and their contribution
124 to the geographical pattern of abundant bacterial subcommunities different from the
125 rare ones?
126

127 **Material and methods**

128 *Study area and sampling*

129 A total of 42 Chinese lakes and reservoirs, which were located between approximately
130 24 and 50 °N, were included in the sampling campaign (Figure 1, Supplementary
131 Table S1). Many of these lakes also featured in a study of aquatic testate amoebae by
132 Ju *et al.* (2014). Field sampling took place from middle July to early August 2012.
133 Surface water samples (upper 50–200 cm) in the epilimnion were collected at the
134 center of each lake. All water samples were subsequently divided into two subsamples:
135 one for water chemistry and the other for bacterial community analyses. All samples
136 were stored in the dark at 4 °C and returned to the laboratory as soon as possible.
137

138 *Physico-chemical analysis*

139 Water temperature, electrical conductivity, pH, dissolved oxygen, and turbidity of the
140 epilimnion layer were measured in situ with YSI multi-parameter water quality sonde
141 (YSI, Yellow Springs, OH, USA). Water depth of sampling site was measured with a
142 Speedtech SM-5 Depthmate portable sounder (Speedtech Instruments, Great Falls, VA,
143 USA). Water transparency was determined with a 30 cm Secchi disc. The
144 concentrations of chlorophyll a (Chl a), total nitrogen and total phosphorus were
145 measured according to standard methods (Greenberg *et al.*, 1992).
146

147 *DNA extraction, PCR and high-throughput sequencing*

148 A total of 500 mL water samples for bacterioplankton analyses were filtered through a
149 0.22- μ m pore size polycarbonate filters (47 mm diameter, Millipore, Billerica, MA,
150 USA) following Liu *et al.*, (2013). The filters were stored at –80 °C until DNA
151 extraction. Total DNA was extracted directly from the filter using FastDNA spin kit
152 (Bio101, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total
153 DNA was sent to the Personal Biotechnology Co., Ltd. in Shanghai, China for
154 high-throughput sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq instrument (San Diego, CA, USA)
155 using a paired-end 150-bp sequence read run. A set of primers was used to amplify the
156 hypervariable V4 region (about 207 bp) of bacterial 16S rRNA gene. In this study, the
157 forward primer was 5' - AYTGGGYDTAAAGNG - 3', and the reverse primer was 5'
158 - TACNVGGGTATCTAATCC - 3' (Claesson *et al.*, 2009). Each DNA sample was
159 individually PCR-amplified in triplicated 25- μ L reactions included an initial
160 denaturation at 94°C for 5 min, followed by 25 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 50°C

161 and 30 s at 72°C. At the end of the amplification, the amplicons were subjected to
162 final 7 min extension at 72°C. Each reaction contained 1 × PCR buffer, 2.5 mM
163 dNTPs, 0.625 U of Taq DNA polymerase, 10 μM of each primer, and 20 ng of target
164 DNA.

165

166 *Sequence analysis*

167 Raw sequence data were processed using MOTHUR v.1.33.3 (Schloss *et al.*, 2009).
168 Paired-end reads were merged. Sequences were then quality controlled with the
169 following settings: any sequences length < 150 or > 300, average quality < 30,
170 ambiguous bases > 0, homopolymer length > 6 were removed for further analysis.
171 The remaining sequences were aligned to a reference alignment, and those sequences
172 that did not align to the correct region were eliminated. To further reduce the noise in
173 our sequences, we utilized pre-clustering and the resulting sequences were screened
174 for chimeras using UCHIME (Edgar *et al.*, 2011). We then used Bayesian classifier to
175 classify those sequences against the Ribosomal Database Project 16S rRNA gene
176 training set (version 9, <http://rdp.cme.msu.edu>). We required an 80% pseudobootstrap
177 confidence score (Wang *et al.*, 2007). All Archaea, Eukaryota, chloroplasts,
178 mitochondria and unknown sequences were culled. Finally, sequences were split into
179 groups according to their taxonomy and assigned to operational taxonomic units
180 (OTUs) at a 3% dissimilarity level. The OTUs which contained < 2 reads were not
181 used to avoid possible biases. For our data analyses, we used a randomly selected
182 subset of 26322 sequences from each sample to standardize sequencing effort across
183 samples.

184 In this study, the definition of abundant or rare OTUs combined their local and
185 regional relative abundance. Locally abundant OTUs were defined as the OTUs with a
186 representation > 1% within a sample, while locally rare OTUs were defined as having
187 an abundance < 0.01% within a sample (Galand *et al.*, 2009; Pedrós-Alió, 2012). We
188 then calculated the average relative abundance of these locally abundant or rare OTUs
189 across all samples. The OTUs that had a mean relative abundance of > 0.1% were
190 defined as regionally abundant OTUs, whereas the OTUs with a mean relative
191 abundance of < 0.001% were defined as regionally rare OTUs (Logares *et al.*, 2014).
192 The ecological literature usually considers ‘rarity’ to be a continuous variable –
193 therefore there is always a level of arbitrariness when defining a cutoff point for rarity
194 in any given study (Gaston, 1994). To reduce this problem we have defined our ‘rare
195 biosphere’ with reference to other recent publications, to facilitate comparisons
196 between studies. In addition, to reduce the effect of arbitrary definition of abundant
197 and rare OTUs, we performed multivariate cutoff level analysis (MultiCoLA) to
198 systematically estimate how our datasets are affected by the definition of abundant
199 and rare OTUs (Gobet *et al.*, 2010).

200

201 *Data analyses*

202 Bray-Curtis similarity matrix is considered to be one of the most robust similarity
203 coefficients for ecological studies (Kent, 2012) and was applied to our community
204 dataset of bacterial OTU relative abundance. A non-metric multidimensional scaling
205 (MDS) ordination was used to investigate differences in bacterioplankton
206 communities between sites (Clarke and Gorley, 2001). Our study area includes several
207 major climate types, thus five regions were divided based on their climate and
208 geographical characteristics (Ju *et al.*, 2014). To evaluate the significant differences of
209 bacterioplankton communities between these five regions, we used the
210 randomization/permutation procedure analysis of similarities (ANOSIM). The
211 ANOSIM statistic global R is calculated as the difference of between-group and
212 within-group mean rank similarities, thus it displays the degree of separation between
213 groups. Complete separation is indicated by $R = 1$, whereas $R = 0$ suggests no
214 separation (Clarke and Gorley, 2001). RELATE calculates rank correlation among the
215 entire, abundant and rare bacterial community similarity matrices by PRIMER 5.0,
216 and it thus provides a significance test with the matching coefficient pm, which is
217 equivalent to the Mantel's test (Clarke and Gorley, 2001). We referred to positive and
218 negative correlation levels between 0.5 and 1 as strong relationships at $P < 0.01$.

219 Spearman rank correlations were used to determine the relationships between the
220 Bray-Curtis similarity of bacterial community and the geographical distance of lakes
221 or reservoirs, and the relationship between the Euclidean distance of environmental
222 variables and the geographical distance.

223 A set of regional variables were generated through the use of principal coordinates
224 of neighbor matrices (PCNM) analysis (Borcard and Legendre, 2002; Legendre *et al.*,
225 2008) based on the longitude and latitude coordinates of each sampling site. The
226 normality of the physico-chemical variables were checked using Shapiro-Wilk test
227 and variables were $\log(x+1)$ transformed with the exception of pH, to improve
228 normality and homoscedasticity for multivariate statistical analyses. Canonical
229 correspondence analysis (CCA) was performed to explore the relationships between
230 bacterial communities and physico-chemical and PCNM variables. This method was
231 chosen because preliminary detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) on bacterial
232 community data revealed that the longest gradient lengths were longer than 3.0,
233 indicating that the majority of species exhibited unimodal responses to the
234 environmental variation (Lepš and Šmilauer, 2003). Before the CCA, we used a
235 forward selection procedure to select local physico-chemical variables and regional
236 variables using the 'ordiR2step' function from vegan (Blanchet *et al.* 2008). All
237 non-significant ($P > 0.05$) variables were eliminated in further analyses.

238 To determine the relative contribution of local (in this study, environmental

239 variables) and regional (in this study, spatial factors based on PCNM) variables to the
240 distribution of bacterial communities, standard and partial Mantel tests were also
241 performed (Legendre and Legendre, 2012). The similarity matrices of bacterial
242 community composition were obtained using Bray-Curtis index. The local and
243 regional matrices were obtained using Euclidean distances with significant variables.
244 PCNM, CCA, DCA, forward selection procedure and Mantel tests were performed in
245 the R language environment. Rarefaction curves and richness estimate of Chao 1 and
246 ACE were calculated in Vegan with R software (R Development Core Team).

247

248 *Accession number*

249 All sequence data from this study have been deposited in the public NCBI database
250 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) under the accession number SRX525963.

251

252 **Results**

253 *The estimate of species richness and multivariate abundance cutoff*

254 In total, 10559 bacterial OTUs with 1105524 sequences were obtained in this study,
255 and the number of bacterial OTUs varied from 816 (Donghaizi Lake) to 2026
256 (Dongxintunnanpao Lake) per sample (mean = 1399, standard error (SE) = 48, n = 42)
257 (Supplementary Table S1). The total number of bacterial OTUs (10559) was roughly
258 equivalent to the number estimated by abundance-based richness estimators such as
259 Chao 1 (10791 ± 22) and ACE (10952 ± 48). Both the estimated species-accumulation
260 curves (Supplementary Figure S1) and extrapolated species richness indices (Chao 1
261 and ACE) (Supplementary Table S2) indicated that the majority of the pelagic
262 bacterioplankton taxa had been recovered from the studied lakes and reservoirs.

263 At local and regional levels, 143 (1.4%) OTUs with 751588 sequences (68.0%) were
264 classified as abundant OTUs, while 7598 (72.0%) taxa and 29824 (2.7%) sequences
265 were rare OTUs (Supplementary Table S2). At local level, however, no OTU was
266 always abundant (> 1%) in all samples, and only two OTUs (including 143102
267 sequences) with > 1% abundance were present > 70% of the samples. In addition,
268 5435 OTUs (including 16623 sequences) were always locally rare (< 0.01%) in all
269 samples (Supplementary Figure S2).

270 The multivariate cutoff level analysis showed that when the structure of community
271 data were compared between the truncated and the original matrices, little variation in
272 data structure was observed up to a removal of 45% of the rare part of the dataset. On
273 the other hand, when the increasing amount of rare types was > 5%, the data structure
274 of truncated matrices showed a little variation (Supplementary Figure S3). To fully
275 capture all bacteria sequences in any environment is still impossible; however our
276 definitions of abundant (32.0%) and rare (2.7%) bacteria are reasonable and objective

277 within the constraints of current technology.

278

279 *Geographical patterns of bacterial community*

280 We found a distinct biogeographical distribution pattern for the rare bacterial taxa,
281 which showed striking similarities with the geographical patterns of both abundant
282 subcommunity ($\rho_m = 0.762$, $P < 0.01$) and entire community ($\rho_m = 0.807$, $P < 0.01$)
283 (Figure 2). Interestingly, our five geographical regions were significantly separated at
284 $P = 0.001$ for the bacterioplankton communities, and the global R among the five
285 groups was 0.398, 0.372 and 0.464 for the entire bacterial community, the abundant
286 bacterial subcommunity and the rare bacterial subcommunity, respectively.

287

288 *Distance effects on community composition and environmental variables*

289 Overall, the similarity in bacterial community composition between any two lakes or
290 reservoirs decreased with the increasing of geographic distance (Figure 3). For
291 example, Spearman correlation analysis gave a correlation coefficient of -0.498 ($P <$
292 0.01) between the similarity of entire bacterial community and geographic distance.
293 Also, the Spearman correlation coefficients for abundant and rare taxa were -0.398 (P
294 < 0.01) and -0.507 ($P < 0.01$) between the subcommunity similarity and geographic
295 distance, respectively. In addition, lakes and reservoirs that were closer to each other
296 presented more similar environmental conditions (Spearman correlation coefficient =
297 0.137 , $P < 0.01$, Supplementary Figure S4).

298

299 *Abundance–occupancy relationship*

300 Bacterial relative abundance and local occupancy were positively correlated ($r =$
301 0.409 , $P < 0.01$) (Figure 4). In addition, 98% of abundant OTUs occupied more than
302 50% of sites, whereas no rare OTU occupied more than 50% of sites (Supplementary
303 Figure S5).

304

305 *Effects of local and regional factors on bacterioplankton distribution*

306 The CCA ordination showed that four environmental variables (water temperature,
307 electrical conductivity, turbidity and total nitrogen) and five regional factors
308 (PCNM1-3 and 13-14) were significantly related to the change of abundant bacterial
309 subcommunity by forward model selection ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 5). However, the CCA
310 for the rare bacterial subcommunity showed a different pattern. Three local
311 environmental factors (electrical conductivity, transparency and depth) and six
312 regional variables (PCNM2-3, 6, 10 and 13-14) were significantly related to the
313 variation of rare bacterial community composition ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 5).

314 The Mantel and partial Mantel results revealed that rare bacterial subcommunities
315 were primarily governed by local environmental factors. However, the regional

316 factors explained more variation in abundant bacterial distribution (Table 1).

317

318 *Taxonomic distributions of abundant and rare bacteria*

319 Actinobacteria (abundant $27.8 \pm 1.5\%$ vs. rare $7.3 \pm 0.6\%$, mean \pm SE), Bacteroidetes
320 ($14.0 \pm 1.5\%$ vs. $10.8 \pm 0.9\%$), Cyanobacteria ($8.5 \pm 1.1\%$ vs. $2.3 \pm 0.2\%$), Firmicutes
321 ($0.4 \pm 0.2\%$ vs. $6.8 \pm 0.6\%$), Planctomycetes ($2.8 \pm 0.5\%$ vs. $1.2 \pm 0.2\%$),
322 Verrucomicrobia ($21.2 \pm 1.9\%$ vs. $5.6 \pm 0.4\%$), Alpha- proteobacteria ($5.9 \pm 0.4\%$ vs.
323 $5.9 \pm 0.5\%$), Beta-proteobacteria ($5.4 \pm 1.0\%$ vs. $4.1 \pm 0.4\%$) and
324 Gamma-proteobacteria ($4.1 \pm 0.5\%$ vs. $5.8 \pm 0.3\%$) taxa were the most frequent
325 groups in both abundant and rare taxa. However, there were more unclassified
326 bacterial groups ($9.0 \pm 0.8\%$ vs. $39.0 \pm 1.1\%$) among the rare taxa, and a much higher
327 number of taxonomic groups were present among rare bacteria compared with
328 abundant bacteria (Supplementary Figure S6).

329

330 **Discussion**

331 *Geographical patterns in abundant and rare bacteria*

332 New molecular tools and increasing sampling effort have confirmed the existence of a
333 'rare biosphere' (Pedrós-Alió, 2012). The cosmopolitan theory proposes that rare
334 phylotypes (species) are recruited through immigration (dispersal) and that they are
335 protected from active loss by both viral lysis and predation because of their low
336 abundance (Pedrós-Alió, 2006) –as in the longstanding 'Everything is Everywhere'
337 approach to microbial biogeography which was developed mainly using
338 morpho-species data (Finlay, 1998; 2002). This low loss rate runs counter to mid-20th
339 century suggestions that the rarest planktonic organisms in a lake were likely to be
340 most at risk of extinction (Hutchinson, 1964). This raises an important question
341 because if rare microbes have a lower, or equal, extinction risk to common ones then
342 this would be an area where the ecology of microbes differs from that of larger
343 organisms where extinction risk is often associated with rarity (Caughley, 1994).

344 Recent studies using high-throughput sequencing in Arctic Ocean and coastal
345 Antarctic lakes demonstrated that rare bacteria had distinct spatial distribution
346 patterns, and showed a similar spatial pattern to the abundant bacterial subcommunity
347 (Galand *et al.*, 2009; Logares *et al.*, 2013). Our results corroborated those previous
348 findings, and provided further evidence from subtropical and temperate inland lakes
349 and reservoirs to support the concept that rare bacteria exhibit biogeographical
350 patterns. Further, we found both abundant and rare bacterial communities strongly
351 adhere to distance-decay relationship. This could be because of dispersal and/or
352 because lakes close to each other tend to have similar environments. In general, these
353 similar geographical distribution patterns in abundant and rare bacterial

354 subcommunities suggested that the rare bacteria biosphere is not a random collection
355 of taxa (Galand *et al.*, 2009).

356 However, within this general pattern there were also some interesting differences
357 between the distributions of abundant and rare bacteria. First, our results showed that
358 abundant bacteria have a weaker distance–decay relationship ($r = -0.398$) than rare
359 bacteria ($r = -0.507$, Figure 3). Second, the bacteria distribution frequency showed a
360 significant positive relationship with the OTUs relative abundance in our studied lakes
361 and reservoirs (Figure 4). These results indicate that the abundant bacteria with high
362 local abundance have a decreased probability of local extinction and increase
363 probability of dispersal, thereby resulting in a widespread or ubiquitous distribution.
364 In fact, bacteria are of a size where long distance aerial dispersal is clearly possible
365 (Wilkinson *et al.*, 2012) and the more abundant taxa are presumably more likely to
366 become airborne – perhaps via bubble burst processes associated with wind created
367 waves (Hamilton and Lenton, 1998). In addition, the commoner taxa are also more
368 likely to be moved by waterbirds which have been shown to affect the movement of
369 some zooplankton between lakes (Figuerola *et al.*, 2005). An alternative, or additional,
370 mechanism is that the abundant bacteria may grow on a wider spectrum of resources
371 compared with the rare taxa so leading to them being able to reach high population
372 levels in a wider range of lakes (Hambright *et al.*, 2015). Pedrós-Alió (2006)
373 hypothesized that rare taxa have a cosmopolitan distribution, due to a low loss rate
374 and a potentially unlimited dispersal capacity. Our results showed that the hypothesis
375 that the rare biosphere has a cosmopolitan distribution did not apply in most cases.
376 Conversely, our results suggest that abundant bacteria tend towards more
377 cosmopolitan distributions, while the majority of rare bacteria are more likely to show
378 restricted distributions. This matches the well documented abundancy-occupancy
379 relationship detailed for larger organisms (Gaston *et al.*, 2000; Holt *et al.*, 2004) –
380 suggesting similar ‘rules’ govern the ecology of microorganisms and the larger
381 organisms that have more often been the subject of ecological study.

382

383 *Controlling factors for geographical distributions of abundant and rare bacteria*

384 An important ecological aspect for the understanding of biogeography is to determine
385 the possible controlling factors and their contribution to spatial variation of bacterial
386 community. Several local factors are known to affect bacteria species coexistence,
387 these include temperature (Liu *et al.*, 2013), water chemistry (Berdjeb *et al.*, 2011),
388 quality and quantity of dissolved organic matter (Judd *et al.*, 2006), and grazing
389 (Pernthaler, 2005). However, spatial variation in the bacterial community is also
390 influenced by regional factors such as dispersal limitation, mass effects and random
391 demographics (Liu *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2013).

392 Our CCA analyses for abundant and rare bacterial subcommunities yielded

393 different patterns because both communities were significantly related to different
394 local and regional factors. A similar finding was reported by Kim *et al.* (2013) from an
395 activated sludge bioreactor. They demonstrated that the temporal dynamics of
396 abundant and rare bacterial taxa were constrained by different environmental
397 variables. Hence, it is clear that abundant and rare bacterial taxa may have different
398 ecological niches, and the majority of abundant and rare taxa may play different roles
399 in our investigated lake and reservoir ecosystems. The few abundant taxa account for
400 most of the biomass and carbon cycling, whereas some rare species may be important
401 for the cycling of certain elements (Pedrós-Alió, 2012). An example from a peatland
402 indicated that rare taxon *Desulfosporosinus* could contribute most of the sulfate
403 reduction in the peat (Pester *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, abundant and rare bacteria may
404 have different ecological strategies. The resources that some abundant bacteria use
405 may be more abundant and widespread; alternatively, some abundant bacteria, in
406 general, may be able to grow on a wider spectrum of resources. In contrast, some
407 bacteria may be adapted to use only a few specific substrates, or to episodic situations
408 of high nutrient abundance. For example, Teira *et al.* (2007) incubated natural
409 bacterial assemblages in microcosms with different amendments of polycyclic
410 aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). During these experiments, when the PAHs were
411 added, *Cycloclasticus* (a hydrocarbon-degrading gammaproteo bacterium) became an
412 abundant member of the community. Once the PAHs had disappeared, the
413 *Cycloclasticus* population reduced and returned to the rare biosphere. Therefore, rare
414 microbial taxa can be regarded as a propagule bank (c.f. Grime, 1998). They may
415 become an abundant member of the community, when the right environmental
416 conditions are met or when the abundance of abundant microbes decreases drastically
417 or even becomes extinct (Pedrós-Alió, 2012; Logares *et al.*, 2014).

418 A major theme of ecological research is quantitatively characterizing the relative
419 contribution of local versus regional factors. Partial Mantel tests provide a good
420 solution to compare the relative importance of local and regional factors (Lindström
421 and Langenheder, 2012). In this study, we found abundant bacterial subcommunities
422 were mostly governed by regional factors, whereas the rare bacterial subcommunities
423 were mainly structured by local environmental variables. Hanson *et al.* (2012)
424 examined 19 previous studies, and found that most studies suggested local factors had
425 a greater effect on microbial composition than regional processes. More recently,
426 Wang *et al.* (2013) illustrated that the dominance of local factors might occur when the
427 selective strength of local habitat conditions is above a conceptual threshold. In the
428 present study, our samples spanned a continental scale and comprised contrasting
429 environmental conditions such as oligotrophic and eutrophic waters, different habitat
430 types (e.g. lakes vs. reservoirs) and altitudes (Ju *et al.*, 2014). However, the regional
431 factors seem to be more important than local factors for the biogeographical pattern of

432 abundant bacterial taxa in the lakes and reservoirs. This could be because some
433 environmental variables that were related to spatial distribution of abundant bacterial
434 subcommunity were not measured here. Another possible mechanism for this result is
435 that the populations of abundant bacterial taxa exhibit massive immigration and this
436 can result in more community variability being related to spatial variables that occur
437 independently of any measured environmental variables (Lindström and Langenheder,
438 2012). Wang *et al* (2013) examined the relative influence of deterministic (local
439 factors) and stochastic (regional factors) processes for bacterial communities from
440 various habitats. They suggested that stochastic processes may overwhelm
441 deterministic process, when regional species pools were characterized by
442 environmental generalists. Unsurprisingly, most abundant bacteria appeared to be
443 habitat generalists in our study, given that 98% of abundant OTUs occupied more than
444 50% of sites. Similarly, Lear *et al* (2014) found that the regional factors explained the
445 largest proportion of variation of bacterial community composition in the ponds that
446 are connected to each other by ephemeral channels. These authors suggested that large
447 numbers of immigrant taxa are received by each pond which could enhance the
448 connection between community composition and regional factors.

449

450 **Conclusions**

451 Our results demonstrated that the rare bacterioplankton subcommunity had a distinct
452 biogeographical pattern in the studied Chinese lakes and reservoirs, which was
453 reasonably similar to that of the abundant bacteria. However, rare and abundant
454 bacterial subcommunities were significantly related to different local and regional
455 variables. Moreover, local processes and factors play the most important role in
456 structuring rare bacterial assemblages, with regional factors explaining more variation
457 in abundant bacterial distribution. In this study, we suggest that dispersal potentials
458 and ecological roles of both rare and abundant bacteria are potentially different.
459 Therefore, to obtain a comprehensive or full understanding and modeling of bacterial
460 community biogeography, both groups should be distinguished in future studies.

461

462 **Conflict of Interest**

463 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

464

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474

475 Supplementary information can be found on ISMEJ's website.

476

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607

608 **Figure Legends**

609 **Figure 1** Location of the 42 sampling sites in China. FJ (included 5 reservoirs) –
610 Fujian Province, southeast China; CJ (9 lakes) – the lower and middle reaches of
611 Changjiang River, China; ECC (6 lakes) – east central China, IM (13 lakes) – Inner
612 Mongolia, north China; NEC (9 lakes) – northeast China.

613

614 **Figure 2** MDS ordination for bacterioplankton communities from 42 lakes and
615 reservoirs of China. All – all bacterial taxa, abundant – abundant taxa, rare – rare taxa.
616 For region abbreviations see Figure 1.

617

618 **Figure 3** Spearman's rank correlations between the Bray-Curtis similarity of
619 bacterioplankton community and geographical distance (n is the number of
620 comparison).

621

622 **Figure 4** Spearman's rank correlation between median of bacterial OTU relative
623 abundance and number of sites occupied (n is the number of OTUs).

624

625 **Figure 5** CCA ordination showing the bacterial community composition in relation to
626 significant local environmental variables and regional geographical factors ($P < 0.05$).
627 WT – water temperature, EC – electrical conductivity, Turb – turbidity, TN – total
628 nitrogen.