



1 **Bacterial Community Structure and Predicted Functional**  
2 **Potential Across Andean Lakes with Contrasting**  
3 **Preservation Status Based on 16S rRNA Gene Profiles**

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14 **Abstract:** Northern Andean highland lakes play a key role in supporting agriculture and local livelihoods, but  
15 they are increasingly affected by anthropogenic pressures such as agricultural expansion and urbanization.  
16 These pressures can alter water quality and ecosystem functioning, yet their effects on microbial communities  
17 remain poorly understood. Here, we analyze bacterial community structure and predicted functional potential  
18 across four freshwater lakes in the Eastern Cordillera of Colombia, representing contrasting levels of  
19 environmental preservation. Using 16S rRNA gene sequencing, we characterized microbial diversity and  
20 community composition in two lakes subject to higher anthropogenic influence (Fúquene and Tota) and two  
21 relatively well-preserved systems (Calderona and Colorado). Lakes with lower preservation status exhibited  
22 higher microbial richness and diversity, likely associated with increased nutrient inputs and environmental  
23 heterogeneity. In contrast, more preserved lakes showed lower diversity but more stable community  
24 composition. Spatial heterogeneity also played a key role, with larger systems displaying greater horizontal  
25 variability linked to tributary inflows and extensive littoral zones, as well as vertical stratification driven by



26 gradients in light, temperature, oxygen, and nutrients. Co-occurrence patterns among dominant genera suggest  
27 environmentally structured microbial associations across lakes. Inferred functional profiles indicate differences  
28 in predicted metabolic potential among preservation statuses, particularly in pathways related to carbohydrate  
29 metabolism and xenobiotic degradation. However, these results represent inferred functional capacity based on  
30 taxonomic composition rather than direct measurements of microbial activity. Overall, our findings indicate  
31 that environmental preservation status and spatial heterogeneity shape both the composition and predicted  
32 metabolic potential of bacterial communities in Andean freshwater ecosystems. These results provide a baseline  
33 for understanding microbial responses to environmental change and highlight the need for future studies  
34 integrating metagenomic and experimental approaches to validate ecosystem processes.

35

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Aquatic ecosystems, particularly highland lakes and lagoons, are of immense  
38 ecological and societal significance (Heino et al., 2021; Millennium Ecosystem Assessment,  
39 2005). These water bodies provide essential resources for agricultural irrigation, sustain dairy  
40 production systems, and supply freshwater for domestic use in many regions (Heino et al.,  
41 2021; Maasri et al., 2022; Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). In the Northern  
42 Andean highlands of East-Central Colombia, a network of lakes and lagoons shape the  
43 landscape, supporting local livelihoods and fostering biodiversity (Andrade-Sossa et al.,  
44 2023; Maasri et al., 2022; Prado et al., 2024). However, the sustainability of these ecosystems  
45 is increasingly threatened by rising anthropogenic pressures within their watersheds  
46 (Andrade-Sossa et al., 2023; Aranguren-Riaño et al., 2018; Prado et al., 2024; Torres-Barrera  
47 et al., 2017).

48 Human activities, including intensive agriculture and urbanization, have introduced a  
49 range of pollutants and disturbances into these aquatic environments (Aranguren-Riaño et  
50 al., 2018; Carpenter et al., 1998; Másmela-Mendoza et al., 2019; Torres-Barrera et al., 2017).



51 These disturbances disrupt ecosystem equilibrium and pose significant risks to water quality,  
52 aquatic life, and the integrity of these natural reservoirs (Barletta et al., 2010; Millennium  
53 Ecosystem Assessment, 2005; Prado et al., 2024). Such impacts align with well-established  
54 ecological principles of lake dynamics, where external pressures—such as nutrient  
55 enrichment (Carpenter et al., 1998), sedimentation (Smith and Schindler, 2009), and  
56 hydrological alterations (Jeppesen et al., 2009)—drive shifts in microbial communities,  
57 primary production, and overall ecosystem functioning (Andrade-Sossa et al., 2023; Forero-  
58 Pineda et al., 2021; Paerl and Huisman, 2009; Paver et al., 2020; Sessitsch et al., n.d.; Smith  
59 and Schindler, 2009). These processes, widely documented in Colombian lakes, illustrate  
60 how anthropogenic pressures exacerbate ecological imbalances and influence biodiversity  
61 and biogeochemical cycles (Aranguren-Riaño et al., 2018; Forero-Pineda et al., 2021;  
62 Mámela-Mendoza et al., 2019; Prado et al., 2024). Moreover, lakes play a significant role  
63 in global biogeochemical cycles and energy fluxes (Downing et al., 2006; Raymond et al.,  
64 2013; Tranvik et al., 2009).

65 Microbial communities are central to ecosystem resilience and functionality, as they  
66 mediate key biogeochemical processes and contribute to ecological stability (Battin et al.,  
67 2016; Sessitsch et al., n.d.; Shade et al., 2012). Bacteria and archaea interact with their  
68 environment in complex ways, influencing nutrient cycling, water quality, and ecosystem  
69 health (Battin et al., 2016; Sessitsch et al., n.d.; Shade et al., 2012). Therefore, characterizing  
70 microbial diversity and its potential functional attributes in lentic ecosystems is essential for  
71 understanding the processes underlying ecosystem functioning, stability, and resilience  
72 (Battin et al., 2016; Paver et al., 2020; Sessitsch et al., n.d.; Shade et al., 2012).

73 The main objective of this study is to determine how environmental preservation  
74 status influences the taxonomic structure and predicted functional potential of bacterial



75 communities in Andean freshwater ecosystems. Specifically, we aim to (i) compare  
76 microbial diversity and community composition across lakes with contrasting levels of  
77 anthropogenic disturbance, and (ii) evaluate how these differences are reflected in inferred  
78 metabolic pathways relevant to ecosystem processes.

79 To achieve this, we applied a metataxonomic framework based on 16S rRNA gene  
80 sequencing to characterize bacterial diversity and community structure, combined with  
81 PICRUST2 to infer potential functional profiles from taxonomic data. This approach  
82 leverages reference genome databases to predict gene-family abundances and metabolic  
83 pathways associated with detected taxa. However, these predictions rely on the assumption  
84 that closely related taxa share similar genomic content, which may not fully capture strain-  
85 level variation or functional diversity within microbial lineages. Therefore, the inferred  
86 functional profiles presented here should be interpreted as proxies of potential metabolic  
87 capacity rather than direct evidence of gene presence or activity, and are intended as a  
88 hypothesis-generating framework for future studies incorporating metagenomic and  
89 experimental validation.

90

## 91 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 92 **2.1. Study Area and Sampling**

93 On one hand, Fúquene Lagoon is located at 2568 meters above the sea level (m.a.s.l.)  
94 largest remaining freshwater system in the Northern Andean highland mountain range of  
95 Colombia, covering about 198 square kilometers of water surface. Fúquene is situated less  
96 than 100 kilometers away from Bogotá city and is surrounded by a diverse landscape,  
97 featuring extensive dairy farms and a variety of agricultural crops such as cereals, potatoes,  
98 and onions. Tota lake is located at 3015m in Boyacá, holds the title of Colombia's largest



99 high mountain lake, covering around 60 square kilometers. Despite its popularity as a natural  
100 tourist destination, recent studies have highlighted an ongoing moderate eutrophication issue.  
101 This is primarily due to the unregulated use of fertilizers in green onion farming, various  
102 aquaculture practices, and the discharge of domestic wastewater. Unfortunately for both,  
103 these activities release various pollutants into the system (Aranguren-Riaño et al., 2018;  
104 Forero-Pineda et al., 2021; Másmela-Mendoza et al., 2019; Torres-Barrera et al., 2017).

105 On the other hand, Calderona is located at 3143 m.a.s.l., spanning approximately 0.4  
106 square kilometers, is a glacial lagoon situated within the protected El Cañal Municipal  
107 Natural Park in Boyacá's Ciénega municipality. Calderona is surrounded by moor vegetation  
108 from the Páramo el Bijagual. Lastly, the Colorado lagoon, situated at 2430m, in the Boyacá's  
109 Gachantivá municipality, is a natural aquatic system pond surrounded by Andean forest, and  
110 nestled in the foothills of the Páramo de Iguaque. Only short-term tourism activities are  
111 permitted in this area. Further details about the origins and preservation statuses of these sites  
112 are shown in (Table 1).

113 Sampling was exclusively conducted in the limnetic zone of the aquatic systems,  
114 excluding the littoral zone, to focus specifically on planktonic communities. The limnetic  
115 zone allowing a better examination of planktonic composition, like bacterioplankton and  
116 their functional roles within the ecosystems. For Fúquene Lagoon we collected two samples  
117 in the first and in the second semester of 2019, whereas for Tota Lake, and Calderona and  
118 Colorado, only one sample was collected in October 2019 (Table 1). Additional raw dataset  
119 from the previous study of bacteriome structure of Tota Lake (BioProject: PRJNA720890),  
120 sampled in December 2018 was included as internal control (Forero-Pineda et al., 2021). The  
121 water collection procedure was consistent across all samples. We obtained a water sample,  
122 approximately 1.7 liters, from the middle part of the photic zone with a Schindler-Patalas



123 Bottle 1 sequi disk, so the sampling depth was closely related to the transparency of each  
124 system. The collected water underwent in situ prefiltration through 1.5  $\mu\text{m}$  pore-size filter.  
125 Microorganisms were then concentrated onto two replicates of 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  Millipore Sterivex  
126 filters, following the recommendations of Paver et al. in 2020 (Paver et al., 2020).  
127 Subsequently, these filters were transferred into sterile plastic tubes containing 1.5 ml of  
128 Monarch® DNA/RNA protection reagent. They were transported to the laboratory within 2  
129 to 4 hours, maintaining a cold chain, and stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until DNA extraction could be  
130 performed, as recommended by the manufacturer (New England Biolabs).

131

132



133 **Table 1.** Location and origin of lentic systems analyzed and raw data used in the core-  
 134 metataxonomic description based on amplicon variant sequences (ASVs). \*Indicates that  
 135 the included data was retrieved from Forero-Pineda et al., (2021).  
 136

Locality	Sample	Coordinates		Altitude (m.a.s.l.)	Geological origin	Preserved status	Sampling (year.semester)	Number. of clean reads	Number of ASVs
		North	West						
Ciénega	Calderona	5° 23' 23.16"	73° 14' 40.99"	3,130	Glacial	High	2019.2	74690	514
	Colorado	5° 46' 29.43"	73° 33' 5.81"	2,450	Pluvial	High	2019.2	68737	761
Figuene	Figuene1	5° 27' 4.53"	73° 44' 47.82"	2,750	Tectonic	Low	2019.1	73484	756
	Figuene2						2019.2	86752	848
Tota	Total	5° 32' 29.28"	72° 55' 27.75"	3,015	Tectonic-Glacial	Middle	2018.2*	171326	690
	Total2						2019.2	81926	506

137



## 138        **2.2. DNA Extraction, Sequencing, and Assembly**

139        Genomic DNA was extracted from environmental filters using a modified  
140        cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB)-based chemical protocol, rather than a  
141        commercial extraction kit. The extraction buffer consisted of 1% (w/v) CTAB, 3% (w/v)  
142        sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 100 mM Tris–HCl, 100 mM EDTA, and 1.5 M NaCl (pH  
143        8.0), following previously described procedures (Forero-Pineda et al., 2021; Paver et al.,  
144        2020). Subsequently, we conducted amplicon sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene on the Miseq  
145        platform. We employed universal primers 341F (5'-CCT ACG GNGGC WGC AG-3') and  
146        805R (5'-GAC TAC HVGGT ATC TAA TCC -3') to target the hypervariable V3 and V4  
147        regions of the 16S rRNA gene, following established methods (Klindworth et al., 2013; Ren  
148        et al., 2017). The primers used in this study target conserved regions of the 16S rRNA gene  
149        present in both Bacteria and Archaea.

150

## 151        **2.3. Taxonomic and Functional Assignment of the Microbiome**

### 152        **2.3.1. Sequence processing and ASV inference**

153        Raw sequencing reads were processed in R using the DADA2 v1.20.0 package  
154        (Callahan et al., 2016). Forward reads were truncated to 200 bp and reverse reads to 150 bp  
155        (*truncLen* = c(200,150)), with the first 19 nt of forward and 20 nt of reverse reads removed  
156        (*trimLeft* = c(19,20)). Reads containing ambiguous bases were discarded (*maxN* = 0), and  
157        maximum expected errors were limited to two per read (*maxEE* = c(2,2)). Bases with quality  
158        scores below Q2 were trimmed (*truncQ* = 2), and phiX contaminants were removed (*rm.phix*  
159        = TRUE). After denoising, paired-end reads were merged, and chimeric sequences were  
160        removed using the “consensus” method implemented in *removeBimeraDenovo*. To reduce  
161        potential sequencing artefacts and low-frequency noise, we discarded amplicon sequence



162 variants (ASVs) with fewer than 100 total reads across all samples. This threshold was  
163 selected to minimize spurious variants while retaining dominant and consistently detected  
164 taxa.

### 165 **2.3.2. Taxonomic assignment and diversity analyses**

166 Taxonomic classification was performed using the RDP training set  
167 (rdp\_train\_set\_18) with the *assignTaxonomy* and *addSpecies* functions. The resulting ASV  
168 table was converted to relative abundances for diversity and ordination analyses using the  
169 function *transform\_sample\_counts* in the phyloseq v1.36.0 package (McMurdie and Holmes,  
170 2013). Rarefaction curves were generated using the function *rarecurve* (step = 10) in vegan  
171 v2.6.4 (Oksanen et al., 2024). Diversity was further quantified using Hill numbers ( $q = 0, 1,$   
172 and 2), calculated with the iNEXT package (Chao et al., 2014; Hsieh et al., 2024),  
173 corresponding to species richness, Shannon diversity, and Simpson diversity, respectively.

### 174 **2.3.3. Co-occurrence network analysis**

175 To investigate potential microbial associations, ASVs were aggregated to the genus  
176 level using *tax\_glom* (phyloseq). Only genera present in at least 50 % of samples and with  
177 mean relative abundance greater than 0.1 % were retained. Pairwise Spearman correlations  
178 ( $\rho$ ) were calculated based on genus-level relative abundances. Statistical significance was  
179 assessed by generating null distributions through 1 000 random permutations of sample  
180 labels, recalculating  $\rho$  for each iteration. Raw p-values were adjusted using the Benjamini–  
181 Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) method. Associations were considered significant for  
182  $|\rho| > 0.6$  and FDR-corrected  $p < 0.01$ .

183 In parallel, probabilistic co-occurrence analysis (Veech, 2013) was conducted using  
184 the *site\_spp* null model implemented in cooccur v1.3. Positive and negative associations were  
185 defined based on significant deviations from expected co-occurrence frequencies ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).



186 Network visualization was performed using visNetwork v2.1.2. These co-occurrence patterns  
187 represent statistical associations and should not be interpreted as direct ecological  
188 interactions.

#### 189 **2.3.4. Phylogenetic analysis of *Mycobacterium***

190 For non-tuberculous *Mycobacterium* (NTM) identification, 25 sequences  
191 corresponding to ASV29 were extracted from the dataset (Kato et al., 2009) including 96  
192 available sequences drawn from RefSeq database (Table S2). Maximum-likelihood (ML)  
193 phylogenetic tree was conducted in IQ-Tree 2 (Minh et al., 2020) with 1000 Ultrafast  
194 Bootstrap replicates under the GTR+F substitution model. Topology visualization and  
195 edition was performed in ggtree v.3.0.4 (Yu, 2020) package in R.

#### 196 **2.3.5. Functional prediction and differential analysis**

197 Functional profiles were inferred from 16S rRNA gene data using the PICRUSt2  
198 package (Douglas et al., 2020), which predicts gene content based on reference genomes.  
199 Using amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) as input, we inferred Kyoto Encyclopedia of  
200 Genes and Genomes (KEGG) Orthologs (KOs) and their associated metabolic pathway  
201 abundances through the complete PICRUSt2 pipeline. These predictions rely on  
202 phylogenetic inference and assume that closely related taxa share similar genomic content.  
203 However, this assumption may not fully account for strain-level variability and functional  
204 heterogeneity within microbial lineages. Consequently, inferred functional profiles should be  
205 interpreted as estimates of potential metabolic capacity rather than direct measurements of  
206 gene presence or activity.

207 A per-ASV nearest sequenced taxon index (NSTI) cutoff of  $< 2$  was applied following  
208 PICRUSt2 guidelines. ASVs approaching this threshold were retained but interpreted with  
209 caution due to reduced prediction accuracy.



210 To evaluate differences in predicted functional pathways among lakes, we conducted  
211 differential abundance analyses using ALDEx2 v1.28.1 (Paulson et al., 2013), implemented  
212 through the *ggpicrust2* package (Yang et al., 2023). Count data were transformed using a  
213 centered log-ratio (CLR) transformation after generating 128 Monte Carlo Dirichlet instances  
214 per feature to account for compositional variability.

215 Statistical significance was assessed using both Welch's t-test and the Wilcoxon rank-  
216 sum test, as implemented in the *aldex.ttest* function. Resulting p-values were adjusted using  
217 the Benjamini–Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) correction. KEGG pathways were  
218 considered significant at  $FDR < 0.01$ , while MetaCyc pathways were evaluated at  $FDR <$   
219  $0.05$ . These thresholds were selected to account for differences in pathway resolution and  
220 database structure. Effect sizes were calculated using *aldex.effect* but were not subjected to  
221 an additional cutoff.

222 This analytical framework provides a robust approach for identifying compositional  
223 differences in inferred functional profiles while controlling for false discovery, although  
224 results should be interpreted as hypothesis-generating rather than confirmatory of microbial  
225 activity.

226

### 227 **3. Results**

#### 228 **3.1. Description of microbial communities present in aquatic systems**

229 After pre-processing, consisting of high-quality filtering, a total of 556,915 reads was  
230 obtained from the study population, with an average of 92,819 reads per sample, by  
231 sequencing the 16S rRNA gene fragment (Table 1). The number of assigned reads to ASVs  
232 varied from 42,171 in Colorado to 86,554 in Tota lake 1 sample (Fig. 1a). After excluding  
233 those ASVs harboring  $< 100$  sequences, and those with no available taxa name, a total of



234 3,153 assigned to taxa ASVs were retained for metataxonomic description in the 6 samples  
235 analyzed. The number of ASVs identified in samples varied from 514 in Colorado to 802 ( $\pm$   
236 65) in the two sampling of Fúquene lake (Table 1), and significant differences ( $p < 0.001$ ) in  
237 ASV abundance was calculated between all samples, except for Calderona and Tota2,  
238 Colorado and Fúquene, Colorado and Tota1, and Fúquene1 and Tota1 (Fig. 1b). Furthermore,  
239 significant differences ( $p < 0.001$ ) were also observed for the temporal replicates conducted  
240 in Tota and Fúquene (Fig. 1b). Similar number of observed and rarified ASVs, and  
241 asymptotic rarefaction curves showed in all samples were indicating that further sequencing  
242 effort would not greatly affect the results (Fig. S1).

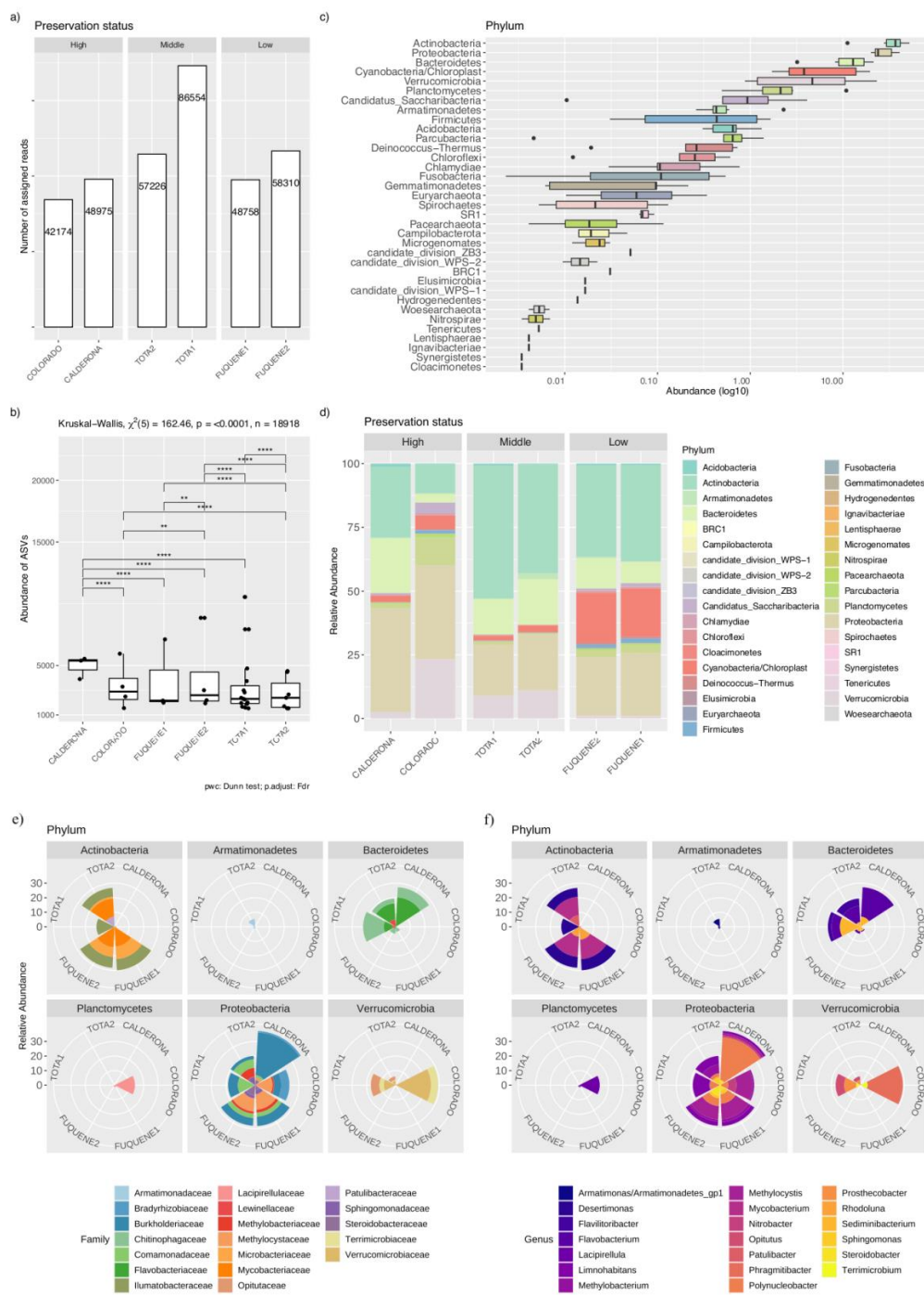
243 A total of 34 bacterial phyla were identified across all samples, along with members  
244 of the archaeal phylum Euryarchaeota, consistent with amplification of both bacterial and  
245 archaeal 16S rRNA genes (Fig. 1c–d; Table S1). The most abundant bacterial phyla included  
246 Actinobacteria (34.5%), Proteobacteria (29.7%), Bacteroidetes (12.7%), Cyanobacteria  
247 (8.5%), and Verrucomicrobia (7.9%), whereas approximately 80% of detected phyla  
248 exhibited low relative abundances ( $< 1\%$ ), including Euryarchaeota (Fig. 1c; Table S1).

249 Across preservation statuses, Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria were consistently  
250 dominant in all aquatic systems, whereas Bacteroidetes, Verrucomicrobia, and Cyanobacteria  
251 showed variable abundances among lakes (Fig. 1d). Additionally, although Planctomycetes  
252 were detected in all systems, they reached relatively high abundance in the Colorado lake  
253 (11.3%) (Fig. 1d).

254 Across all samples, a total of 366 genera belonging to 179 families were identified  
255 following taxonomic assignment (Table S1; Fig. 1e–f). Low-abundance ( $< 1\%$ ) archaeal  
256 genera, including *Methanobacterium*, *Methanothrix*, and *Methanocella*, were detected in the



257 Colorado lagoon, whereas *Methanosarcina* was identified in the second sampling of Fúquene  
258 lagoon (Table S1). The most abundant genera included *Polynucleobacter* (Proteobacteria;  
259 29.5%) and *Flavobacterium* (Bacteroidetes; 20.3%), both dominant in Calderona, followed  
260 by *Phragmitibacter* (Verrucomicrobia; 24.2%) in Colorado (Fig. 1f).  
261





263 **Figure 1.** Sequencing output, diversity patterns, and taxonomic composition across aquatic  
264 systems with contrasting preservation status. (a) Number of reads assigned to amplicon  
265 sequence variants (ASVs) per sample. (b) Differences in ASV abundance among samples  
266 (Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn’s post hoc comparisons; FDR-adjusted p-values shown). (c)  
267 Relative abundance of bacterial phyla across all samples. (d) Phylum-level community  
268 composition by preservation status. Relative abundance of dominant taxa at the (e) family  
269 and (f) genus levels.

270

### 271 **3.2. Microbiome diversity estimation in aquatic systems of Northern Andean Region** 272 **of Colombia**

273 Microbial diversity was assessed using Hill numbers, where  $q$  represents the order of  
274 diversity. Specifically,  $q_0$  corresponds to species richness (all taxa weighted equally),  $q_1$   
275 corresponds to the exponential of Shannon diversity (sensitive to abundant taxa), and  $q_2$   
276 corresponds to the inverse Simpson index (emphasizing dominant taxa). For  $q_0$ , Colorado  
277 exhibited the highest species richness (128 taxa), followed by Fúquene 1, Fúquene 2, and  
278 Tota 2. However, diversity decreased substantially at  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  in Colorado, indicating that  
279 a relatively small number of taxa accounted for a large proportion of the total abundance. In  
280 contrast, Calderona, despite having lower richness ( $q_0 = 73$ ), showed a more gradual decline  
281 from  $q_0$  to  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ , suggesting a more even distribution of taxa. Across systems, Tota  
282 exhibited noticeable variation in diversity patterns between sampling points, reflecting  
283 temporal or spatial heterogeneity in community composition (Fig. 2a).

284

### 285 **3.3. Co-occurrence network analysis**



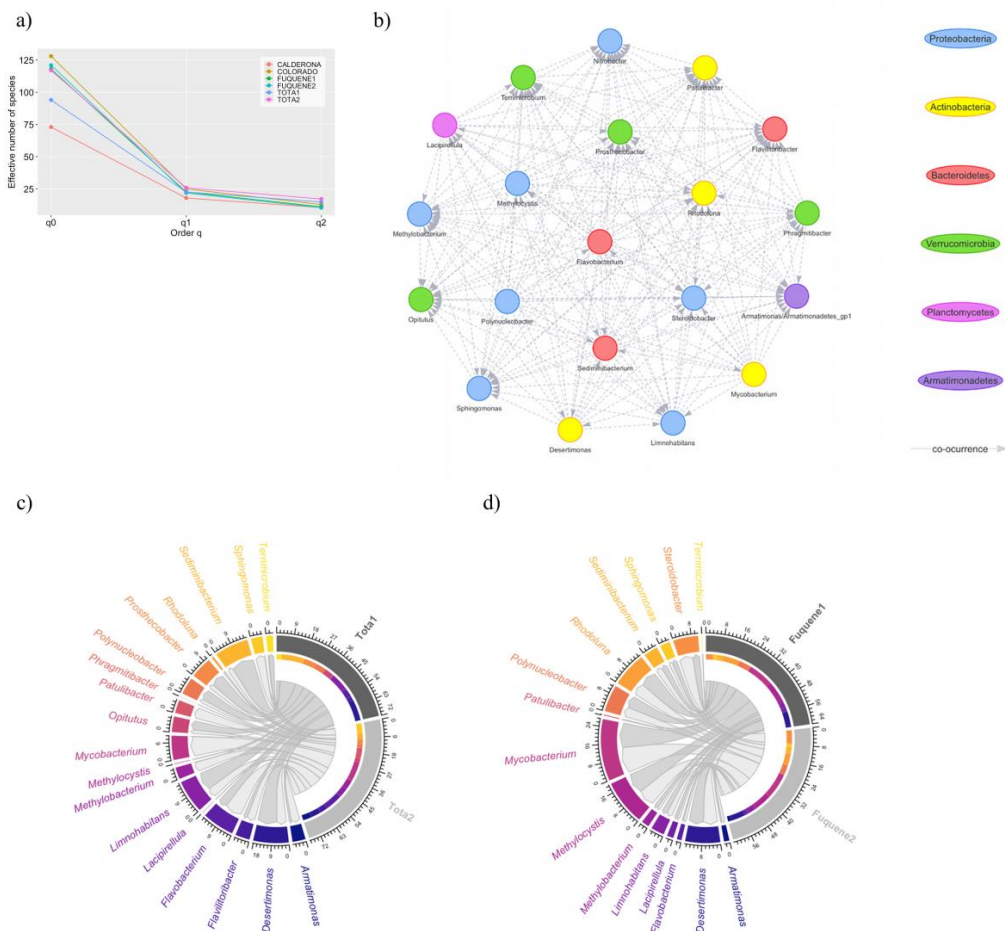
286 The co-occurrence patterns of bacterial communities across aquatic systems were  
287 assessed using the most abundant genera. The resulting network was statistically significant  
288 ( $p < 0.01$ ) and comprised 20 nodes and 226 edges, representing taxa from six major phyla:  
289 Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Verrucomicrobia, Planctomycetes, and  
290 Armatimonadetes (Fig. 2b). Several genera from different phyla, including *Nitrobacter*,  
291 *Methylobacterium*, *Opiritatus*, *Flavilitoribacter*, and *Sphingomonas*, exhibited strong positive  
292 correlations across samples. In contrast, *Mycobacterium* showed a more restricted pattern,  
293 co-occurring primarily with *Polynucleobacter* (Fig. 2b). These associations represent  
294 statistical co-occurrence patterns and should not be interpreted as direct ecological  
295 interactions.

296

### 297 **3.4. Temporal bacteriome composition in Tota and Fúquene aquatic systems**

298 Bacterial community composition at the genus level (relative abundance  $> 0.1\%$ ) was  
299 broadly similar between the two sampling events in both Tota and Fúquene (Fig. 2c-d). In  
300 Tota, relatively consistent abundances were observed for *Desertimonas*, *Flavobacterium*,  
301 *Limnohabitans*, and *Sediminibacterium* across both sampling events. In contrast, noticeable  
302 variation was detected for *Mycobacterium* and *Patulibacter* (Fig. 2c). In Fúquene, the  
303 dominant genera showed relatively stable abundances between sampling events, with  
304 *Mycobacterium*, *Desertimonas*, *Methylocystis*, and *Rhodoluna* consistently prevalent (Fig.  
305 2d). These patterns suggest temporal stability in dominant taxa, with localized variability in  
306 specific genera.

307



308

309 **Figure 2.** Diversity patterns, co-occurrence structure, and temporal variation of bacterial  
 310 communities across aquatic systems. (a) Hill numbers (effective number of taxa)  
 311 sampling localities, where q represents the order of diversity (q0 = richness, q1 = Shannon  
 312 diversity, q2 = Simpson diversity). (b) Co-occurrence network of the most abundant bacterial  
 313 genera; nodes represent genera, edges indicate significant correlations, and node colors  
 314 correspond to phylum-level classification (see inset). (c–d) Relative abundance of dominant  
 315 bacterial genera (> 0.1%) across two sampling events in (c) Lake Tota and (d) Lake Fúquene.



316

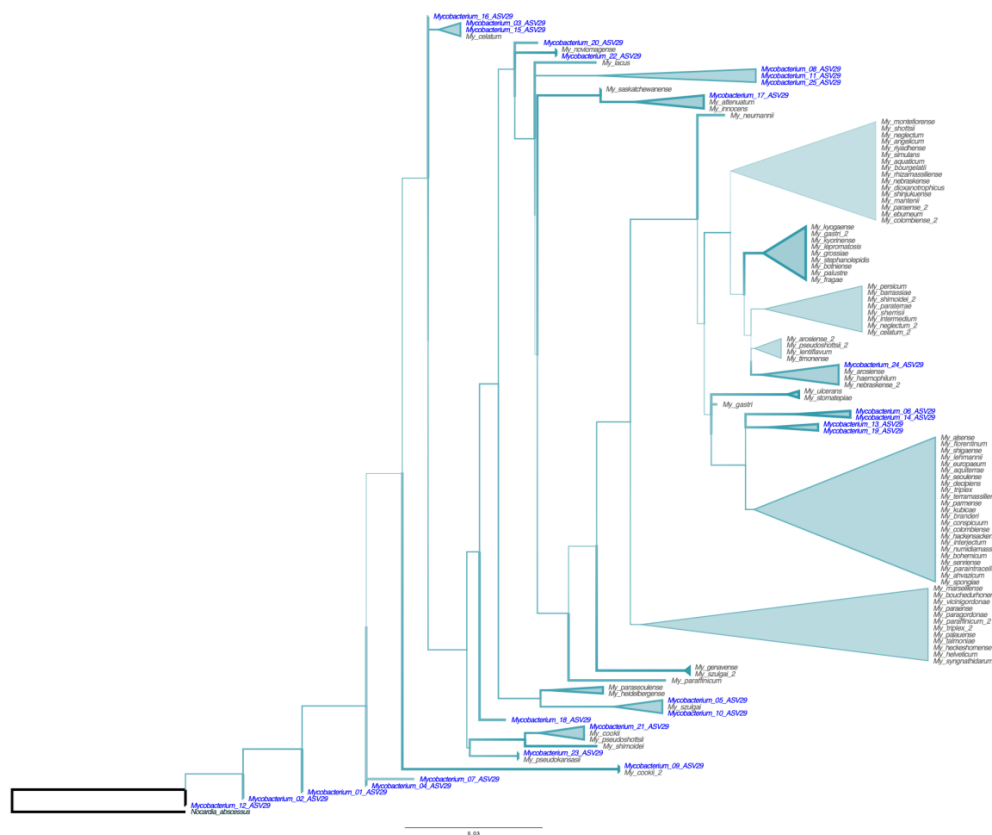
317 **3.5. Phylogenetic 16S rRNA-based identification of *Mycobacterium* sp. present in**

318 **Tota lake and Fúquene lagoon**

319 Phylogenetic analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences revealed that, among the 25  
320 sequences assigned to *Mycobacterium* sp. (ASV29), 10 clustered with reference sequences  
321 of known species with strong support (bootstrap > 0.9), including *M. celatum*, *M.*  
322 *noviomagense*, *M. szulgai*, *M. pseudokansasii*, and *M. cookii* (variant 2). These sequences  
323 formed well-supported clades with their respective reference taxa. The remaining sequences  
324 grouped into less-resolved clades, showing associations with multiple species, including *M.*  
325 *attenuatum* and *M. innocens*, *M. arosiense*, *M. haemophilum* and *M. nebraskense* (variant 2),  
326 as well as *M. cookii* and *M. pseudoshottsii* (Fig. 3). However, due to the limited resolution of  
327 the V3–V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene, species-level assignments should be considered  
328 provisional.

329 Sequences affiliated with other genera of potential relevance, such as *Leptospira* and  
330 *Legionella*, were also detected. These results indicate the presence of phylogenetically  
331 diverse bacterial lineages in the aquatic systems of Tota and Fúquene, including taxa  
332 commonly reported in environmental and water-associated habitats.

333



334

335 **Figure 3.** Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequences of  
336 non-tuberculous *Mycobacterium* (NTMs) detected in Tota and Fúquene aquatic systems.  
337 Sequences corresponding to ASV29 identified in this study are highlighted in blue. Branch  
338 thickness indicates bootstrap support, and clades with bootstrap values > 0.9 are collapsed.

339

340 **3.6. Functional prediction of bacterial communities presents in aquatic systems of**  
341 **Northern Andean Region of Colombia**

342 The predicted functional potential of bacterial communities was inferred using PICRUSt2  
343 across all samples. The Nearest Sequenced Taxon Index (NSTI), which quantifies the  
344 phylogenetic distance between observed taxa and reference genomes used for functional



345 prediction, ranged from 0.159 to 0.181 (mean = 0.171). These relatively low values indicate  
346 that most ASVs are closely related to sequenced reference organisms, suggesting moderate  
347 to high confidence in the inferred functional profiles. A per-ASV NSTI cutoff of  $< 2$  was  
348 applied to reduce uncertainty in functional predictions. Based on this threshold, 569 of 4 552  
349 ASVs (12.5%) were excluded, and 3 983 ASVs (87.5%) were retained for downstream  
350 analyses. While more stringent thresholds (e.g.,  $\text{NSTI} < 1$ ) could further improve prediction  
351 accuracy, they would also remove a larger proportion of taxa and potentially underestimate  
352 community functional diversity. The NSTI values obtained in this study are consistent with  
353 those reported for other aquatic environments (Fang et al., 2020; Langille et al., 2013).

354 Analysis of inferred functional profiles revealed variation in predicted metabolic  
355 pathways across samples. Pathways associated with carbohydrate metabolism, xenobiotic  
356 degradation, and cellular processes were among the most represented functional categories  
357 (Fig. 4a). In addition, pathways related to bacterial chemotaxis and biofilm formation were  
358 identified among the predicted functions, although these represent inferred capabilities rather  
359 than direct evidence of activity. Clustering of samples based on predicted functional profiles  
360 showed differentiation among preservation statuses, separating lakes into groups  
361 corresponding to low (Fúquene), intermediate (Tota), and high (Calderona and Colorado)  
362 preservation levels (Fig. 4b).

363 Differential abundance analysis using ALDEx2 identified 98 KEGG Ortholog (KO)  
364 terms grouped into six functional categories that varied significantly across preservation  
365 statuses (Fig. 4c; Table S2). Most of these differences were associated with pathways related  
366 to carbohydrate metabolism, xenobiotic degradation, cofactors and vitamins metabolism, and  
367 general cellular processes. Additionally, some pathways annotated in databases as related to  
368 infectious diseases were detected; however, these annotations reflect gene homology within



369 reference databases and should not be interpreted as evidence of pathogenic activity in these

370 systems.

371





373 **Figure 4.** Predicted functional profiles of bacterial communities across lakes with contrasting  
374 preservation status. (a) Relative abundance of the top 50 predicted functional pathways, (b)  
375 clustering of samples based on predicted functional profiles, and (c) differentially abundant  
376 KEGG Ortholog (KO) groups across preservation statuses.

377

#### 378 **4. Discussion**

379 In this research, the analysis of bacterial and archaeal diversity across different aquatic  
380 ecosystems in the Northern Andean Region of Colombia revealed significant insights into  
381 microbial composition and functional potential concerning preservation status, lake size and  
382 spatial heterogeneity. Although a few reads assigned to archaeal taxa were retrieved, our  
383 study employed universal 16S V3–V4 primers designed for Bacteria. Consequently, archaeal  
384 diversity is likely under-represented, and any Archaeal ASVs detected should be interpreted  
385 with caution. The most abundant bacterial phyla identified were Actinobacteria,  
386 Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, and Verrucomicrobia, with Actinobacteria and  
387 Proteobacteria consistently dominating across all systems. Notably, the presence of  
388 methanogenic archaea, such as *Methanobacterium* and *Methanosarcina*, although in low  
389 abundance, underscores the potential for localized anaerobic processes influenced by trophic  
390 dynamics, particularly in specific systems like Colorado and Fúquene. The detection of these  
391 methanogens in lake sediments had suggested that localized anaerobic processes can occur,  
392 especially under certain physicochemical conditions conditions (Ward and Frea, 1980). In  
393 eutrophic lakes, the decomposition of organic matter can create anoxic conditions favorable  
394 for methanogenic activity (Kersti Kangro et al., 2007; Smith and Schindler, 2009). This  
395 microbial process plays a crucial role in the carbon cycle by converting organic carbon into



396 methane, a potent greenhouse gas (Raymond et al., 2013; Tranvik et al., 2009; Ward and  
397 Frea, 1980).

398 Microbial community structure displayed notable variations between lakes, especially in  
399 terms of preservation status. Calderona and Colorado, characterized by higher basin  
400 preservation, exhibited lower microbial diversity but more stable communities, as reflected  
401 in the consistent dominance of *Polynucleobacter* and *Flavobacterium*. The observed patterns  
402 suggest that higher preservation status in lakes leads to a reduction in microbial diversity but  
403 an increase in community stability as reported in diverse freshwater ecosystems (Diao et al.,  
404 2017; Hoetzing et al., 2019; Nuy et al., 2020). This phenomenon may be influenced by  
405 factors beyond anthropogenic disturbances, as natural processes also shape community  
406 composition (Sessitsch et al., 2023). In small lakes, strong interactions between sediments,  
407 the littoral zone, and limnetic waters can significantly influence microbial dynamics  
408 (Søndergaard et al., 2003). These interactions often lead to shifts in nutrient availability and  
409 microbial community composition, particularly in response to sediment resuspension and  
410 littoral-pelagic coupling (Jones and Lennon, 2010). Additionally, the presence of Andean  
411 forest surrounding these lakes may serve as an indicator of conservation status and influence  
412 the input of organic matter with varying quality (Aranguren-Riaño et al., 2018). In the case  
413 of Tota, seasonal hydroclimatic variations likely play a role in regulating both natural and  
414 anthropogenic stressors (Aranguren-Riaño et al., 2018; Torres-Barrera et al., 2017). Such  
415 dynamics are critical for understanding the ecological balance within freshwater systems and  
416 their responses to environmental changes. In contrast, Fúquene, with a lower preservation  
417 status, exhibited the highest microbial richness and diversity, likely due to increased nutrient  
418 availability and disturbance events that create new ecological niches. These disturbances,  
419 whether natural (such as flooding or seasonal turnover) or anthropogenic (like runoff or



420 pollution), disrupt established communities and enable the colonization of diverse microbial  
421 species (Hoang et al., 2023). Sampling variation was also evident in Tota, where seasonal  
422 changes influenced shifts in bacterial abundance and diversity, highlighting a dynamic  
423 microbial ecosystem. Contributing factors include seasonal nutrient fluctuations, as changes  
424 in temperature, light, and organic matter alter nutrient dynamics; hydrological changes, such  
425 as rainfall or evaporation affecting water levels and salinity; and biological interactions, like  
426 phytoplankton blooms or zooplankton grazing that influence resource availability for bacteria  
427 (Andrade-Sossa et al., 2023; Giongo et al., 2023; Hoang et al., 2023; Másmela-Mendoza et  
428 al., 2019).

429         Correlations in our co-occurrence network likely reflect shared niches or indirect  
430 links rather than direct interactions. These correlations underscore that microbial  
431 communities are dynamic entities shaped by environmental conditions, emphasizing their  
432 critical role in ecosystem resilience and functioning (Paver et al., 2020; Sessitsch et al., 2023;  
433 Shade et al., 2012). Although these patterns suggest preservation status and nutrient gradients  
434 shape community structure in impacted lakes, such inferences further require experimental  
435 validation. Moreover, the specialized relationship observed between *Mycobacterium* and  
436 *Polynucleobacter* underscores the adaptability and resilience of these communities in  
437 response to environmental changes. These insights support the conclusion's assertion that  
438 understanding microbial dynamics is crucial for effective freshwater ecosystem management,  
439 as recognizing co-occurrence patterns allows for better predictions of how these communities  
440 will respond to environmental changes and anthropogenic impacts, thereby informing  
441 conservation strategies (Sarkar et al., 2022).

442         Phylogenetic analysis of the *Mycobacterium* sequences (ASV29) revealed a diverse  
443 composition of *Mycobacterium* species in the Tota and Fúquene aquatic systems. Ten of the



444 analyzed sequences were grouped with known species, including *M. celatum*, *M.*  
445 *noviomagense*, *M. szulgai*, *M. pseudokansasii*, and *M. cookii*, indicating close relationships  
446 among these taxa. The remaining sequences were categorized into polytopic clades,  
447 highlighting connections with multiple species groups, such as *M. attenuatum*, *M. innocens*,  
448 *M. arosiense*, *M. haemophilum*, *M. negraskense*, and *M. cookie*. *Mycobacteria* are known to  
449 inhabit various aquatic environments, including freshwater and marine systems, where they  
450 can affect the health of aquatic organisms and contribute to biogeochemical processes (Gcebe  
451 et al., 2018). For instance, studies have reported the isolation of non-tuberculous  
452 mycobacteria (NTM) from a range of aquatic animals, indicating their role in  
453 mycobacteriosis, which can impact fish health and aquaculture productivity (Gcebe et al.,  
454 2018; Hashish et al., 2018). The interactions between these mycobacterial species and other  
455 microbial communities can shape the ecological balance within aquatic ecosystems,  
456 highlighting the importance of monitoring their presence and understanding their ecological  
457 roles (Barletta et al., 2010; Nuy et al., 2020). In addition to *Mycobacterium*, sequences  
458 belonging to other genera of human health concern, such as *Leptospira* and *Legionella*, were  
459 also identified. *Leptospira* species, known for causing leptospirosis, can persist in freshwater  
460 environments and pose zoonotic risks through contact with contaminated water (Bradley and  
461 Lockaby, 2023). *Legionella*, the causative agent of Legionnaires' disease, is commonly  
462 associated with water systems and can proliferate under specific environmental conditions  
463 (Gattuso et al., 2022). The presence of these bacteria underscores the need for further  
464 investigation into potential public health risks and their ecological interactions. The interplay  
465 between these pathogenic and environmental microorganisms may influence microbial  
466 community dynamics, affecting both ecosystems functioning and water quality.



467           The predicted functional potential of bacterial communities across all samples  
468 provides insight into possible ecological roles within these aquatic ecosystems. However,  
469 these inferences are derived from 16S rRNA gene data and should be interpreted with  
470 caution, as PICRUSt2 predictions rely on phylogenetic relationships with reference genomes  
471 and may not capture strain-level functional variability. Consequently, the inferred metabolic  
472 profiles represent potential functional capacity rather than direct evidence of gene presence  
473 or activity.

474           Within this framework, variation in predicted functional pathways appears to be  
475 associated with differences in lake preservation status, likely reflecting underlying gradients  
476 in nutrient availability, microbial community composition, and environmental conditions  
477 (Battin et al., 2003, 2016; Paver et al., 2020; Shade et al., 2012). In systems with higher  
478 nutrient loads, such as those undergoing eutrophication, microbial communities are often  
479 characterized by shifts in diversity and metabolic potential that can influence nutrient cycling  
480 processes (Carpenter et al., 1998; Cotner and Biddanda, 2002; Paerl and Huisman, 2009;  
481 Smith and Schindler, 2009). For instance, the predicted enrichment of pathways related to  
482 naphthalene degradation and biofilm formation suggests potential metabolic capabilities  
483 within these microbial communities, reflecting their adaptability to fluctuating nutrient  
484 conditions and their possible role in organic matter transformation (Mohapatra and Phale,  
485 2021). However, these inferences are based on taxonomic predictions and cannot be directly  
486 attributed to specific taxa, such as *Escherichia coli* or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, nor  
487 interpreted as direct evidence of their roles in organic matter decomposition or adaptation to  
488 fluctuating nutrient conditions. Furthermore, distinct clustering based on metabolic potential  
489 underscores the influence of preservation status, categorizing Fúquene as low, Tota as  
490 middle, and both Calderona and Colorado as high. Understanding this functional potential is



491 crucial for developing effective management strategies to preserve aquatic ecosystems amid  
492 environmental changes and anthropogenic pressures. A differential abundance analysis  
493 revealed distinct variations in predicted genes across the three preservation statuses,  
494 highlighting significant differences in genes related to carbohydrate metabolism, xenobiotic  
495 degradation, cofactors and vitamins metabolism, and various cellular processes. These  
496 findings are ecologically important, particularly in the context of eutrophication, where  
497 changes in nutrient dynamics can significantly impact the functional roles of microbial  
498 communities (Forero-Pineda et al., 2021; Shade et al., 2012; Smith and Schindler, 2009).  
499 Furthermore, the presence of pathways associated with bacterial infectious diseases adds  
500 another layer of complexity to these ecosystems. Understanding these variations is crucial  
501 for assessing the health and resilience of aquatic systems, especially in the face of  
502 environmental changes and human impacts, as they can greatly influence the balance and  
503 sustainability of these habitats.

504

## 505 **5. Conclusions**

506 In conclusion, our study reveals complex links between microbial taxonomic  
507 diversity, predicted functional potential, and preservation status across Andean lakes in  
508 Colombia. Co-occurrence networks suggest potential ecological associations among  
509 dominant genera, and phylogenetic analyses of *Mycobacterium* expand our view of lineage  
510 diversity (but both are based on predictive or correlational methods). The observed variation  
511 in community composition and inferred metabolic pathways across lakes provides useful  
512 hypotheses and candidate indicators for future monitoring, yet these patterns require targeted  
513 validation before they can underpin system-specific conservation or management actions.



514 Study limitations statement. Several methodological and interpretative constraints  
515 temper our findings. First, all functional profiles derive from PICRUSt2 predictions rather  
516 than metagenomic or transcriptomic measurements and thus represent hypothetical  
517 potentials, not actual gene expression or activity. Second, species-level assignments—  
518 especially for *Mycobacterium* and other genera based on the V3–V4 16S region—are  
519 inherently tentative due to insufficient phylogenetic resolution. Third, with only one or two  
520 samples per lake and no true longitudinal sampling, any claims of temporal variation or  
521 community stability remain speculative. Fourth, our small sample size limits the robustness  
522 of “core microbiome” definitions and broader generalizations about diversity patterns. Fifth,  
523 the absence of concomitant environmental metadata (e.g., nutrient loads, dissolved oxygen)  
524 restricts our ability to link microbial shifts directly to physicochemical drivers. Finally, co-  
525 occurrence networks, built on correlation thresholds and null-model assumptions, may  
526 capture shared environmental preferences or indirect associations rather than genuine  
527 ecological interactions. Together, these limitations underscore the need for expanded  
528 sampling, direct functional assays, and integrated environmental measurements in future  
529 work.



### **Author contributions**

AGP and NAR conceptualized and designed the study. APR and NAR conducted fieldwork. JMS performed laboratory procedures. AGP conducted data analysis. AGP, JMS, APR, and NAR contributed to writing and revising the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final version of the manuscript.

### **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

### **Data Availability Statement**

The raw sequencing datasets used in the present study are available in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive repository (the Bioproject; PRJNA720890).

### **Ethical approval**

This study did not involve human participants, vertebrate animals, or any endangered or protected species. Water sampling was conducted in public lakes following standard environmental research protocols, without any intervention that could harm the ecosystem. Therefore, ethical approval was not required. All necessary permits for sample collection were obtained from the relevant local authorities.

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## **Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the writing process**

During the preparation of this work the author(s) used ChatGPT / OpenAI in order to improve drafting and readability of this manuscript. After using this tool/service, the author(s) reviewed and edited the content as needed and take(s) full responsibility for the content of the publication.

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## **Supplementary information**

**Supplementary table 1.** Complete metataxonomic description and relative abundance in the freshwater lentic systems analyzed.



**Supplementary table 2.** Multiple differential comparisons of predicted gene abundances in KEGG Orthology (KO) functions and annotated pathways.

**Figure S1:** Summary for rarefaction analysis of (a) observed vs. rarified number of ASVs, and (b) rarefaction curves for the aquatic samples studied.



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