

1 **Functional changes of protist communities in soil after glacier retreat**

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21

22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Soil hosts key components of terrestrial biodiversity and provides essential services to the below- and
24 above-ground ecosystems. The worldwide retreat of glaciers is exposing new deglaciated terrains, offering
25 a unique opportunity to understand the development of soil ecosystems under a changing climate. Many
26 studies have investigated how biotic communities change after deglaciation but protists have often been
27 overlooked, despite their key role in multiple ecosystem functions. Here, we aim to understand how protist
28 communities develop along glacier forelands, describing their successional trajectories. Protist
29 communities were characterized in 1251 soil samples collected from 46 glacier forelands across four
30 continents at different altitudes and latitudes. We used environmental DNA metabarcoding to identify
31 Molecular Operational Taxonomic Units (MOTUs) of protists based on a universal eukaryotic marker. The
32 detected MOTUs were combined with information on multiple functional traits to assess how the functional
33 diversity and composition of protist communities vary through time during colonization. Immediately after
34 glacier retreat, protist communities are very similar to the ones of polar and high-altitude habitats, with
35 consumers being the dominant trophic group, followed by a relevant presence of phototrophs, while
36 parasites were underrepresented. Over the succession, we detected a community shift with an increase of
37 taxonomic and functional diversity, but some highly specialized groups (e.g. phototrophic algae) declined.
38 The use of a trait-based approach allowed us to identify distinct successional patterns depending on
39 functional groups. Through the functional characterization of a crucial but understudied component of soil
40 biotic communities, our study added one of the final pieces needed to predict how soil ecosystems will
41 develop in the rapidly changing environment of glacier forelands.

42

43 **Keywords:** soil protists, functional diversity, spatiotemporal gradient, ecological succession, glacier forelands

44 1 INTRODUCTION

45 The global retreat of glaciers is rapidly transforming high altitude and high latitude ecosystems
46 through changes in the local geomorphology, the soil, and the biological communities (Cauvy-
47 Fraunié and Dangles, 2019; Ficetola et al., 2021; Pothula and Adams, 2022). More than a century
48 of research has provided insights into how organic matter and soil nutrients build-up during soil
49 formation, alongside the patterns of biodiversity changes over time following glacier retreat.
50 (Cauvy-Fraunié and Dangles, 2019; Ficetola et al., 2021; Khedim et al., 2021; Pothula and Adams,
51 2022). It is now well established that ecosystem formation along glacier forelands involves an
52 increase of taxonomic and functional richness from recently deglaciated terrains to late-
53 successional stages, driven by higher availability of resources and more favorable environmental
54 conditions (Ficetola et al., 2024; Pothula and Adams, 2022).

55 Protists are a vast group comprising all the eukaryotes that do not belong to animals, plants
56 and fungi (Burki et al., 2021). This heterogeneous group mostly includes a vast diversity of
57 unicellular eukaryotes that have a broad variation of functional features and provide essential
58 services for the functioning of belowground ecosystems (Gao et al., 2019; Geisen et al., 2020,
59 2018). For instance, protists can act as primary producers, regulators of microbial populations,
60 pests or mutualists of plants and animals, and decomposers of organic matter (Bonkowski, 2004;
61 Geisen et al., 2018, 2016). Along glacier forelands, protists are among the first colonizers, serving
62 as pioneer primary producers before the appearance of plants, and triggering soil formation
63 through releasing nutrients fundamental for plant growth (Boetius et al., 2015; Hågvar et al., 2020;
64 Rosero et al., 2021). Thus, characterizing the diversity and composition of protist communities
65 along glacier forelands is pivotal to understand the functional development of ecosystems
66 emerging after deglaciation.

67 Despite efforts to capture the trajectories of several taxonomic groups after glacier retreat
68 (Carteron et al., 2024; Cauvy-Fraunié and Dangles, 2019; Ficetola et al., 2021; Pothula and Adams,
69 2022), protist communities are seldom included in glacier foreland studies, with assessments of
70 their biodiversity patterns mostly limited to local or regional analyses (Lazzaro et al., 2015; Smith,
71 1996; Tikhonenkov, 2013). Such scarcity of studies is associated to the absence of a global
72 characterization of the diversity of protist communities in glacier forelands (Oliverio et al., 2020),
73 as well as to the lack of knowledge on their patterns of community assembly over succession
74 (Pothula & Adams 2022). A recent analysis assessed the overall development of biotic
75 communities after glacier retreat across multiple continents, and showed that the taxonomic
76 diversity of protist communities increases over the succession of glacier forelands, as it happens
77 to other components of soil communities(Ficetola et al., 2024). Nonetheless, that study overlooked
78 functional diversity, which is a key component of biodiversity, and did not consider potential
79 differences between the diverse functional groups of protists.

80 The development of biotic communities along the succession of glacier forelands involves
81 changes of multiple facets of biodiversity (Ficetola et al., 2021). To shed light on such complex
82 dynamics, analyses of taxonomic diversity must be complemented with a functional approach
83 accounting for the variety of traits exhibited by the species. Traits can describe multiple features
84 of the species such as morphology, ecology, behavior or physiology, making the connection
85 between biodiversity and ecological processes more explicit (Cardinale et al., 2012; Naeem et al.,
86 2012). For protists, the use of a multi-trait approach is critical, as protist communities encompass
87 a wide range of evolutionary lineages belonging to distinct trophic groups that respond differently
88 to environmental gradients and contribute differently to ecosystem functioning (Geisen et al.,
89 2023; Giachello et al., 2023). For instance, the trophic composition of protist communities can

90 show complex responses to latitudinal and elevational gradients (Mazel et al., 2021; Oliverio et
91 al., 2020). Along glacier forelands, phototrophic protists are thought to be among the first
92 colonizers acting as pioneer primary producers and facilitating the establishment of other species,
93 and then their diversity has been suggested to decline with increasing distance from the glacier
94 front (Hågvar et al., 2020; Rosero et al., 2021). By contrast, testate amoebae showed an opposite
95 pattern of increasing diversity over time since deglaciation along an arctic glacier foreland
96 (Hodkinson et al., 2004). Nevertheless, broad-scale analyses of the variation of protists
97 communities after the retreat of glaciers are so far lacking. A joint assessment of the variation of
98 both taxonomic and functional diversity of these organisms is critical to determine how these
99 communities change in the highly dynamic ecosystems that are developing after the retreat of
100 glaciers.

101 Here, we used a broad-scale dataset based on environmental DNA (eDNA) extracted from
102 1251 soil samples along 46 glacier forelands combined with a multi-trait functional approach to
103 characterize protist communities of glacier forelands and test three main hypotheses.

104 First, we assessed the changes on taxonomic and functional richness of protist communities
105 over the successional stages of glacier forelands, representing growing values of time since glacier
106 retreat and characterized by different microclimate (temperature). We expect functional richness
107 to exhibit the same pattern of taxonomic diversity, i. e., increase in diversity over time since glacier
108 retreat (hypothesis 1), paralleling trends observed for other organisms along glacier forelands
109 (Guerrieri et al., 2024). Testing hypothesis 1 will clarify if the increase in taxonomic diversity
110 arises from the addition of functionally diverse taxa or from the inclusion of functionally redundant
111 ones (Brown and Milner, 2012). Second, we compared the functional trajectories of different
112 functional categories (e.g., bacterivores, omnivores, phototrophs...) and of the overall protist

113 community. Given the high functional variety expressed by protists, we expect that different
114 functional categories would follow divergent successional trajectories after glacier retreat
115 (hypothesis 2). Third, we hypothesize that the overall functional composition of protist
116 communities will shift over time (hypothesis 3), as the predominance of traits will vary with the
117 changes in environmental conditions.

118

119 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

120 2.1 *Study area and sampling design*

121 Our study took advantage of a unique dataset, using environmental DNA metabarcoding to analyze
122 >1200 soil samples on 46 glacier forelands across four continents spanning from boreal to tropical
123 climate (from -48°S to 79°N: Figure 1). This dataset assessed the overall development of terrestrial
124 ecosystems after glacier retreat (Ficetola et al., 2024), but did not perform detailed analyses of the
125 diversity of protists, nor considered key components of biodiversity such as functional diversity
126 and functional composition. Each glacier foreland constitutes a chronosequence delineated by the
127 evolving positions of the glacier over time. Along each chronosequence, we identified multiple
128 dated sites (from three to ten), spanning from 1 to 483 years after glacier retreat (Marta et al.,
129 2021), with a general habitat shift from bare ground to fully vegetated ecosystems (Cantera et al.,
130 2024). The dated sites were selected to avoid areas affected by geomorphological disturbances,
131 such as river erosion or surface instability, which can heavily alter the development of biotic
132 communities (Wojcik et al., 2021). Within each dated site, we sampled multiple plots (average: 5
133 plots per site; range: 2-7) of 1 m² each. Overall, we obtained soil samples from 1251 plots within
134 265 different dated sites and extracted environmental DNA from them (see Cantera et al., 2024;
135 Ficetola et al., 2024; Guerrieri et al., 2024 for additional details on sampling sites and strategies).

136

137 2.2 *MOTUs and taxonomic assignment*

138 Molecular Operational Taxonomic Units (MOTUs) of soil protists were derived from the
139 amplification of the eukaryotic marker Euka02 (Guardiola et al., 2015; Taberlet et al., 2018), which
140 amplifies a ~123 bp fragment of the V7 region of the 18S rDNA gene. DNA amplifications were
141 performed in 4 PCR replicates. For details on sample collection, DNA extraction, amplification,
142 sequencing and bioinformatic analyses see Guerrieri et al. (2024) and Ficetola et al. (2024). We
143 obtained MOTUs through the clustering of similar sequences with a threshold set to 97% of
144 similarity (Bonin et al., 2023). Taxonomy was assigned through the NCBI Taxonomy database
145 (Schoch et al., 2020) and soil protist MOTUs were selected as all the MOTUs not belonging to
146 animals, plants, and fungi (Giachello et al., 2023). The taxonomic level of identification of MOTUs
147 was heterogeneous, with some MOTUs identified at fine taxonomic resolution (e.g., *Vorticella*
148 *sphaeroidalis* or *Euglypha rotunda*), while others identified at coarser resolution (e.g., Ciliophora
149 or Cercozoa). Specifically, 52% of MOTUs were identified at the genus or species level, 21% at
150 the family level, and 9% at the order level, with the remaining 18% identified at very coarse levels
151 (class level or phylum; see Table S1 for more details).

152

153 2.3 *Environmental features*

154 For each plot, we considered two key environmental features: time since glacier retreat and
155 mean soil temperature during the growing season, to control for the effect of micro-climatic
156 conditions. Plots within the same dated site are characterized by the same value of time since
157 glacier retreat but show distinct values of soil temperature.

158 We used time since glacier retreat (years) as it is a key driver of the richness and
159 composition of biotic communities, and influences the overall development of ecosystems in
160 proglacial environments (Ficetola et al., 2024). Values of time since glacier retreat were retrieved
161 from an available dataset, which gathers information from historical records, including maps, field
162 data, and remote imaging (Marta et al., 2021).

163 Soil temperature has important effects on ecosystem dynamics of deglaciated terrains, as
164 warm conditions can accelerate soil development and the colonization by some organisms
165 (Guerrieri et al., 2024; Khedim et al., 2021). The average soil temperature of each plot during the
166 growing season was reconstructed using a global microclimatic model focusing on glacier
167 forelands (Marta et al., 2023). The model accounts for topography (aspect, slope) and macro-
168 climatic conditions and was calibrated using data loggers located near the ground to obtain high
169 resolution estimates of soil temperature. The mean soil temperature during the growing season was
170 calculated as the average temperature of months with >20% days without snow on the ground over
171 the 2015-2019 period. See Marta et al. (2023) for further details and validation of soil temperature.
172 Across the whole dataset, the correlation between soil temperature and time since glacier retreat
173 across all the glacier forelands was moderate (Pearson's $r = 0.22$).

174

175 2.4 *Functional characterization of protist communities*

176 We used ten traits to obtain a functional characterization of each protist MOTU. Specifically, we
177 considered two categorical traits describing nutrition (trophic level; feeding mode), two categorical
178 and one continuous traits describing morphology (shell presence; locomotion structures, length),
179 two categorical traits describing behavior (lifestyle; life form), two categorical traits describing
180 life-history (sporulation; ability to produce a resting cyst), and one categorical trait describing

181 habitat preferences. Each categorical trait (e.g., lifestyle) is composed by multiple “functional
182 categories” (e.g., endoparasite, freeliving, sessile) representing the states that the trait can assume
183 (Giachello et al., 2023). Following the Giachello et al. (2023) framework, we were able to assign
184 functional traits to all the MOTUs identified as protists, using the finest taxonomic level available
185 for the MOTU (ranging from species to phylum). MOTUs that could not be characterized by a
186 unique functional category due to low taxonomic resolution (e.g., MOTUs identified as
187 Ciliophora), were described using two or more functional categories (e.g., for Ciliophora, lifestyle:
188 free living or sessile). Categorical traits were then transformed to fuzzy-coded dummy variables
189 in order that each categorical trait was decomposed in multiple variables representing the related
190 functional categories (de Bello et al., 2021; Table S1). For instance, for the trait lifestyle, if a
191 MOTU was classified as “free living or sessile” a value of 0.5 was assigned to the dummy variables
192 “free living” and “sessile”, while a 0 was put for the remaining categories of the trait lifestyle (i.e.,
193 “endoparasite”). See Giachello et al. (2023) for further details on the framework, traits and original
194 sources.

195 Finally, to derive functional diversity measures, we defined unique “functional entities” by
196 grouping the MOTUs sharing the same combination of traits (Mouillot et al., 2014; Table S1).

197

198 2.5 Taxonomic and functional diversity

199 We applied Hill numbers to calculate the taxonomic and functional alpha diversity for each plot
200 (i.e., community), using, respectively, the number of reads per MOTU and the number of reads
201 per functional entity (i.e., the sum of number of reads of all the MOTUs belonging to the same
202 functional entity; Table S2). To do so, we used the R function *hill_taxa* from the R package *hillR*
203 with values of q parameter equal to 1, indicating a measure of abundance equal to the exponential

204 Shannon entropy (Chao et al., 2014; Mächler et al., 2021; Table S2). This is recommended to
205 increase the robustness of biodiversity data obtained through DNA metabarcoding (Calderón-
206 Sanou et al., 2019; Mächler et al., 2021).

207

208 2.6 *Functional composition of communities*

209 To characterize the functional composition of protist communities we used the log-transformed
210 number of reads per functional entity as an estimate of the relative abundance of each functional
211 entity in each plot (Mazel et al., 2021). Each plot was assigned a value for each functional category
212 for the 10 considered traits, estimated as the sum of the values expressed by all the functional
213 entities within the plot, multiplied by their relative abundances (Giachello et al., 2023; Mazel et
214 al., 2021; Table S2).

215 To evaluate the variation in functional composition of protist communities with a multi-trait
216 approach, we first calculated the distances among functional entities using the function ‘daisy’ of
217 the R package *cluster* (Maechler et al., 2022) applying the Gower’s distance (Gower, 1971). To
218 ensure that each categorical trait composed by N trait categories (dummy variables) had an equal
219 contribution to estimate the distance between functional entities, we weighted each trait category
220 following the *gawdis* approach (de Bello et al., 2021; Giachello et al., 2023). Then, we ran a
221 principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) on the matrix of the trait-distances among functional entities
222 (‘pcoa’ function from the *ape* R package; Paradis & Schliep 2019). The first and second PCoA
223 axes were used to build bidimensional functional spaces representing the functional composition
224 of protist communities. This allowed building a global functional space representing all the taxa
225 detected in the 1251 sampled communities (i.e., plots). The position of each functional category
226 in the functional space was estimated as the mean of the PCoA coordinates of all the functional

227 entities exhibiting that functional category. Subsequently, we built three functional spaces
228 representing early, mid, and late successional communities. In these functional spaces, we plotted
229 the functional entities found respectively in plots with i) age since deglaciation < 30 years (i.e.,
230 early communities), ii) age of 30-100 years (mid communities) and iii) age > 100 years (late
231 communities).

232 To test if the functional composition of the communities changed over time and with
233 microclimate, we estimated three measures summarizing the position of the communities in the
234 functional spaces: Score along PCoA.1, Score along PCoA.2 and functional specialization. The
235 three measures were estimated only for the plots hosting at least three functional entities (i.e., 625
236 plots) using the R function ‘multidimFD’ from the package *mFD* (Magneville et al., 2022). The
237 scores along PCoA.1 and PCoA.2 indicate the position of a given community along the first and
238 second axes of the functional space, calculated as the mean of the PCoA coordinates of all the
239 functional entities in the community. Their joint analysis represents the general patterns of
240 dominant traits supported by the taxa co-occurring in a community. Functional specialization
241 represents the mean distance between the functional entities co-occurring in a given community
242 and the average position of all the taxa (i.e. the barycenter) in the bidimensional functional space
243 defined by the PCoA axis 1 and PCoA axis 2. This index measures the extent of functionally
244 unique taxa present in a community relative to the regional pool of taxa. Functional specialization
245 decreases when a community is dominated by generalist taxa (close to the center of the functional
246 space) and increases when a community is dominated by specialist taxa (species with extreme trait
247 combinations).

248

249 2.7 *Drivers of community changes*

250 We used Bayesian generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) to test the effects of time
251 since glacier retreat and soil temperature (independent variables) on i) the taxonomic and
252 functional alpha diversity of protist communities, ii) the relative abundance of functional
253 categories within each plot, iii) the functional composition of protist communities. For the diversity
254 of protist communities, we built two distinct univariate GLMMs, respectively including the
255 taxonomic alpha diversity and functional alpha diversity as dependent variables. Mean soil
256 temperature and time since glacier retreat were the independent variables. Time was log-
257 transformed to reduce skewness and all the independent variables were scaled (mean = 0, SD = 1)
258 to improve convergence and for a better comparison of their estimated effects. To account for
259 spatial non-independence of plots within a site, and of sites within the foreland, we included a
260 nested random effect in the formula of the model, considering the identity of the glacier foreland,
261 as well as the identity of the dated site (nested within the glacier foreland, see paragraph 2.1 for
262 the sampling design). In these models, we did not detect collinearity between temperature and time
263 since glacier retreat (fvariance inflation factor = 1.2; Dormann et al., 2013). Topography is a
264 relevant driver of succession along glacier forelands, for instance because plots in specific
265 positions might be more disturbed by geomorphological disturbance (Wojcik et al., 2021), thus we
266 repeated the three GLMMs adding the Topographic Position Index (TPI) as an additional
267 independent variables (Weiss, 2001). We used TPI to discriminate plots based on their position:
268 on ridges (positive values), in valleys (negative values) or in flat areas (values close to 0).
269 Nonetheless, adding the TPI to the models (Table S3) did not change the overall results of any of
270 the models and confirmed the robustness of models including time since glacier retreat and soil
271 temperature (Table 1).

272 For the relative abundance of functional categories, we built one multivariate GLMM
273 including the abundances of all the functional categories as dependent variables assuming a beta
274 distribution. For functional composition, we built a multivariate GLMM including functional
275 specialization and the scores along PCoA axis 1 and PCoA axis 2 as dependent variables.
276 Multivariate GLMMs had the same independent variables and random effects of the univariate
277 GLMMs. All GLMMs were performed with the R package *brms*, running 3 chains for 10.000
278 iterations with a 500-iteration burn-in and a thinning rate of 10. These settings ensured the
279 convergence of all the models for each parameter ($R\text{-hat} < 1.01$).

280

281 3 RESULTS

282 3.1 *Characterization of protist communities from glacier forelands*

283 The clustering of the sequences from the Euka02 marker led to the identification of 567 MOTUs
284 of protists out of a total of 2008 MOTUs of eukaryotes obtained (Table S1). The average number
285 of protist MOTUs detected per-plot was 7.3 (range: 0-126; at least one MOTU detected in 76% of
286 plots). The five most represented clades, in terms of number of MOTUs, included: the
287 heterotrophic phyla of Cercozoa (34.0%) and Ciliophora (33.3%), the parasitic and consumer clade
288 of Endomyxa (4.0%), the phototrophic algae Bacillariophyta (3.7%) and the golden algae
289 Chrysophyceae (2.8%; Figure 2). Regarding functional diversity, we found 236 distinct functional
290 entities in total, with an average of 6.4 functional entities per-plot (range: 0-80). Consumers
291 dominated the protist communities along glacier forelands (84.0% of MOTUs), followed by
292 phototrophs (8.6% of MOTUs) and parasites (7.4% of MOTUs; Figure S1). Among consumers,
293 omnivores represented the most abundant feeding mode followed by bacterivores and eukaryvores.
294 The functional composition of protist communities along glacier forelands was further

295 characterized by the prevalence of solitary, free-living ciliates and flagellates, without shell.
296 Among the detected MOTUs, 40% were known to form resting cysts, and 15% were known to
297 produce spores. Protist body length ranged widely from the 2.5 μm of *Siluania monomastiga* to
298 the >6 cm of the multicellular golden alga *Hydrurus foetidus* (Table S1).

299

300 3.2 *Trajectories of taxonomic and functional diversity*

301 Taxonomic alpha diversity significantly increased over time since glacier retreat but showed no
302 correlation with temperature (Table 1a) indicating maximum taxonomic diversity in late
303 communities independently of the microclimate. The same relationship was detected for functional
304 diversity, which also increased over the succession (Table 1b).

305

306 3.3 *Differences in functional compositions along the ecological succession*

307 The representation of protist communities within the functional space indicated that the average
308 functional composition remains rather stable over succession, as most functional entities were
309 present in all the successional stages (Figure 3). Nevertheless, a few functional entities were
310 frequent in early successional communities, but not in late communities (entities in the upper
311 central part of the functional space; Figure 3). These entities mostly correspond to large
312 phototrophic algae typically living in freshwater environments, such as the multicellular red algae
313 *Kumanoa* sp.

314 The multivariate GLMM assessing the variation of the relative abundance of functional
315 categories supported this pattern (Table 2). Through time, we found a significant decrease of the
316 frequency of organisms with traits indicating phototrophy, multicellularity, large body size, the
317 absence of locomotion structures, a colonial lifestyle, the capability of producing spores and the

318 preference for freshwater environments (Table 2; Figure 4). Conversely, we detected an increase
319 of omnivores, ciliate protists and organisms able to exploit both terrestrial and freshwater
320 environments (i.e. the ubiquitous ones) (Table 2, Figure 4). None of the functional categories was
321 clearly affected by variation of soil temperature (Table 2).

322 The GLMM analyzing the functional composition of communities (PCoA axes and
323 specialization) summarized the patterns revealed by the variation of functional categories (Table
324 1c). The PCoA axis 2 (Figure 3) was negatively related to time since glacier retreat (Table 1c),
325 indicating the loss of multicellular, large, sessile organisms through time, and the increase of
326 omnivorous and ubiquitous protists in late communities (Table 2). Furthermore, functional
327 specialization showed a clear decrease through time (Table 1c). Such decrease of functional
328 specialization was related to the loss of unique functional entities (such as the large algae at the
329 extremes of the functional space) in the late protist communities (Table 1c; Figure 3). After
330 accounting for the effect of time, functional specialization was particularly high in plots
331 characterized by warmer temperatures (Table 1c).

332

333 4 DISCUSSION

334 Through an eDNA sampling of 46 glacier forelands across four continents, we were able to
335 characterize the composition and the development of protist communities in the soil ecosystems
336 emerging after glacier retreat. Protist communities inhabiting glacier forelands comprise several
337 taxonomic groups exhibiting a high functional diversity since the earliest stages of the succession,
338 with the dominance of consumers. The alpha diversity of protist communities increased along the
339 succession mostly due to the addition of omnivore taxa, but the loss of phototrophs in the mid and
340 late successional stages caused a clear functional shift and a decrease in functional specialization.

341

342 *4.1 Characterization of protist communities from glacier forelands*

343 The taxonomic composition of the analyzed soils showed that, even in the extreme environments
344 of glacier forelands, Cercozoa and Ciliophora remain the two most abundant phyla of soil protists,
345 consistently with what we know for most of terrestrial ecosystems (Bates et al., 2013; Oliverio et
346 al., 2020; Singer et al., 2021). On the other hand, the diverse parasitic phylum Apicomplexa
347 showed lower representation compared to other habitats (Oliverio et al., 2020; Singer et al., 2021;
348 Wu et al., 2022). Such underrepresentation of Apicomplexa can be due the low density of potential
349 hosts such as animals and plants in these harsh environments (i.e., limited biotic interactions) that
350 generally limits the occurrence of parasitic protists, or to the adverse climatic conditions
351 characterizing glacier forelands (i.e., habitat filtering), since these protists exhibit maximum
352 diversity in warm and humid tropical climates (Bates et al., 2013; Mahé et al., 2017).

353 The multi-trait approach allowed us to infer the functional composition of protists
354 communities from glacier forelands at different stages of the succession. Overall, consumers were
355 the most abundant trophic group (Fig. S1), consistently with what has been found in other biomes
356 (Oliverio et al. 2020). The presence of eDNA of multicellular freshwater algae in the forelands

357 (e.g., Chrysophyta: *Hydrurus foetidus* and Rhodophyta: *Kumanoa* sp.) may be linked to the large
358 availability of glacier meltwater (Klaveness, 2017). Consistently with this hypothesis, we detected
359 only a few MOTUs belonging to strictly terrestrial taxa (<10%) while communities were
360 dominated by ubiquitous protists that can exploit both terrestrial and freshwater habitats. The
361 availability of glacier meltwater could also explain the scarcity of MOTUs exhibiting a shell or a
362 resting cyst, which can represent defensive structures against dry conditions (Geisen et al., 2018).

363

364 4.2 Trajectories of taxonomic and functional diversity

365 The clear increase in functional diversity of protist communities over time since glacier retreat
366 (Table 1) paralleled the overall growth of taxonomic diversity (Ficetola et al., 2024) (hypothesis 1
367 confirmed). Soil temperature did not show clear effects on either taxonomic or functional diversity.
368 This pattern differed from the one observed for other soil organisms (Guerrieri et al., 2024), and
369 from global analyses which detected a higher protist diversity in warm environments (Oliverio et
370 al., 2020). The lack of relationship between protist diversity and temperature in our dataset can be
371 related to multiple factors. First, our models focused on variation within forelands, and variation
372 of microclimate within forelands was generally weak. For instance, the range of variation of soil
373 temperature between plots within the same foreland was, on average, 2.3 C° (max = 6.0, min =
374 0.5, SD = 1.3 C°). Furthermore, within a given foreland, there is some covariation between soil
375 temperature and time after glacier retreat, with recently deglaciated areas being colder due to their
376 proximity to the glacier front at higher altitudes (Marta et al., 2023). Both limited variation within
377 foreland, and covariation between temperature and time, can reduce the power of analyses
378 assessing the role of temperature. Nevertheless, the effect of time since deglaciation was much
379 stronger than that of microclimate, suggesting that processes such as dispersal limitation may be

380 more relevant than habitat filtering (Carteron et al., 2024; Singer et al., 2019). For instance, the
381 microbial communities found in the earliest stages of the proglacial succession are similar to the
382 microbial supraglacial communities which can represent substantial sources for the colonization
383 of the recently deglaciated terrains (Buda et al., 2020; Cauvy-Fraunié and Dangles, 2019; Hotaling
384 et al., 2017). However, the dispersal mechanisms underlining colonization dynamics of protists in
385 these environments are still largely unknown.

386

387 *4.3 Phototrophic protists decrease with time since glacier retreat*

388 Despite the overall taxonomic and functional diversity of protist communities increased over
389 time since glacier retreat, patterns varied among trophic groups (Figure 4; hypothesis 2 confirmed).
390 Such results highlight the complexity of protist communities, which include organisms with
391 enormous functional variation, stressing the importance of multifaceted assessments of their
392 biodiversity (Geisen et al., 2023; Giachello et al., 2023), as key mechanisms can remain undetected
393 by coarse-scale analyses. Analyses pooling all the protists together suggested a growth of their
394 taxonomic diversity (Table 1; Ficetola et al., 2024), but key components of communities, such as
395 phototrophic protists, actually showed the opposite patterns (Fig. 4). Early communities hosted a
396 high proportion of phototrophic protists, with a frequency analogous to that observed in other harsh
397 environments, such as polar grasslands or high-altitude environments (Mazel et al., 2021; Oliverio
398 et al., 2020). The frequency of phototrophic taxa quickly decreased over succession, with mid and
399 late communities exhibiting a trophic composition analogous to that found in temperate forests
400 (Mazel et al., 2021; Oliverio et al., 2020). The abundance of phototrophic protists in the earliest
401 stages of the succession confirms that eukaryotic algae, along with cyanobacteria, are important
402 pioneer species, playing a key role as primary producers in the cold and resource-poor

403 environments emerging at the front of retreating glaciers (Anesio et al., 2009; Bradley et al., 2014;
404 Frey et al., 2013). The detected decrease of phototrophic protists over time since glacier retreat
405 mimics the decrease observed for cyanobacteria (Kwon et al., 2015) and is aligned with the
406 trajectories found in studies on single glacier foreland (Rosero et al., 2021), confirming this pattern
407 at the global scale.

408

409 *4.4 Functional composition of protist communities along glacier forelands*

410 The overall functional composition of protist communities remained quite stable along the
411 succession of glacier forelands, as most of the traits showed up soon after glacier retreat and were
412 maintained till the latest stages (Figure 3; hypothesis 3 rejected). This suggests that soil protist
413 communities are characterized by a high functional diversity soon after the retreat of glaciers, with
414 moderate changes in the following years, and that the increase in alpha diversity often occurs
415 through the addition of functionally redundant taxa. Along with algae, early colonizers include
416 phagotrophic protists (i.e., consumers) that are capable to survive even in extremely cold
417 environments (Bamforth et al., 2005; Lazzaro et al., 2015; van Leeuwen et al., 2018). The presence
418 of a highly functionally diverse community already at the beginning of the succession may be
419 important for the development of more complex biotic communities through time, since protist
420 can accelerate nutrient cycling and the buildup of organic matter (Bonkowski, 2004; Connell and
421 Slatyer, 1977; Gao et al., 2019; Geisen et al., 2020).

422 The decrease of functional specialization over time indicates the replacement of specialized
423 groups such as phototrophs by more generalist organisms such as omnivores. Such loss of
424 phototrophs caused a shift in the functional structure of the community. While phototrophic
425 protists represent an important source of primary productivity in the early stages of the succession,

426 it is likely that their role as primary producers is overtaken by plants as the communities develops
427 (Yoshitake et al., 2010). The implications of the shift in the actors involved in the primary
428 productivity are still poorly understood but may represent a turning point in the development of
429 the soil biota, with food webs switching from simplified algal-based systems to more structured
430 plant-based systems (van Leeuwen et al., 2018). The reconstruction of soil food webs of glacier
431 forelands is a promising avenue that would enhance our understanding of ecosystem formation
432 along ecological succession, clarifying the role played by micro-eukaryotes before, during, and
433 after the arrival of plants.

434

435 4.5 *Limitations*

436 Our study represents the first attempt to describe the functional composition of protist
437 communities along glacier forelands at an intercontinental scale, still it has some limitations. First,
438 the majority of samples belong to glaciers located in temperate regions, while subpolar and tropical
439 forelands only represent 22% and 9% of the samples, respectively. Such geographical bias is
440 related to the small number of tropical glaciers (Rounce et al., 2023) and to the accessibility issues
441 of subpolar regions (Martin et al., 2012). Future studies should provide a better coverage of these
442 areas, particularly in subpolar regions where the largest deglaciated areas will emerge in the next
443 decades (Bosson et al., 2023). Second, we used a single universal eukaryotic marker to target
444 protist sequences. Although using universal markers can provide a good overall representation of
445 protist communities, the use of a single marker limits the detection of important soil protist taxa,
446 such as Amoebozoa or Heterolobosea (Geisen et al., 2023). Future studies using a combination of
447 universal and specific markers can allow a better characterization of the whole communities,
448 eventually targeting taxa with specific functional roles (Burki et al., 2021; Ficaretola and Taberlet,

449 2023). Additionally, glacier forelands remain poorly explored environments and are likely to host
450 many species of protists for which there are no sequences deposited in the online databases
451 challenging accurate taxonomic identification and functional characterization. Accurate
452 biodiversity assessments are best achieved when eDNA data are coupled with sequencing of target
453 organisms to produce accurate reference databases (White et al., 2020). Further limitations are
454 related to the process of trait assignment. When traits are obtained from the literature, values can
455 derive from the observation of individuals collected from a different habitat, while in proglacial
456 environments the same species could show specific adaptations or phenotypic plasticity, such as
457 smaller size or a different feeding mode. Again, efforts to collect the traits of organisms observed
458 in a range of reference sites can be a key resource for a better functional characterization of protist
459 communities and can provide great benefits to broad scale metabarcoding analyses (Pereira et al.,
460 2023).

461

462 5 CONCLUSION

463 Our study provided the first broad-scale overview of protist communities developing in the
464 ecosystems emerging from glacier retreat, considering both functional and taxonomic diversity.
465 The multi-trait approach allowed us to distinguish the trajectories followed by diverse functional
466 groups, detecting distinct successional patterns depending on the trophic level. While we observed
467 a general increase in functional alpha diversity, this was mostly driven by a higher number of
468 omnivore taxa, and the functional specialization of protist communities decreased due to the loss
469 of phototrophic algae. The scarcity of studies on protists in the changing environments of glacier
470 forelands calls for additional field campaigns combining both traditional and eDNA samplings to
471 better understand the dynamics happening along these fast-developing ecosystems.

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483

484 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

485 SG, IC, AC and GFF conceived the ideas and designed methodology; SM, AG, AB, RA, MC, MG
486 and GFF collected and analyzed the environmental DNA metabarcoding data; SG, IC and GFF
487 analyzed the data; SG led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the
488 drafts and gave final approval for publication

489

490 DATA STATEMENT

491 Raw sequencing data is deposited in Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo. 6620359). The supplementary
492 tables and the R script used to run the analyses are available as external files named respectively;
493 “TableS1.xlsx”, “TableS2.xlsx”, “FunGroups_SP_script.R”.

494

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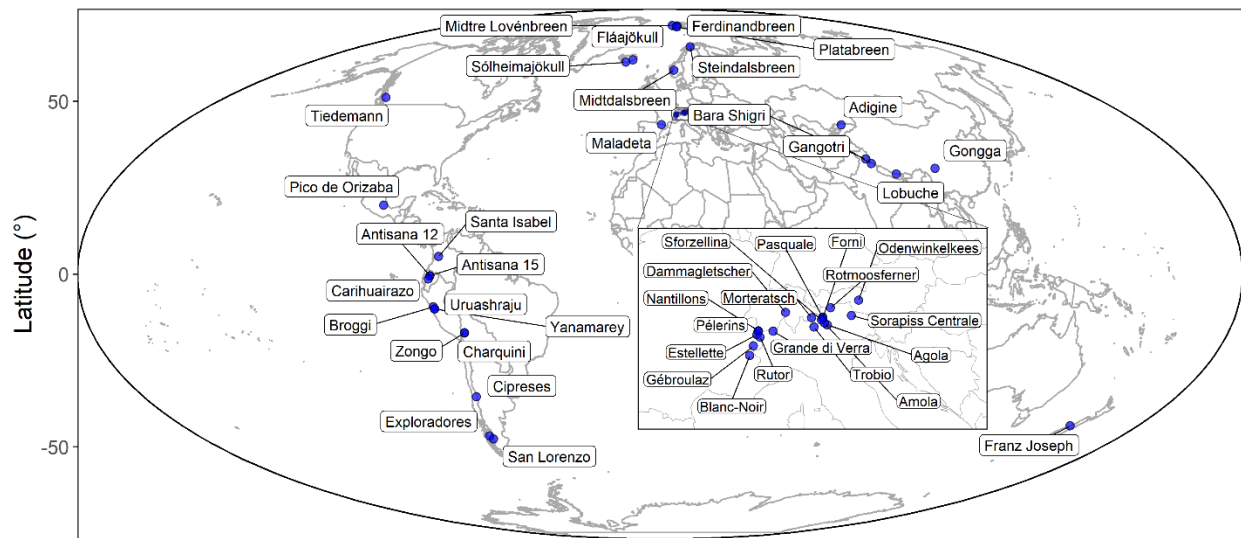
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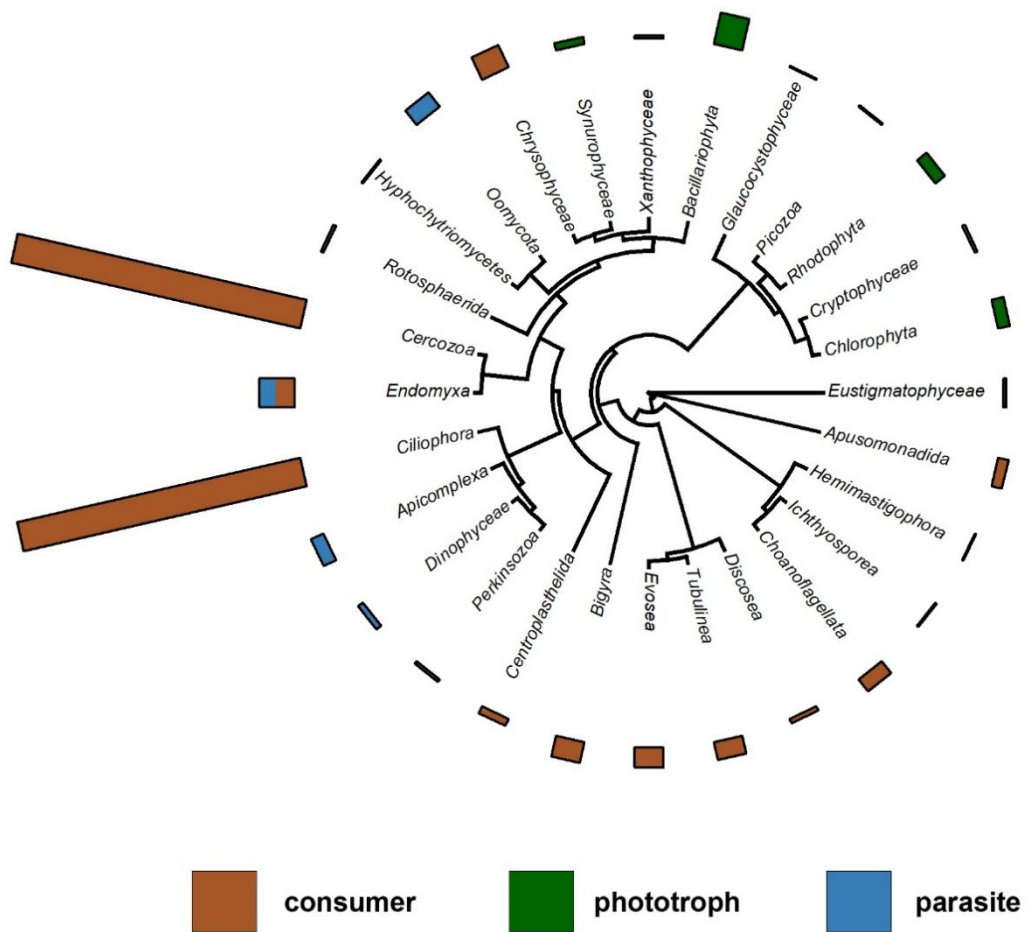
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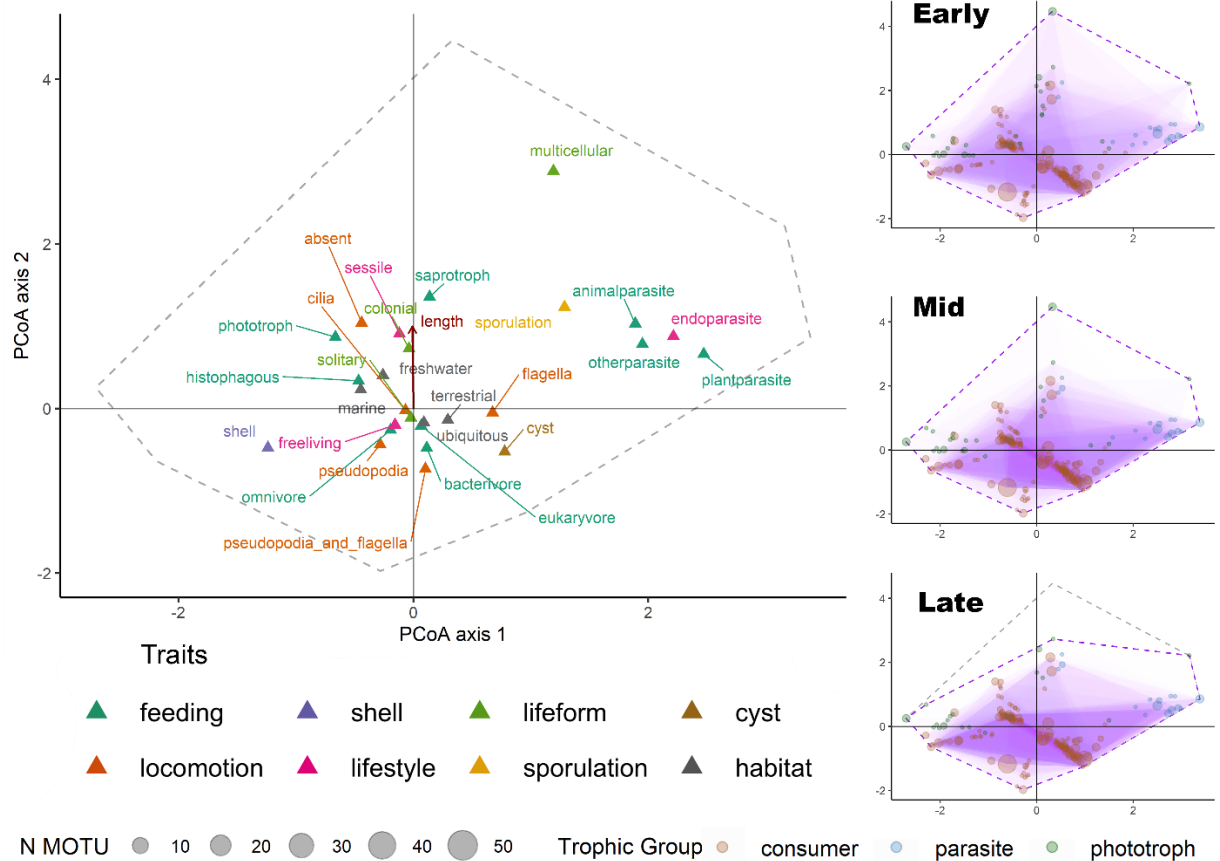
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752 **Figure 1.** Location of the 46 glacier forelands sampled. The inset shows the area of the European
 753 Alps expanded.

754

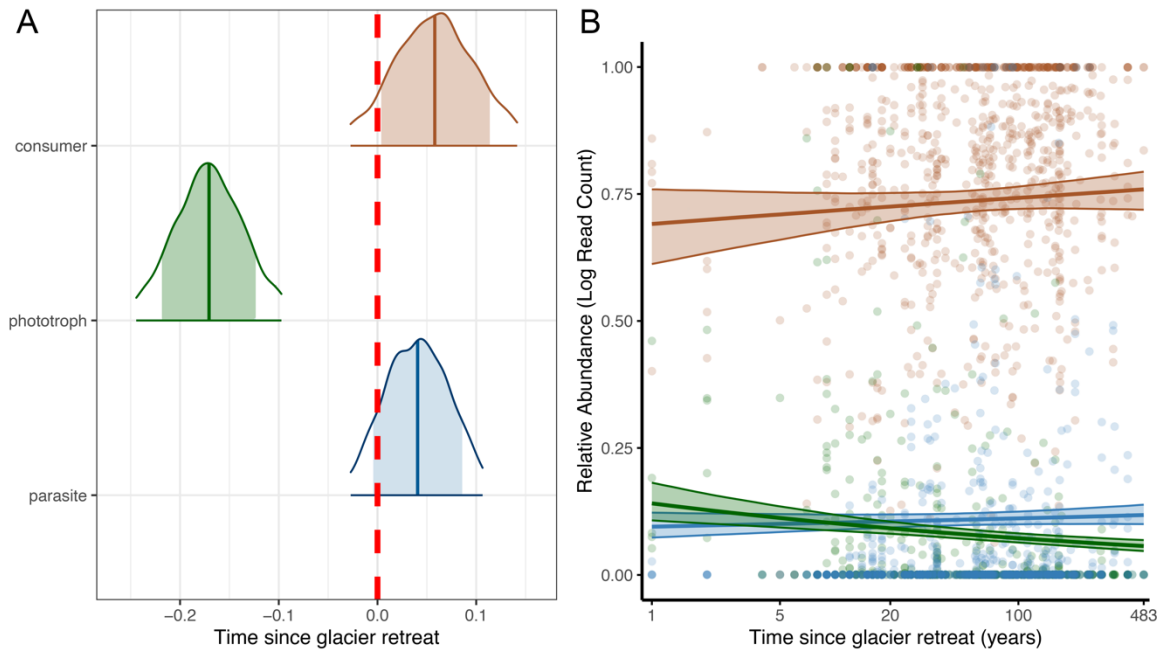


755
 756 **Figure 2.** Taxonomic and trophic composition of soil protist communities from 46 glacier
 757 forelands. Schematic phylogenetic tree representing the phyla/clades found in all the 1251 soil
 758 samples of our study. The height of the bars indicates the proportion of MOTUs within each
 759 phylum/clade, while the colors indicate the most representative trophic groups.



760

761 **Figure 3.** Functional space of protist communities at different stages of the ecological succession
 762 (early, mid, late). Left: functional space of all the protist communities sampled in 1251 plots.
 763 Triangles represent the centroid of each trait category estimated as the average coordinates of the
 764 functional entities sharing the trait category, while the color indicates the functional trait. Right:
 765 functional spaces for early (< 30 years), mid (30-100 years), and late (>100) communities. Circles
 766 represent functional entities; their size is proportional to the number of MOTUs within each
 767 functional entity and the color identify different trophic groups. Purple shadings represent the
 768 functional space of each community (i.e., plot). The dashed polygon lines represent the overall
 769 area occupied by the functional entities (i.e., functional richness), the grey polygon line represents
 770 the total functional richness across all stages, while the purple line represents the functional
 771 richness of each stage of the ecological succession.



772

773 **Figure 4.** Effect of time since glacier retreat on trophic groups of soil protists. A) Posterior
 774 distribution estimated with Bayesian Generalized Linear Mixed Models representing the effect of
 775 time since glacier retreat on the relative abundance of each trophic group. The curves indicate the
 776 95% credible interval, shaded areas the 80% credible interval, and the vertical line the mean -
 777 estimate. B) Trends of the relative abundance of each trophic group over time since glacier retreat
 778 in years. The line represents the estimated mean response and the shaded area the 95% credible
 779 interval. Colours represent trophic groups (brown: consumers; green: phototrophs; blue: parasites).

780

781 **Table 1.** Effect of time and mean soil temperature on the taxonomic alpha diversity (a), functional
782 alpha diversity (b) and functional composition (c) of soil protist communities. Mean estimate and
783 95% credible interval of the posterior distribution were estimated with Bayesian Generalized
784 Linear Mixed Models. The values in bold indicate credible intervals non overlapping zero. For
785 more information on the measures of functional composition see paragraph 2.6 *Functional*
786 *composition of communities*.
787

	Independent			
	Time		Mean Temperature	
	<i>B</i>	CI 95%	<i>B</i>	CI 95%
a) Univariate analysis. Dependent: taxonomic alpha diversity				
	0.19	0.11/0.26	-0.05	-0.18/0.07
b) Univariate analysis. Dependent: functional alpha diversity				
	0.18	0.11/0.25	-0.05	-0.17/0.07
c) Multivariate analysis. Dependent: functional composition (3 measures)				
specialization	-0.15	-0.20/-0.10	0.11	0.03/0.18
score of PCoA axis 1	0.01	-0.02/0.05	0.01	-0.03/0.05
score of PCoA axis 2	-0.09	-0.12/-0.06	0.02	-0.01/0.05

788
789

790 **Table 2.** Effect of time and mean soil temperature on the relative abundance of each trait category.
 791 Mean estimate and 95% credible interval of the posterior distribution estimated with a multivariate
 792 Bayesian Generalized Linear Mixed Model. The values in bold indicate 95% credible intervals
 793 non overlapping zero.

794

Trait	Category	Time		Mean Temperature	
		<i>B</i>	CI 95%	<i>B</i>	CI 95%
Trophic	consumer	0.06	-0.04/0.15	-0.03	-0.12/0.07
	phototroph	-0.18	-0.25/-0.11	-0.04	-0.12/0.03
	parasite	0.04	-0.03/0.10	0.06	-0.01/0.14
Feeding	animal parasite	0.00	-0.06/0.07	0.01	-0.06/0.08
	plant parasite	0.03	-0.03/0.10	0.06	-0.01/0.13
	bacterivore	0.03	-0.07/0.12	-0.09	-0.20/0.03
	eukaryvore	-0.02	-0.09/0.06	0.04	-0.03/0.12
Locomotion	omnivore	0.08	0.00/0.18	0.08	-0.02/0.18
	cilia	0.09	0.00/0.18	0.05	-0.06/0.17
	flagella	-0.01	-0.11/0.10	-0.07	-0.18/0.05
	pseudopodia	0.06	-0.02/0.15	0.07	-0.05/0.18
	pseudopodia and flagella	-0.01	-0.09/0.06	0.03	-0.05/0.11
Lifestyle	absent	-0.13	-0.21/-0.06	-0.05	-0.12/0.02
	free living	0.03	-0.06/0.12	-0.09	-0.19/0.00
	sessile	-0.14	-0.21/-0.06	-0.01	-0.08/0.07
	endoparasite	0.03	-0.04/0.10	0.05	-0.02/0.13
Lifeform	solitary	0.03	-0.06/0.11	-0.05	-0.14/0.05
	colonial	-0.05	-0.11/0.01	0.02	-0.05/0.10
	multicellular	-0.08	-0.15/-0.01	0.00	-0.06/0.07
Habitat	terrestrial	0.02	-0.05/0.09	0.04	-0.04/0.12
	freshwater	-0.15	-0.23/-0.07	-0.02	-0.11/0.08
	ubiquitous	0.14	0.04/0.23	-0.01	-0.11/0.09
Shell		0.01	-0.07/0.08	0.08	-0.02/0.18
Sporulation		-0.09	-0.17/-0.01	0.06	-0.02/0.14
Cyst		0.02	-0.09/0.13	0.01	-0.11/0.13
Length		-0.01	-0.03/0.02	0.00	-0.03/0.02

795

797

798 **Figure S1.** Bar plots showing the relative abundance for each phylum/clade of protists detected in
799 different successional stages (early < 30 years, 30 years < mid <100 years, late > 100 years). Clades
800 are divided and coloured based on trophic groups.

801 **Table S1.** Dataset of protist MOTUs and functional entities with three sheets related to taxonomy
802 (A), traits (B), number of reads per plot (i.e., community matrix; C). A) Taxonomic information
803 including the taxonomic id code assigned by NCBI (taxid), the best identity index, the sequence
804 and the taxonomic assignment (supergroup, phylum, class, order, family, genus, and species;
805 NCBI Taxonomy). B) Trait information including 10 functional traits reported as fuzzy-coded
806 dummy variable, so that columns represent the functional categories within each trait. C)
807 Community matrix reporting the number of reads per each plot. The table is included in an Excel
808 file submitted separately [TableS1.xlsx – External file].

809 **Table S2.** Dataset including the 1251 plots from all the 46 glacier forelands analyzed in the study.
810 For each plot, we reported the name of the glacier foreland, the name of the dated site, age (early,
811 mid, late), mean temperature, time since glacier retreat log-transformed, measures of taxonomic
812 and functional alpha diversity (Hill numbers q_1), score of PCoA.1, score of PCoA.2, functional
813 specialization and the average value of all the functional categories per the ten functional traits
814 weighted for the relative abundance of the functional entities expressing that functional category.
815 The table is included in an Excel file submitted separately [TableS2.xlsx – External file].

816 **Table S3.** Effect of time, mean soil temperature and Topographic Position Index (TPI) on the
817 taxonomic alpha diversity (a), functional alpha diversity (b) and functional composition (c) of soil
818 protist communities. Mean estimate and 95% credible interval of the posterior distribution were
819 estimated with Bayesian Generalized Linear Mixed Models. The values in bold indicate credible
820 intervals non overlapping zero.