# **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

# Islands of ice: Glacier-dwelling metazoans form regionally distinct populations despite extensive periods of deglaciation

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#### Abstract

**Aim:** Glaciers cover considerable portion of land and host diverse life forms from single-celled organisms to invertebrates. However, the determinants of diversity and community composition of these organisms remain underexplored. This study addresses the biogeography, population connectivity and dispersal of these organisms, especially critical in understanding during the rapid recession of glaciers and increased extinction risk for isolated populations. By reconstructing the Quaternary biogeographic history of *Fontourion glacialis*, a widespread in Northern Hemisphere glacier obligate species of Tardigrada, we aim to understand how populations of glaciers and to what extent remaining glaciers can serve as refugia.

Location: Glaciers across Svalbard, Scandinavia, Greenland and Iceland.

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**Methods:** We analysed mtDNA (COI gene) variability of 263 *F. glacialis* specimens collected across the distribution range. Phylogeographic and coalescent-based approaches were used to detect population differentiation patterns, investigate most likely models of gene flow and test the influences of geographical and climatic factors on the distribution of *F. glacialis* genetic variants.

**Results:** Our findings indicate that the distribution of *F. glacialis* genetic variants is primarily influenced by geographical rather than climatic factors. Populations exhibit a dispersal-limited distribution pattern, influenced by geographical distance and local barriers, even between neighbouring glaciers. Significantly, the genetic structure within Scandinavia suggests the existence of "southern" glacial or low-temperature refugia, where *F. glacialis* may have survived a period of extensive deglaciation during the Holocene climatic optimum (8–5 kyr ago).

**Main Conclusion:** The study uncovers complex metapopulation structures in *F. glacialis*, with impacts of local barriers, population bottlenecks as well as historical ice sheet fluctuations. It suggests that such populations can endure extended periods of deglaciation, highlighting the resilience of glacial refugia. The study highlights the necessity of understanding the diversity and population structure of ice-dwelling fauna in both spatial and temporal contexts.

#### KEYWORDS

cryoconite ecosystems, glacial ecology and biogeography, ice-fauna survival, impact of deglaciation, phylogeography, quaternary history, refugia identification, Tardigrada

#### 1 | INTRODUCTION

Spanning approximately 10% of the Earth's surface, glaciers significantly influence geomorphology, climate and productivity of ecosystems worldwide and have impacted biogeographical patterns and evolution by changing migration barriers and forming new habitats (Bosson et al., 2023; Ficetola et al., 2021; Hewitt, 2000; Weir & Schluter, 2004). However, glaciers themselves provide life-supporting services. They host diverse single-celled and microscopic multicellular organisms constituting flourishing, albeit relatively short, food webs (e.g., Anesio & Laybourn-Parry, 2012; Cook et al., 2016; Hodson et al., 2008; Zawierucha et al., 2015). Especially important is the dark sediment on glacier surfaces, known as cryoconite (Rozwalak et al., 2022), that reduces the albedo of ice and creates water-filled depressions called cryoconite holes (Figure 1). These constitute suitable habitats for primary producers, like algae and cyanobacteria, or chemolithotrophic bacteria (Poniecka et al., 2020), which sustain heterotrophic communities and consumers like tardigrades and rotifers (Cameron et al., 2012; Hodson et al., 2008; Lutz et al., 2015; Pittino et al., 2023; Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023).

Phylogenetic and ecophysiological evidence suggests that many glacial organisms are substantially diverged from relatives in other habitats, forming lineages adapted for harsh glacial conditions (Dastych et al., 2003; Dial et al., 2016; Remias & Procházková, 2023; Shain et al., 2016; Singh et al., 2014; Zawierucha et al., 2022; Zawierucha, Buda, Azzoni, et al., 2019). Glacier surfaces (supraglacial

zone) are now recognized as a distinct ecosystem, albeit typically fragmented into patchy cryospheric islands surrounded by terrestrial habitats. Yet, glaciers may also be extensive, like Greenland, and have dramatically fluctuated in size over history. Understanding the biogeography of organisms dwelling on terrestrial ice masses thus presents a fascinating yet understudied research field with the utmost relevance for forecasting the future evolution of this ecosystem during ongoing climate change (Liu et al., 2017; Segawa et al., 2017; Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023).

High dispersal potential is common for many microorganisms (de Wit & Bouvier, 2006; Fenchel & Finlay, 2004; Foissner, 2005; Fontaneto, 2019). Thus, different populations on fragmented glacier patches may be highly connected by gene flow, but the current distribution of glacier-dwelling organisms may also follow an island biogeography model, with populations isolated on ice "islands" separated by land or oceans. In addition, during the Quaternary, the size, connectivity and even existence of these "glacier islands" varied from ice ages (glaciations) when much of the northern hemisphere was covered by large ice sheets, to warmer periods (interglacials) when ice sheets shrank in size and many contemporary glaciers presumably vanished for extended periods of thousands of years (Irvalı et al., 2020; Nesje et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2017). Cryophilic organisms may also "migrate in time" by becoming conserved in ice layers, potentially reviving decades, or even millennia later (Shatilovich et al., 2023; Shmakova et al., 2021; Sieger et al., 2022; Tsujimoto et al., 2016). Combination of all these processes may

FIGURE 1 Glacial habitats. (a) View on the glacier Longyearbreen, Svalbard; (b) supraglacial zone of Longyearbreen, surface ice of weathering crust; (c) complex structure of cryoconite holes; (d) cryoconite hole with thin layer of cryoconite on the bottom.



create specific patterns in the distribution of genetic diversity of glacier-dwelling organisms, which remains poorly understood.

Available studies on bacteria and algae suggest that cryoconite holes on glaciers harbour regionally distinct communities (Darcy et al., 2018; Edwards et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017; Millar et al., 2021; Pittino et al., 2023; Segawa et al., 2017, 2018). Their distribution is potentially affected by dispersal limitations (Liu et al., 2017; Segawa et al., 2017), contributing to biogeographical clustering within individual glaciers and sometimes even among individual cryoconite holes (Darcy et al., 2018). Biogeography of glacier-dwelling metazoans have received even less attention, although microscopic invertebrates are common on glaciers and were first observed in the 19th century (Novotná Jaroměřská et al., 2021; Valle et al., 2021; Zawierucha et al., 2015; Zawierucha, Buda, Azzoni, et al., 2019). Several studies revealed divergent biogeographic patterns ranging from allopatric fragmentation to long-distance dispersals or even interpolar distribution (e.g., Dial et al., 2016; Hotaling et al., 2019; Shain et al., 2016; Zawierucha et al., 2022; Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023).

Tardigrades, microscopic invertebrates found across aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems worldwide, are among the few animal phyla that inhabit the supraglacial zone and are the apex consumers in cryoconite hole ecosystems (Nelson et al., 2015; Zawierucha et al., 2015, 2021). Tardigrade species diversity within cryoconite holes is relatively low; however, several new glacier-dwelling tardigrade species, belonging to the class Eutardigrada, have recently been described from diverse biogeographic regions, from the equator to high latitudes, presumable adapted to cryoconite hole environment (Zawierucha, Gąsiorek, et al. 2018; Zawierucha et al., 2020, 2022; Zawierucha, Stec, et al., 2018). Eutardigrades are gonochoristic, parthenogenetic and rarely hermaphroditic (Bertolani, 2001; Poprawa & Janelt, 2019). The biogeographic and demographic patterns of glacier-dwelling tardigrades can be intricate and may shed light on processes governing the glacial ecosystems in general. For instance, their local density can fluctuate dramatically from one day to another due to weathermediated events (Zawierucha, Buda, & Nawrot, 2019), but on the other hand, *Cryoconicus kaczmareki*, an Asian-Arctic species, has established locally enduring population on one small Svalbard glacier (Ebbabreen) that persisted for millennia in genetic isolation from its Asian core range (Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023). Similarly, nearby New Zealand glaciers host phylogenetically separate lines, suggesting that glacier fragmentation during the Pleistocene might have triggered tardigrade speciation (Zawierucha et al., 2022).

Fontourion glacialis (class Eutardigrada, family Hypsiibidae, subfamily Pilatobiinae; Figure 2) has been recently delineated from its tundra and moss-dwelling congeners, *F. islandicus* and *F. recamieri*, as a species distinctively adapted to glacial environments that dominates on Arctic glaciers (Zawierucha et al., 2020; Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023). While the biology of *F. glacialis* remains largely unexplored, subfamily Pilatobiinae is a sister clade to the subfamily Diphasconinae with asexual reproduction. Occupying exclusive limnic niches within cryoconite holes, *F. glacialis* shares its habitat with other limnic tardigrades that are mostly parthenogenetic, irrespective of their phylogenetic lineage, such as *Dactylobiotus* and *Hypsibius* (Nelson et al., 2015; Poprawa et al., 2015). Considering its phylogenetic proximity to asexually reproducing taxa, specialized aquatic environment and the extreme glacial conditions it endures, *F. glacialis* is likely able of parthenogenesis.

Due to its common occurrence, *F.glacialis* represents a suitable model for understanding processes shaping the spatiotemporal distribution of apex consumers of glacier ecosystems. Reconstructing

(a)

(b)

(C)

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its phylogeography across four biogeographic provinces (Svalbard, Iceland, Greenland and Scandinavia), we test whether its dispersal connectivity is sufficient to genetically homogenize populations among currently isolated ice patches or whether significant population structure exists. We further test whether detected structure is primarily driven by geography or climatic parameters, and we reconstruct its demographic history to investigate how populations of this species responded to historical climatic oscillations. In particular, extensive sampling along its southern range, that is, glaciers across Norway, allows us to understand how such a glacial specialist coped with warmer

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS 2

# 2.1 | Tardigrade collection and genotyping using mitochondrial COI gene

phases leading to the temporary disappearance of therein glaciers.

We sampled 33 glaciers throughout the Arctic and sub-Arctic, covering central-western, central-northern and northern Norway, Iceland, southwestern Greenland and the Svalbard archipelago (Figure 3, Table 1). Cryoconite material from the ablation zone and the surface ice of the weathering crust from accumulation zone (i.e., above the equilibrium line altitude - ELA) was collected from wide range of glaciers differing in their (i) morphology (e.g., tidewater, outlet or valley glaciers), (ii) thermal regime (i.e., temperate, polythermal or cold-based) and (iii) elevation (e.g., terminating in the sea or located

Techniques for specimen collection, identification, DNA extraction and amplification of Cytochrome-c oxidase subunit I gene fragment (hereafter: COI) are provided in Data S1. Obtained sequences were visually inspected in the BioEdit (Hall & Hall, 1999) for accuracy of base calls and stop codons and final alignment was performed using the ClustalW program with the default settings to

# **Climatic variables**

To obtain a quantitative description of the climatic differences between glaciers and to test their impact on observed distribution of genetic diversity, we obtained a broad set of climatic variables using the geographic coordinates of each glacier. We started from 19 unaltered bioclimatic variables in 30 arc seconds resolution, downloaded from WordClim v2.1 (Fick & Hijmans, 2017) using QGIS software (version 3.30.1). Then, we calculated the full set of ENVIREM variables (Title & Bemmels, 2018) using R v4.1.3 (R Core Team, 2023), with packages envirem v2.3 (Title & Bemmels, 2018), provided in

To minimize redundancy, we first checked for correlation between all pairs of ENVIREM variables using the R package PerformanceAnalytics v2.0.4 (Peterson & Carl, 2020) and used only a set of non-correlated variables to explain haplotype distribution. Using a threshold of Pearson's r=.70, a subset of seven variables (namely the number of months with mean temperature greater than 10°C, PET (potential evapotranspiration) of the wettest guarter, topographic wetness index and yearly averages of temperature, precipitation, solar radiation and wind speed) was retained for the following analyses (Figure S1).

#### 2.3 **Drivers of diversity**

The sampling success at different regions may bias our inference as more animals may tend to be sequenced in denser populations, potentially affecting the estimates of spatial partitioning of genetic diversity. Therefore, we evaluated whether environmental variables or geographic position could affect the numbers of sequenced individuals, which indeed may be linked to differences in both the local animal abundances and in sampling effort. The tested model included the total number of sequenced individuals (response variable) as a function of the seven low-correlated ENVIREM variables. Then, we checked whether the genetic diversity of each glacier could be explained by environmental variables or geographic position. The model included the number of haplotypes (response variable as a proxy of genetic diversity) as a function of the seven uncorrelated

5 of 18



FIGURE 3 (I) Sampling sites with indicated absolute frequencies of haplotypes of *F. glacialis* (haplotype labels correspond to Table 1). Five most important (A–E) barriers detected by the BARRIER software are indicated between populations with the run setting including virtual points. (II) An insert schematizing the migration connectivity and effective population sizes as estimated by MIGRATE-n for the five-population scenario.

ENVIREM (explanatory) variables, in addition to the confounding factor of sampling bias, expressed as abundance of sequenced individuals (see above).

We accounted for the existence of spatial effects by testing various correlation structures (spherical, linear, ratio, Gaussian and exponential) in spatially explicit generalized least square models in the R package nlme v 3.1-162 (Pinheiro & Bates, 2023). The model with the significantly lowest AIC (Akaike Information Criterion) was then selected to inspect the output. In cases when no spatial structure was needed in the model, we then used simpler linear models (LM) with the same structure of response and predictor variables. Model assumptions (i.e., normality of residuals, homogeneity of variance, influential observations, collinearity) were checked with the R package performance v0.10.2 (Lüdecke et al., 2021).

To assess the relationship between haplotype occurrence and the selected ENVIREM variables, accounting for the effect of geographical distances between glaciers, we used Mantel tests and partial Mantel tests with the R package vegan v2.6-4 (Oksanen et al., 2020). As a matrix of differences in haplotype composition between glaciers, we calculated an abundance-based Jaccard dissimilarity index in the R package BAT v2.9.2 (Cardoso et al., 2015); as a matrix of geographic distances, we calculated the geodesic distance in km between glaciers with the R package geodist v0.0.7 (Padgham & Sumner, 2021); as a matrix of ecological differences, we calculated the Gower distances using the seven selected ENVIREM environmental variables with the R package ecodist v2.0.9 (Goslee & Urban, 2007). To include phylogenetic relationships in the description of haplotype distribution, we also used a matrix of  $\Phi_{ST}$  distances between populations on each glacier in partial Mantel tests against geographical distances and ecological differences, calculating  $\Phi_{ST}$  only for a subset of 18 glaciers with at least four animals.

We also applied Moran's Eigenvector Mapping to assess the unique and combined effect of spatial structure and environmental variables in shaping the distribution of haplotypes. To do so, we used the R package adespatial v0.3-21 (Dray et al., 2023) on a subset of 18 glaciers with at least four animals.

To test the detailed effects of environmental variables on the occurrence of the different haplotypes on the glaciers, we used a model-based approach to the analysis of multivariate abundance data (Wang et al., 2012). The model included the multivariate occurrence data of the haplotypes (response variable) as a function of the seven selected ENVIREM variables, in addition to latitude (as a proxy for spatial patterns) and abundance of individuals (as a proxy for sampling bias) in the R package mvabund v4.2.1 (Wang et al., 2012). The R script for all the analyses is provided as Data S3, together with the datasets Data S2 and S4.

# 2.4 | Phylogeographic analyses

Summary statistics of genetic diversities were calculated in DNAsp v. 5 (Librado & Rozas, 2009), phylogenetic relationships among Sampling sites and distribution of genetic diversity among sites (Locality IDs and Haplotype labels correspond to Figure 3) and calculated Tajima's D and Fu's F, indices. Bottom half

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TABLE

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haplotypes were reconstructed with the statistical parsimony TCS approach (Clement et al., 2000) as implemented in PopArt (Leigh & Bryant, 2015), and population genetic  $\Phi_{ST}$  d,  $\Phi_{CT}$  and  $\Phi_{SC}$  measures were calculated in ARLEQUIN v. 3.5.2.2.

To assess the geographical structure and potential barriers to gene flow, we applied the clustering and boundary-detection methods using the pairwise distances among sampled sites, as implemented in the SAMOVA v. 1.0 (Dupanloup et al., 2002) and BARRIER v. 2.2 (Manni et al., 2004). Both approaches were applied to a reduced dataset of 19 localities with at least four analysed specimens offering representative estimates of genetic diversity and one Icelandic site with three specimens to maintain geographical continuity.

SAMOVA identifies geographically homogeneous groups of populations that are maximally differentiated from each other, utilizing a simulated annealing procedure. Sites are clustered into user-defined number of groups (K) considering their geographical locations to maximize the proportion of genetic variance between groups ( $F_{CT}$ ) and minimize within groups ( $F_{SC}$ ).

BARRIER pinpoints potential barriers between population pairs. Generating a Delaunay network with Monmonier's maximum difference algorithm (Monmonier, 1973) and comparing it with a matrix of pairwise genetic distances, it detects the most significant genetic distance between sample pairs as potential barriers. To prevent far samples from being considered as adjacent, we incorporated virtual points at map margins, as recommended by BARRIER's default setting. We also conducted an additional analysis without these virtual points to evaluate their influence on barrier identification.

We used MIGRATE-n v.4.4.3 (Beerli et al., 2019) to estimate the most likely patterns of gene flow between regions. The analysis was based on the same dataset applied to SAMOVA and BARRIER and individual populations were grouped into clusters as suggested by this software, with some modifications. Namely, the first MIGRATE-n analysis assumed seven-population clusters (1 - all Svalbard sites, 2 - Greenland & Iceland, 3 - Steindalsbreen, 4 - Koppangsbreen & Lenangsbreen, 5 - Svartisen, 6 - Okstindbreen and 7 - centralwestern Norway), thereby taking into account the fact that both SAMOVA and BARRIER suggested that Steindalsbreen and Svartisen differ significantly from their neighbouring glaciers and treating these two sites as separate entries. However, since coalescent analyses like MIGRATE-n may struggle with large numbers of populations/parameters, we also run a second analysis with fivepopulation clusters defined more geographically (1 - all Svalbard sites, 2 - Greenland & Iceland, 3 - northern Norway merging the closely situated Steindalsbreen & Koppangsbreen & Lenangsbreen, 4 - central-north Norway merging Svartisen & Okstindbreen and 5 - central-western Norway).

For both types of population groupings, we compared seven different models of migration (models a-g), testing the fit of different gene flow scenarios assuming panmixia (a), recent split without geneflow (b), migration-drift equilibrium with (c) or without (g) variable rates of gene flow among sites, source-sink migration

Diversity and Distributions

TABLE 2 Coalescent models compared in MIGRATE; results of 5-population and 7-population datasets are presented with model probabilities.

		Model		Ln(prob(D model))		Model probability
5-population d	ataset	а		-1341.205498		1.8558E-37
		b		-1396.775899		1.36337E-61
		с		-1257.231421		0.547028328
		d		-1278.710825		2.56817E-10
		е		-1315.127521		3.92693E-26
		f		-1324.64155		2.89843E-30
		g		-1257.420092		0.452971672
7-population d	ataset	a		-1338.541072		7.39066E-36
		b		-1435.759272		4.43972E-78
		с		-1261.642427		0.018422142
		d		-1281.678092		3.66405E-11
		e		-1317.516657		9.98781E-27
		f		-1328.250384		2.17707E-31
		g		-1257.666819		0.981577858
Model	Parameters		Descriptior	1		
а	Model assumes one pa	anmictic population	Scenario as panmictic p	sumes that all sampled populatio	ns belong to a	single Arctic-wide
b	Model assumes recent single ancestor withou connectivity	split of populations from it subsequent migration	Scenario as clusters fro split	sumes recent (e.g. post-LGM) spl m a single large ancestral popula	it of all curren tion with no ge	t population ene flow after the
С	Model assumes variab rates among long time	le (symmetic) migration separated populations	Migration-c ongoing gen effectively since); migr	drift equilibrium scenario assumir ne flow (i.e. that all population clu long time ago and have been inte ation rates are alowed to vary be	ng old populati usters split fro rconnected by tween popula	on structure with m each other / migrations ever tion pairs
d	Source-sink model ass populations receive m but do not send migra	uming that Scandinavian igrants from High Arctic nts outside Scandinavia	Scenario as occurred ef migration fr as a sink)	sumes a source-sink model wher fectively long time ago, but was rom high Arctic sites (acting as a s	the split of al followed by ur source) to Nor	population clusters nidirectional wegian sites (acting
е	Model assumes that S were recently colonize received migrants sub	candinavian populations ed from Svalbard and sequently	Scenario as LGM or Ho immigratior	sumes that Scandinavian sites we locene times) established by colo n after the establishment	ere recently (e nists from Sva	g., during post- lbard with possible
f	Model assumes that S were recently colonize and received migrants	candinavian populations ed from Greenland cluster subsequently	Scenario as LGM or Hol possible im	sumes that Scandinavian sites we locene times) established by colo migration after the establishmen	ere recently (e nists from Gre t	.g., during post- eenland with
g	Model assumes the sa rates among long time	me (symmetric) migration separated populations	Migration-co ongoing gen effectively since); migr model thus some popul	drift equilibrium scenario assumir ne flow (i.e. that all population clu long time ago and have been inte ation rates are not alowed to var tests whether there was a statist lation pairs exchange migrants m	ng old populati usters split fro proonnected by y betweem po tical support fo ore intensively	on structure with m each other / migrations ever pulation pairs. The or claiming that / than other pairs

from High Arctic to Scandinavia (d) and recent colonization of Scandinavia from High Arctic (d, e). Details and descriptions are provided in Table 2.

All models were run in three replicates of 10,000,000 generations, sampling every 100th step and applying a burn-in value of 1000 first sampled genealogies. The best models for each grouping were the ones with the highest value of likelihood, and we calculated model probabilities and ranked the models relative to the best-selected one (Table 2). When bi-directional migrations were assumed in any pair of populations (such as in models c and g), symmetric migrations were assumed to avoid over parameterization of the coalescent computation.

Demographic histories of *F. glacialis* population clusters were estimated using Tajima's D in DnaSP version 5.0 (Librado & Rozas, 2009) and with the Extended Bayesian skyline plot analysis (EMSP) implemented in the BEAST v.1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012), with subsequent analysis in Tracer v 1.5 (Rambaut et al., 2009). The clock rate was set to strict, and the mutation model was set to Tamura-Nei with invariant sites site heterogeneity (as suggested by jModelTest) and base frequencies set to empirical values. VILEY – Diversity and Distributions

To estimate the divergence time of major haplotype groups, we first run the BEAST 1.8.0 on the same dataset and substitution model as above, constructing the trees under a coalescence model of constant size, strict molecular clock assumption and running three independent runs of  $1 \times 10^8$  iterations, sampling every 10,000th generation. Results were inspected in Tracer v 1.5 (Rambaut et al., 2009), combined in the LogCombiner using 10% burn-in and harvested in TreeAnnotator. As a second approach, we used the method of Saillard et al. (2000) to infer the average distance from the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of the clade in the number of mutation steps  $(\rho = \{n_1 l_1 + ... + n_k l_1\}/n$ , where *n* is the number of specimens and l is the length of k<sup>th</sup> branch expressed in mutation steps, and the variance of the estimate  $\sigma_{\rm H}^2 = \{n_1^2 l_1 + ... + n_k^2 l_1\}/n^2$ ). Since the tardigrade mtDNA mutation rate is unknown, we calibrated the trees with the estimates of COI gene substitution rates of northern polar arthropods calibrated by the divergence of the Beringian species, suggesting the rate of 2.55E-08 per site per year (Loeza-Quintana et al., 2019).

#### 3 | RESULTS

# 3.1 | Fontourion glacialis distribution and sequence variability

568bp alignment of COI gene was retrieved from 263 sequenced *F. glacialis* (Figure 1) individuals sampled on 29 out of 33 investigated glaciers (Table 1, Figure 3), altogether yielding unique 9 haplotypes characterized by 12 polymorphic sites (haplotype diversity=0.798, SD=0.008) and 3.22753 average nucleotide differences ( $\pi$ =0.00568, SD=0.00025) (Figure 4). Newly obtained haplotypes were deposited into Gene Bank under accession numbers OR898234 – OR898241, OR958747. Sampling success notably differed among glaciers, with *F. glacialis* being quite common in High Arctic sites, and less abundant in Iceland, where only three individuals were recovered in one out of 5 sampled glaciers.

# 3.2 | Haplotype diversity

The effect of climatic variables on *F. glacialis* haplotype richness was not supported: the model on richness of haplotypes as a proxy for local genetic diversity was not affected by spatial autocorrelation (delta AIC ratio vs non-spatial model = 1.86, degrees of freedom = 12 and 10), and none of the selected ENVIREM variables had any significant effect. As expected, the haplotype richness on each glacier increased with the abundance of individuals sampled (LM: t=2.4, p=.0253; Table S1). However, the model evaluating the sampling bias using numbers of sampled individuals as a proxy was not affected by spatial autocorrelation (delta AIC spherical vs. non-spatial model = 1.26, degrees of freedom = 11 and 9), and none of the selected ENVIREM variables had any significant effect (Table S2).



FIGURE 4 Upper panel: Haplotype network reconstructed using the TCS. Lower left panel: Time-calibrated phylogenetic tree with the revealed haplotypes. Large-scale bar indicates the time in years before present, while the small-scale bar indicates the mutation-time units.

Diversity and Distributions

Differences in haplotype composition correlated more strongly with geographical distance (Mantel test: r = .559, p = .001) than with climatic differences among glaciers (r = .179, p = .011). Correlation between haplotype composition was still significant with geographical distance when controlling for ecological differences (partial Mantel test: r = .556, p = .001) but not with ecological differences when controlling for geographical distance (r = .040, p = .215). The same pattern was confirmed when using the subset of 18 glaciers with at least four animals: MEMs revealed that spatial structure alone explained 11% of the variability in haplotype composition, with additional 23% shared with environmental variables, but environment alone did not add anything (Figure S2).  $\Phi_{ST}$  distances between populations were

again better explained by geographical distance, when controlling for ecological differences (partial Mantel test: r=.409, p<.001), than by ecological differences, when controlling for geographical distance (r=.140, p=.066).

Multivariate abundance analysis revealed relatively small but significant effects of temperature and precipitation on haplotype distribution on 29 glaciers with *F.glacialis*, in addition to latitude and sample size (Table 3). Specifically, the univariate models for occurrence of each haplotype suggested that haplotypes LYR2F and T\_S34stei were negatively affected by temperature (p=.001) and by precipitation (p=.007), respectively (Figure 5; Table S3). To avoid geographic confounding effect, not included in the multivariate

TABLE 3 Output of the model-based approach to the analysis of multivariate abundance data (mvabund) to explain the occurrence of haplotypes. Residual and differential degrees of freedom, deviance and *p* values are reported. Bold *p* values highlight significant predictors, below the .05 threshold.

Predictor	Residual d.f. <sup>a</sup>	Differential d.f. <sup>a</sup>	Deviance	р
(Intercept)	28			
Average temperature yearly average	27	1	42.91	.0010
Precipitation yearly average	26	1	41.34	.0020
Solar radiation yearly average	25	1	19.36	.0670
Wind speed yearly average	24	1	12.52	.3510
Month count by temp 10	23	1	8.52	.3550
PET wettest quarter	22	1	5.74	.7730
Topographic wetness index	21	1	16.51	.1640
Latitude	20	1	26.60	.0045
Total	19	1	34.12	.0090

<sup>a</sup>Degrees of freedom.



FIGURE 5 The effect of yearly average temperature on the abundance of haplotype LYR2F.

9 of 18

WILEY Diversity and Distributions

analysis, we ran models independently for both haplotypes using spatially explicit GLS and confirmed the negative effect of temperature on LYR2F even in a zero-inflated model, while the effect of precipitation on T\_S34Stei was not supported (Data S5). To particularly assess the effect of temperature on the abundance of LYR2F, we used negative binomial generalized linear models with log-link function implemented using glmmTMB, comparing it with the null model using the Chi-sq test (Chi-sq = 22.718, df = 1, p < .001; Figure 5).

# 3.3 | Geographic differentiation of Fontourion glacialis

Despite significant correlation between genetic ( $\Phi_{ST}$ ) and geographic distances among sampling sites (see above), we noticed some outliers when nearby population pairs received high  $\Phi_{ST}$  values (Lenangsbreen & Koppangsbreen vs. Steindalsbreen or Svartisen vs. Okstindbreen), while some geographically distant pairs possess low  $\Phi_{ST}$  values (Greenland vs Steindalsbreen or Svalbard glaciers vs. Svartisen; Figure 6). At regional scales, the correlation was significant within Svalbard archipelago (Mantel test: r=.6650, p=.0035), but not within Scandinavia (r=.1694, p=.124; Figure 6).

The SAMOVA reached highest  $F_{CT}$  values at 5–7 population clusters (*k*), with ~48% of variation attributable to among-group differentiation, after which the  $F_{CT}$  values dropped and rose again at higher k, where individual glaciers formed separate groups, providing uninformative clustering (Table 1). Several patterns emerged at k=5-7. Population clusters generally reflected geographical proximity but Iceland and SW Greenland populations clustered together with the distant population from Northern Norwegian Steindalsbreen. While Svalbard sites formed a geographically distinct cluster also comprising the central-north Norwegian Svartisen glacier, possible differentiation was indicated between central-south Svalbard and north-eastern Svalbard (Sorbreen and Nordauslandet with Norfranklinbreen and Goose Buktabreen). Finally, central-west Norwegian glaciers formed a cluster grouped with more northerly Okstindbreen and even Lenangsbreen and Koppangsbreen (depending on k; Table 1).

The BARRIER results were consistent with SAMOVA when most prominent barriers were not only located among geographically distant regions but also among some nearby population pairs. The two highest-ranking barriers separated the Scandinavian sites from Greenland-Iceland cluster and Svalbard. However, prominent barriers were also detected between Steindalsbreen and the Lenangsbreen-Koppangsbreen population cluster in northern Norway and between neighbouring Svartisen and Okstindbreen populations in central-northern Norway (Figure 3). The BARRIER run without virtual points provided similar results (Figure S3) with the most prominent barrier again separating Scandinavia from Greenland-Iceland cluster. North-Eastern Svalbard was again separated from Central and Southern Svalbard, this time appearing on the same side of the barrier with Greenland. Apart from that, other barriers between Svalbard and Scandinavia as well as those within Scandinavia appeared consistent with the previous run.

The coalescent analysis of migration connectivity in MIGRATE-n suggested that both the 5- and 7-population cluster datasets are best explained by migration-drift equilibrium models (models c and g) assuming ongoing migration among long-term diverged populations. Other model designs assuming panmixia (a), recent split without migration (b), source-sink scenarios, (d) or recent colonization of Norway from High Arctic (e and f; Table 2) were significantly outperformed. Model (c) indicated higher connectivity of Svalbard with the Greenland cluster than with Scandinavian sites (Figure 3, Table S4) and, in the 7-population design, it also suggested high connectivity



**FIGURE 6** Scatter plot of pairwise geographic and genetic  $\Phi_{ST}$  distances among sampling sites. Colours are used to specifically indicate the pairwise distances among sites within Svalbard (blue), within Scandinavia (red) between Svalbard and Scandinavia (yellow) and between Scandinavia and Greenland and Iceland clusters (green). Linear model fits are presented in black (total dataset), blue (within Svalbard) and red (within Scandinavia) pairwise distances.

of Svalbard with the Svartisen population (Figure S3, Table S4). The remote Greenland and Iceland population cluster appeared intensively interconnected with northern Norway and the central-west Norwegian population cluster exchanged migrants at much higher rate with Okstindbreen and potentially with northern Norwegian sites than with any High Arctic population (Table S4). However, the model (c) allowing variable migration rates among population pairs did not significantly outperform the model (g) assuming equal migration rates, suggesting that our data do not contain enough information to detect significant differences in migration connectivity among population pairs. Therefore, the differences in population pairwise connectivity indicated by the models (c) must be considered with care (Table 2).

Only one value of Tajima's *D* and Fu's  $F_s$  indices was significantly negative and, in general, both indices tended to positive values, indicating signals of population admixture, rather than growth (Table 1). EBSP was applied to geographically defined population clusters used in the MIGRATE-n and sufficient mixing and Effective Sample Sizes were obtained apart from combined Greenland–Iceland population clusters and the Steindalsbreen populations where no convergence was achieved despite extended run times and heating schemes. Obtained EBSP plots generally indicated stable populations (Figure 7) with the possible exception in the central-western Norwegian population cluster, where a possible population increase was indicated, and its recent onset (~10<sup>-4</sup> mutational time units) may be translated to ca. 4 kya using the northern arthropod COI calibration (Loeza-Quintana et al., 2019).

According to the BEAST estimate using the same clock calibration, the divergence of "Norwegian" haplotype group (BI19, BI18, T\_34Stei1, OksAnimixT9, 373Koppan, 353Krings) from the MRCA occurred ~31kya (8-67kya), while its divergence from the "Svalbard" (Lyr1F1, Lyr2F1) haplotypes occurred ~55kya (C.I: 16-109kya); Figure 4. The method of Saillard et al. (2000) estimated the divergence of "Norwegian" group from its MRCA to ~23kya±3.4kya.

## 4 | DISCUSSION

# 4.1 | Spatial distribution of *F. glacialis* and new data on its distribution

Previously, *Fontourion glacialis* was documented in Norway's Blåisenbreen, south-eastern Greenland and several glaciers in Svalbard, where it typically cohabits with six to seven other tardigrade species and some rotifers (Novotná Jaroměřská et al., 2021; Zawierucha et al., 2020; Zawierucha, Buda, et al., 2018; Zawierucha, Buda, Azzoni, et al., 2019; Zawierucha, Buda, & Nawrot, 2019). Our research has significantly expanded its known range, finding it throughout the entirety of Svalbard, including Nordaustlandet, and, though infrequently, in Iceland. It is also present on all Norwegian glaciers we studied, as the sole tardigrade species in the cryoconite holes there. An interesting parallel is observed with temperate glaciers in the Alps, wherein cryoconite holes are also inhabited by a Diversity and Distributions –WILEY

single tardigrade species, *Cryobiotus klebelsbergi* (Zawierucha, Buda, Azzoni, et al., 2019). This pattern of species exclusivity contrasts with the higher species richness typically found in the cryoconite holes of High Arctic glaciers.

# 4.2 | Population differentiation, dispersal and barriers to migration connectivity

Geographical partitioning explained the largest part of variability in the distribution of *F. glacialis* haplotypes. However, beyond spatial structure alone, additional variability was explained by ecological and climatic differences between glaciers and abundance of Lyr2F1 variant significantly negatively correlated with the tested parameter of average temperature. Since habitats of cryoconite holes constantly face similar near-zero temperatures even during summer, the air temperature and other variables evaluated by the ENVIREM dataset likely do not affect therein tardigrades directly. More likely, these variables may affect the supraglacial environment which, together with stochastic events like weather-driven changes in population density (Zawierucha, Buda, & Nawrot, 2019), may drive the changes in local genetic diversity of *F. glacialis* populations and their response to local conditions.

In any case, our results imply that geography rather than climatic variables is the primary factor driving the non-random distribution of F. glacialis haplotypes, similar to the pattern of regional clustering also found in other invertebrates inhabiting Arctic and sub-Arctic aquatic habitats, like lakes and ponds (Alfsnes et al., 2016; Hessen et al., 2004). This suggests that distribution of allelic variants may be dispersal-limited even in such microscopic invertebrates, otherwise expected to have high dispersal potential, similar to the patterns explained by the monopolization hypothesis as observed for example, in aquatic microscopic invertebrates (e.g., De Meester et al., 2002). The coalescent analysis supports this view by rejecting the models assuming panmixia as well as recent fragmentation and isolation from historically large populations (MIGRATE-n models a and b) and providing the best data fit by models assuming an interplay between ongoing migrations among regional populations and local drift causing their differentiation (coalescent models c and g).

Such results suggest that dispersal among sampled populations is not potent enough to distribute haplotypes in space uniformly, but still sufficient to prevent the isolation of individual glaciers in Holocene after their split from the large glacial sheets. This aligns with a correlation between genetic and geographic distances, observed on both a total (whole dataset) as well as regional (within Svalbard) scales (Figure 6), which conforms to Isolation by Distance (IBD) scenario (Slatkin, 1993) and is consistent with regionally limited distribution of terminal, that is, more recent, haplotypes, like Lyr1, TStei34 and Bl18 (Figure 3). However, analyses in SAMOVA (Table 1) and particularly BARRIER (Figure 3, Figure S3) also indicated sharp barriers to migration among some nearby sites. In northern Norway, Lenangsbreen and Koppangsbreen, characterized by high frequencies of the common Scandinavian haplotypes Bl19 and TStei34,



FIGURE 7 Demographic reconstruction within the major geographical population clusters as suggested by the ESBP method. Xaxis represents time from the present scaled in mutation-time units, Y-axis the median value and 95% central posterior density (CPD) of population size estimate. A – total dataset; B – Northern Norwegian population cluster; C – Greenland; D – central-west Norwegian population cluster; E – Koppangsbreen and Lenangsbreen population cluster; F – Steindalsbreen population; G – central-north Norwegian population cluster; H – Svalbard population cluster.

– Diversity and Distributions –WILEY

notably differed from nearby Steindalsbreen with a high frequency of the common High Arctic allele Lyr19. Neighbouring glaciers in central-northern Norway, Okstindbreen and Svartisen, also notably differed in proportions of "Scandinavian" vs "High Arctic" haplotypes (Figures 3 and 4). Monmonier's algorithm is robust against false detection of barriers when real data are generated by pure IBD mechanism (Blair et al., 2012), suggesting that such differences among nearby sites reflect biological reality.

These results jointly imply that gene flow among populations of glacial inhabitants like *F. glacialis* may not only be limited by geographical distance and obvious barriers such as open oceans and large ice-free regions, but also by obstacles between closely located glaciers.

# 4.3 | Scandinavian population cluster and the survival through long periods of potential deglaciation

The Scandinavian region hosts unique *F.glacialis* genotypes but differentiation exists between glaciers of the Central West, Central North and Northern Norway (Figure 3, Table 1). While each cluster contains regionally endemic haplotypes (Figure 3), last two regions also hosted "High Arctic haplotypes," suggesting their links to populations further north (Figure 3, Table 1, Table S4). The full migration model (model c in MIGRATE-n) highlights limited connectivity between central west Norway and other regions, but indicated stronger migration between more northern Norwegian and High Arctic areas, albeit these results should be interpreted cautiously due to our data's limitations in testing variable migration intensities.

That said, a similar split between populations inhabiting southern/central Scandinavia and more northerly regions with possible admixture has been observed in various other boreal organisms, such as mammals (Bray et al., 2013; Haanes et al., 2011; Horn et al., 2014; Jaarola et al., 1999; Marková et al., 2020), birds (Hansson et al., 2000) or aquatic crustaceans (Hessen et al., 2004) and has been explained by alternative postglacial recolonization routes from distinct glacial refugia. However, inhabitants of glaciers are likely subject to inverse time frame of population expansion/fragmentation since their populations putatively flourished during LGM when terrestrial organisms were restricted to fragmented refugia, while their ranges shrank and fragmented when postglacial expansion of terrestrial species begun. Notwithstanding the substantial differences in dispersal capabilities between these organisms, similarities in their population structure may suggest that the south-central Scandinavian region is not prone to massive immigration events from more northerly regions and generally harbours autochthonous populations of organisms inhabiting various types of habitat, including glaciers.

This finding is intriguing, given temporary disappearance of many sub-Arctic glaciers during the Marine Isotope Stage 11c (~425-395ka BP) (Irvalı et al., 2020; Robinson et al., 2017) and potentially complete deglaciation of Scandinavia during the Holocene climatic optimum (ca. 8–5.000 years ago) (Linge et al., 2020; Nesje et al., 2008). Yet, we observed a distinctive population structure within Scandinavia and coalescent models rejected the scenario of unidirectional source-sink immigration. Molecular clock analysis suggested that divergence between "Scandinavian" and "High Arctic" alleles and even the divergence of the "Scandinavian" clade itself predates Holocene. This jointly indicates that central-west Norway was not recently colonized from a single northern source, but therein *F. glacialis* population likely survived in situ during the Holocene deglaciation.

How *F. glacialis* survived when all or most debris-free glaciers melted remains unclear. The species might have taken refuge in other habitats like debris-covered or rock glaciers, snowfields or high mountain aquatic bodies in shady places that keep low temperatures during summer, from which it might have expended as glaciers began to reform. A similar survival strategy is seen in snow and glacier algae, which use cysts to repopulate icy surfaces in subsequent seasons (Hoham & Remias, 2020; Ono et al., 2021). However, existing surveys of periglacial habitats (Zawierucha, Buda, Azzoni, et al., 2019; Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023) do not indicate that glacier-dwelling tardigrades can persist long-term outside of glaciers.

Alternatively, some Scandinavian glaciers and ice patches might have persisted during the Holocene climatic optimum (Bakke et al., 2010). Considering that populations of glacial tardigrades can flourish in extremely fragmented habitats for extended periods (Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023), even small ice patches might have acted as refuges from which F.glacialis could have expanded to larger, reforming glaciers. Melting and re-establishment of Scandinavian glaciers might have also been asynchronous across regions, allowing F. glacialis to survive via "wandering refugial populations," a concept proposed for the persistence of Antarctic terrestrial and shallow water marine biota (Janko et al., 2007; Kašparová et al., 2015; Thatje et al., 2005). Such a range restriction-extinctionrecolonization dynamics at southern regions is in line with demographic analyses showing rather stable population sizes in northern F. glacialis populations, and possible population growth of the Central West Norwegian population during the Holocene (Figure 7).

As the climate cooled down again, newly formed glaciers might have been populated by both nearby refugial populations and longdistance migrants, including those from the High Arctic. Indeed, some pairs of neighbouring glaciers in Scandinavia show stark genetic differences with high incidences of High Arctic haplotypes on one side of identified barriers and their rarity or absence on the other side (Figure 3, Table 1). Especially Okstindbreen, one of the few Scandinavian glaciers that may have potentially survived the Holocene climatic optimum (Bakke et al., 2010), hosts local "typically" Scandinavian alleles, while the neighbouring Svartisen glacier appears colonized by the High Arctic phylogroup. Abrupt genetic differentiation among some neighbouring sites might result from just such stochastic extinction-recolonization events rather than being driven by specific environmental conditions, since we have not identified any environmental variables explaining this pattern and no major differences in microbial community compositions, albeit on high taxonomical resolution, have been documented among Scandinavian and Svalbard cryoconite (Millar et al., 2021).

# 4.4 | Past and future of psychrophilic metazoans on glaciers in changing world climate

Connectivity and extent of glacial ecosystems have dramatically varied over the Pleistocene, posing special challenges for their inhabitants, especially given their currently precarious state in the face of global warming. Similar to other terrestrial tardigrades and rotifers (Fontaneto et al., 2008; Morek et al., 2021), we revealed that populations of glacier-dwelling F. glacialis are far from panmixia. Instead, they exhibit complex metapopulation dynamics involving an interplay of dispersal-limited connectivity, historical extinction-recolonization dynamics and occasional long-distance migrations, which, particularly at range margins in lower latitudes, can lead to the swift establishment of locally abundant populations under favourable conditions (De Meester et al., 2002; Hessen et al., 2004). This can promote increased genetic divergence among neighbouring sites, especially when recolonizing migrants reproduce asexually (Fontaneto, 2019; Kokko & López-Sepulcre, 2006). Remarkably, the distribution of tardigrade species is shaped by a multitude of factors beyond just their reproductive mode. For example, while the widespread presence of Paramacrobiotus fairbanksi might imply a connection to parthenogenesis, the asexual species Acutuncus antarcticus is exclusively found in Antarctica, underscoring that dispersal capacity, habitat and thermal preferences, and cryptobiotic abilities are also fundamental in dictating tardigrade distribution patterns.

The complexity of patterns revealed by our study underscores the need for multidisciplinary approaches to understand mechanisms creating them. Key areas of focus should include: (1) determining the extent to which communities living on glaciers are strictly glacier-dependent or can thrive in non-glacial habitats; this would benefit from greater integration of metabarcoding approaches across studies, since some markers have insufficient power to differentiate between locally adapted sister species, while others have taxon-specific amplification efficiencies. (2) Better understanding the dispersal mechanisms; indeed, both wind (e.g., Brendonck & Riddoch, 1999; Cáceres & Soluk, 2002; Dabert et al., 2015; Fontaneto, 2019; Jørgensen et al., 2007; Lopes et al., 2016; Ptatscheck et al., 2018) and animals, like birds (e.g., Green et al., 2023; Hessen et al., 2019), are likely dispersal vectors for meiofauna. However, although many birds and mammals actively visit glaciers especially in Scandinavia and other lower latitudes (Rosvold, 2016), their role in dynamics of glacier-dwelling species is worth examining (Dial et al., 2016; Hotaling et al., 2019). Finally, (3) understanding the adaptability and fate of glacial biota should combine phylogeographic analyses with examinations of physiological parameters, like their response to increasing freezethaw cycles (Zawierucha, Vecchi, et al., 2023), and continuous monitoring of local glacial populations across seasons and years (Pittino et al., 2018; Zawierucha, Buda, & Nawrot, 2019; Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023), which unfortunately remain largely unexplored research fields. With many of these organisms newly discovered and their genomes largely unexplored, there is a pressing need

to prioritize genomic studies. These could not only uncover genes key to habitat-specific adaptations but also facilitate the development of new, more variable markers for a nuanced understanding of their microevolutionary processes. The challenge lies in the scarcity of universal primers that extend beyond a few standard markers, often targeting repetitive loci, which presents a unique set of challenges for their application in a phylogenetic context (e.g., Alvarez & Wendel, 2003).

In summary, our results suggest that glacial inhabitants establish regionally distinct population structure that may have locally endured through extended periods of considerable habitat loss, such as during the deglaciation in Scandinavia. This is in line with recent findings that populations of glacier-dwelling tardigrades have the resilience to endure locally in extremely fragmented habitats (Zawierucha, Kašparová, et al., 2023). Hence, just as there is a long-lasting debate about "northern" ice-free refugia hosting terrestrial organisms during the last glaciation (e.g., Kotlík et al., 2006), so our data contribute to the possible existence of "southern" glacial refugia for glacier-dwelling organisms during the Holocene or other warm periods. Understanding these aspects may thus provide crucial insight into the resilience of life in extreme environments and aid in predicting biological responses to future climatic changes.

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#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

Authors declare no conflicts of interest.

#### PEER REVIEW

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#### DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Newly obtained haplotypes were deposited into Gene Bank under accession numbers OR898234 – OR898241, OR958747.

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16 of 18

WILEY – Diversity and Distributions

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17 of 18

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#### BIOSKETCH

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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