UC Santa Cruz UC Santa Cruz Previously Published Works

Title

Natural abundances of two Crocosphaera sub-types

Permalink

https://escholarship.org/uc/item/9nt2p5bw

Journal

Environmental Microbiology, 18(2)

ISSN

1462-2912

Authors

Bench, Shellie R Frank, Ildiko Robidart, Julie <u>et al.</u>

Publication Date

2016-02-01

DOI

10.1111/1462-2920.13180

Peer reviewed

Two subpopulations of *Crocosphaera watsonii* have distinct distributions in the North and South Pacific

Shellie R. Bench^{1,2*}, Ildiko Frank¹, Julie Robidart^{1,3,4,5}, Jonathan P. Zehr^{1,3}

Affiliations:

¹Department of Ocean Sciences, University of California Santa Cruz, 1156 High Street, Santa Cruz, CA 95064 USA

²Current address: Stanford University, Department of Earth System Science, 473 Via Ortega, Rm 140 Stanford, CA 94305-4216

³Monterey Bay Aquarium Research Institute, 7700 Sandholdt Road, Moss Landing, CA 95039 USA

⁴Center for Microbial Oceanography: Research and Education, University of Hawaii, 1950 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822 USA

⁵Current address: Ocean Technology and Engineering Group, National Oceanography Centre, European Way, Southampton, SO14 3ZH, UK

^{*}Corresponding author E-mail: shellierb@gmail.com Phone: 410-441-0055 Fax: 650-498-5099

Running title: Natural abundances of two Crocosphaera sub-types

1 Abstract

2 *Crocosphaera watsonii* is a unicellular nitrogen (N₂)-fixing cyanobacterium with ecological importance in oligotrophic oceans. In cultivated strains there are two phenotypes of C. watsonii (large 3 4 and small cell) with differences that could differentially impact biogeochemical processes. Recent work has shown the phenotypes diverged through loss or addition of type-specific genes in a fraction 5 6 of their genomes, while the rest of the genomes were maintained at 99-100% DNA identity. Previous 7 molecular assays for C. watsonii abundances targeted the conserved regions and therefore could not differentiate between phenotypes, so their relative distributions in natural communities were 8 9 unknown. To determine phenotype distributions, this study developed and applied type-specific qPCR assays to samples from the North and South Pacific. Abundances of both Crocosphaera types declined 10 sharply with depth between 45 and 75 m in both sites. In surface water small cells were 10 to 100 11 times more abundant than large cells in the N. Pacific; while in the S. Pacific the two phenotypes were 12 nearly equal. Evidence for large cell aggregation was only found in N. Pacific samples. The differences 13 in C. watsonii sub-populations in the North and South Pacific Ocean have direct implications for 14 biogeochemistry and carbon export in oligotrophic gyres. 15

16

17 Introduction

Crocosphaera watsonii is a species of unicellular nitrogen (N₂)-fixing cyanobacteria ("UCYN" 18 from here forward) that is important in marine primary production and biogeochemical cycling. This is 19 20 especially true in oligotrophic waters where nitrogen is often a limiting nutrient, and C. watsonii is an important source of biologically available nitrogen (Zehr et al., 2001; Falcon et al., 2004; Montoya et 21 al., 2004; Kitajima et al., 2009; Moisander et al., 2010). UCYN are among the most abundant N_2 -fixers 22 in oceanic systems and measurements of UCYN abundance by direct microscopy counts and qPCR of 23 the *nifH* gene are important for determining their contributions to the N cycle. Direct counts of UCYN 24 abundances have ranged from 10⁴ to 10⁷ cells per liter in the North Pacific (Zehr et al., 2001; Church et 25 al., 2005), and near 10⁵ cells per liter in the Atlantic (Falcon *et al.*, 2004), and qPCR studies have 26 reported between 10³ and 10⁶ gene copies per liter in multiple ocean basins (Zehr *et al.*, 2001; Falcon 27 et al., 2004; Church et al., 2005; Church et al., 2008; Langlois et al., 2008; Moisander et al., 2008; 28 Moisander et al., 2010). However, microscopic and qPCR enumerations of natural populations have 29 treated all *Crocosphaera* cells as a single global population because the cells are morphologically 30 31 similar by microscopy, and because there is a lack of genetic variation in the *nifH* gene. The genetic conservation observed in *Crocosphaera nifH* sequences was also observed in 32 sequences encoding 16S rRNA and a number of other genes that were examined in natural populations 33 34 and cultivated strains (Zehr et al., 2007). Despite their gene sequence conservation, two distinct phenotypic categories have been described in *C. watsonii* isolates. The first (large cell) phenotype has 35 36 a cell-diameter of 4-6 µm, produces abundant extracellular polysaccharide (EPS), has higher 37 photosynthetic efficiencies (F_{v}/F_{m}), and higher per-cell nitrogen fixation rates (Webb *et al.*, 2009; Sohm et al., 2011). The other (small cell) type has a cell diameter less than 4 µm, and does not produce 38

noticeable amounts of EPS. There is also evidence that the small cell types grow in a narrower
temperature range, and are missing some phosphorus scavenging genes that are found in the large cell
types (Dyhrman and Haley, 2006; Webb *et al.*, 2009). More recently, genome comparisons showed
that the large cell types contained a variety of genetic capabilities that were missing from the smaller
genomes of the small cell types, such as EPS biosynthesis, iron stress response genes, and phosphorus
metabolism genes (Bench *et al.*, 2011; Bench *et al.*, 2013).

Because of their genetic and metabolic differences, it is likely that the two phenotypes have 45 46 different impacts on biogeochemical cycling. For example, EPS is a carbon-rich compound that can 47 protect cells as well as cause aggregation which increases sinking rates (Passow et al., 2001; Pereira et al., 2009; Sohm et al., 2011). As such, EPS production could make the large cell types greater 48 contributors to carbon export from surface water than the small cell types. The differences in iron and 49 50 phosphorus related genes further suggest that the two C. watsonii types may be differently adapted to 51 their chemical environment, and therefore may have different niches. However, because previous 52 methods used to measure natural Crocosphaera abundances were limited to viewing the species as a single population, very little is known about the distribution of the two types in the water column or 53 54 the global oceans. In light of the ecologically relevant differences between types, it is important to 55 determine their specific distributions in order to better understand the impact of the species on nutrient cycling and marine ecosystems. As a step towards that better understanding, this study was 56 57 carried out with the following specific goals: 1) use recently identified phenotype-specific genes to develop specific and sensitive molecular assays to differentiate between Crocosphaera phenotypes and 58 59 2) apply those assays to water column samples from two regions in the Pacific Ocean in order to characterize differences in vertical and basin-wide distributions of the two C. watsonii types in natural 60 populations. 61

62 **Results**

Recent genomic comparisons of multiple cultivated Crocosphaera watsonii strains identified 63 gene sequences that were strain-specific and phenotype-specific (Bench et al., 2011; Bench et al., 64 65 2013). This enabled the design of the qPCR assays described in this study, which target four different genomic loci; two specific for large cell type strains, and two specific for small cell strains (Table 1). 66 The previously used *Crocosphaera nifH* (also referred to as "Group B") primer probe sets (Moisander et 67 al., 2010) acted as the positive quantitative control during testing of each qPCR locus using DNA from 68 six C. watsonii cultivated strains (see methods). All loci amplified quantitatively in reactions with DNA 69 from strains with the targeted phenotype as expected, and did not amplify with DNA from non-target 70 phenotype strains (Table S1). This was true for all loci, including reaction where DNA from a non-71 72 targeted phenotype strain (i.e. not expected to amplify) was ten-fold greater than DNA from the targeted strain. 73

After the qPCR assays were tested against individual strains, they were applied to samples from two research cruises. There was good correlation across the N. Pacific samples between the two genespecific assays within each phenotype (Fig. S1), and a paired t-test found no difference between the abundances reported by the assays (p = 0.69 for small cell assays, and p = 0.71 for large cell assays). The sum of the two phenotypes also correlated well with *nifH* abundances (Correlation coefficient = 0.9899, Fig. S2).

In the N. Pacific water column samples, total *nifH Crocosphaera* abundance was often >10⁶ gene copies per liter in samples from 50 m and shallower, and declined by 2 to 3 orders of magnitude between 50 and 100 meters, decreasing to abundances of ~10³ gene copies per liter at and below 150 m (Fig. 1, upper panel). The small cell type accounted for the vast majority of total *Crocosphaera* at

depths shallower than 75 m, while the large cell type was more abundant in samples deeper than 100 84 m (Fig. 1). Small cell *Crocosphaera* abundances ranged from over 10⁶ gene copies per liter at the 85 surface to less than 10³ copies per liter at and below 125 m (Fig. 1, middle panel). The abundance of 86 the large cell types in the upper water column was 10^4 to 10^5 gene copies per liter, decreasing to ~ 10^3 87 copies per liter below 75 m (Fig. 1, lower panel). The ratio of small cell to large cell Crocosphaera 88 (calculated by dividing the small cell gene copies by large cell gene copies for each sample) was 89 typically between 10 and 1,000 in shallow samples, and between 0.1 and 1 in most samples below 75 90 91 m (Fig. S3).

92 Crocosphaera abundances were measured in sediment trap samples to assess possible
93 differences in sinking processes between the two phenotypes. The ratio of the phenotypes in
94 sediment traps was then compared with depth-integrated and spatially averaged values from water
95 column samples collected during the same time (see methods). At 100 m, the average ratio of small
96 cells to large cells was 51.4 in the water column and 42.9 in the sediment trap. At 150 m, the small:
97 large ratio in the water column was 49.4 and the ratio in the sediment trap was 2.1.

For all water column samples, phenotype-specific assays were performed separately on the 98 99 10um and the 0.2 um filters that were collected in-line (see methods) and the relative contribution of the 0.2 μ m filter to the total for each sample was calculated. For nearly all samples, close to 100% of 100 small cells were found on the 0.2 μm filter (Fig. 2, upper panel and Fig. S4). Only two samples (out of 101 60) showed less than 60% of small cells on the 0.2 µm filter, and in the other 58 samples an average of 102 103 94% of small cell abundance was found on the 0.2 µm filter. In contrast, for many samples, especially in the first half of the cruise, less than 40% of the total large cell copies were found on the 0.2 µm filter 104 105 (Fig. 2, lower panel and Fig. S5). In other samples (e.g. samples collected from below 75 m depth and

surface samples from the last two stations), nearly all large cells were found on the 0.2 μm filter,
similar to the small cells.

108 A principal component analysis of environmental variables was used to investigate potential correlations between *Crocosphaera* abundances in BioLINCS samples and water column parameters. 109 110 The first principal component (PC1) explained 48% of the observed variation, and was mainly related to 111 depth, density, temperature, light, ammonia and nitrite. The second principal component (PC2) explained 30% of the variation and was mainly composed of oxygen, salinity, chlorophyll, phosphate 112 113 and silicate. The two dimensional projection shows clustering of the water samples into three depth-114 related groups (Fig. 3): surface (orange symbols), chlorophyll maximum and adjacent depths (hereafter referred to as chl max, green symbols), and deeper water (blue symbols). In contrast to the chl max 115 samples, the surface and deep samples showed little variation along PC1, but are well spread along 116 117 PC2. Abundances of both Crocosphaera cell types (as well as total Crocosphaera) showed significant 118 negative correlation with PC1.

119 The three clusters (surface, chl max, and deep) were also tested separately to identify correlations with environmental factors that were independent from depth and abundance (Table S2). 120 121 In surface water samples, large cell abundances were positively correlated with phosphate and silicate 122 and negatively correlated with salinity. In the chl max samples, both cell types were significantly positively correlated with temperature and PAR, and negatively correlated with salinity, density, 123 124 chlorophyll, nitrate, and silicate. In addition, large cells had a negative correlation with ammonia. In the deep samples, no significant relationships were found between environmental variables and either 125 cell type. 126

127 Abundances of the two *Crocosphaera* phenotypes were also measured in samples collected at 128 three stations during a research cruise in the South Pacific Ocean in the austral fall of 2007. An in-

depth characterization of oceanographic conditions and total diazotroph population distributions are 129 130 described in Moisander et al. (2010). In these samples, abundances of both Crocosphaera types were approximately 10^5 to 10^6 gene copies per liter near the surface, dropping to between 10^2 to 10^4 in 131 deeper water (Fig. 4, C). The ratio of large cells to small cells was relatively constant throughout the 132 water column, typically between 0.4 and 4 with an average of 1.5 for all samples (Fig. 4, D). Over 80% 133 of the total abundance of small cells was found on the 0.2 µm filter for all S. Pacific samples, with many 134 close to 100% and an overall average of nearly 93% (Table S3). Over 80% of the large cell types were 135 136 also captured on the 0.2 µm filter in all but three samples, with an average over 89% for all samples. 137

138 **Discussion**

Despite known phenotypic differences in cultivated strains, *Crocosphaera watsonii* has only 139 been assayed as a single population in the environment because of a lack of known genetic variation 140 and an assumption that it behaves ecologically as a single population. The qPCR assays described in 141 this study are necessary to examine natural populations for differences in the phenotypically distinct 142 groups of *C. watsonii*. Testing of the novel qPCR primers and probes demonstrated that all four qPCR 143 assays were robust with no evidence of cross-reactivity or inhibition from un-targeted C. watsonii 144 phenotypes. Strong agreement between the total Crocosphaera nifH abundances and the sum of the 145 two sub-types (Fig. S2) illustrated that these two types make up the entire natural Crocosphaera 146 community, at least for the samples in this study. As such, this study presents important details of C. 147 148 watsonii distributions in the Pacific Ocean, as well as new and robust tools that can be used to further 149 examine *C. watsonii* populations in other ocean basins and during other seasons and years.

In the upper water column N. Pacific samples, small cell Crocosphaera abundances and 150 151 distributions were similar to total *nifH* abundances, and the large cell type *Crocosphaera* were much 152 less abundant. However, in deeper water, large cell abundances were often much higher than the small cell abundances in the same samples. Intriguingly, while total *Crocosphaera* abundances were 153 similar in surface water of the two locations, small cell types did not dominate the Crocosphaera 154 populations in the S. Pacific. In fact, large cell abundances were on par with small cell abundances 155 indicating that conditions in the surface mixed layer of the S. Pacific favored higher growth rates for 156 157 the large cell type (Fig. 4). However, at both locations, there was a slight dominance of large cell 158 *Crocosphaera* below 75 m. In addition, the dominance of total *Crocosphaera* populations by the small cell population (i.e. the high ratio of small: large cells when integrating over the water column) was 159 reduced in sediment trap samples relative to water column values collected in the N. Pacific, 160 161 particularly at 150 m depth. The dominance of large cells in deeper water and the overrepresentation 162 of large cell *Crocosphaera* in the sediment traps relative to the water column could be explained by any or all of the following; 1) faster sinking of the large cell type, 2) slower degradation of large cells during 163 sinking, or 3) preferential grazing of the small cell type. All three mechanisms would be enhanced by 164 165 EPS production in the large cells, emphasizing the importance of distinguishing the two types of *Crocosphaera* in the environment, since the two populations appear capable of playing different 166 ecological roles. A previous study carried out microscopic cell counts to quantify relative abundance 167 of two cell size classes of Crocosphaera in the western South Pacific (Webb et al., 2009). In that study, 168 the smaller cells were slightly more abundant than the larger cells, but populations were only 169 examined within a narrow depth range near the surface (6-14 m), so deeper water patterns cannot be 170 171 compared to the qPCR assays results of this study. Evidence of cell aggregation was seen in the large cells (Webb et al., 2009), which supports the possibility of differential export dynamics of the two 172

phenotypes, and is different from the results presented here which did not show evidence of 173 174 aggregation in the S. Pacific. Future experiments with additional environmental samples will be 175 needed to fully understand the export processes and the conditions that favor the two phenotypes. The principal component analyses carried out on the N. Pacific samples offer some clues about 176 177 which environmental factors may affect *Crocosphaera* abundances. The largest component (PC1) was 178 driven by factors that vary strongly with depth, and resulted in the samples clustering into three groups along the PC1 axis (Fig. 3). The statistically significant negative correlations with PC1 for both 179 Crocosphaera phenotypes probably illustrate their observed depth-related decline as well as their lack 180 181 of dependence on bioavailable nitrogen. In addition, the larger spread in PC1 for chl max samples was expected for samples that span the thermocline and contain the associated variability in depth-related 182 factors (Robidart et al., 2014). The second principal component (PC2) was driven by factors that 183 184 varied more from station to station, (as opposed to depth) and resulted in a spreading of the surface 185 and deep samples along this axis (Fig. 3). The correlation with phosphate and silicate observed (in surface samples) in large cells, and not

186 small cells, suggests the small cell type may be less dependent on phosphate. This is in contrast to 187 188 genomic evidence that suggests the small cell type is less adapted to low phosphorus conditions (i.e. fewer copies of phosphorus related genes) than the large cell strains (Bench et al., 2013). In chl max 189 samples (Fig. 3, green symbols), both cell types were significantly correlated with salinity. As salinity is 190 191 a conservative property of seawater, it appears that, within the chlorophyll max, Crocosphaera distributions may be driven by mixing of disparate water types, rather than biological interactions or 192 193 nutrient variation. Observing abundance patterns of the two cell types in other marine samples will 194 help strengthen (or refute) these observed correlations, and refine how researchers understand Crocosphaera ecology. 195

Because all C. watsonii isolates have cell diameters that range from 3.5 µm to ~6 µm (Webb et 196 al., 2009; Sohm et al., 2011), it is expected that the vast majority of naturally occurring C. watsonii cells 197 198 should pass through the 10 µm filter and be captured on the 0.2 µm filter (which were arranged in-line 199 as described in the methods). However, as discussed above, the large cell phenotype is also known to produce copious amount of EPS, and to form multi-cell aggregates as a result (Webb et al., 2009; Sohm 200 201 et al., 2011). Such aggregates could contribute to retention of the large cell type on the larger pore size filter, as was observed in microscopic examination of the *Crocosphaera* community in the western 202 203 South Pacific (Webb et al., 2009). In this study, the small cell type was found almost exclusively on the 0.2um filter in all samples in both ocean basins. However, in many of the N. Pacific samples, the 204 205 majority of large cells were found on 10um filters, supporting previous evidence of aggregation in the large cell type. 206

207 The smaller fraction of large cells captured on 10um filters in the deeper N. Pacific samples 208 could be explained by aggregates breaking up as they sink, or by grazing. The release of cells by these 209 processes would result in a larger proportion passing through the 10 µm filter. This explanation would mean that the presence of C. watsonii below 75 m is not indicative of those cells being active and 210 211 dividing (i.e. adapted to that depth), but rather a result of sinking and mixing. On the other hand, the apparent lack of aggregation observed in large cell Crocosphaera in all S. Pacific samples (rather than 212 just deeper samples) suggests those cells were producing less EPS. Evidence from cultures and 213 214 genomic data has shown that EPS production is an inherent, rather than inducible, trait in Crocosphaera (Sohm et al., 2011; Bench et al., 2013). As such, the much lower incidence of capture on 215 the 10 µm in the S. Pacific surface samples suggests that basin may have had a different large cell sub-216 type than the N. Pacific, where aggregation was more often observed. If that is the case, it will be 217 important to distinguish between the two large cell sub-types because a non-aggregating sub-type 218

would likely have export properties more similar to the small cell types. Additional genetic markers 219 220 will be needed to design and carry out experiments that could differentiate between the two potential 221 sub-types, and identify the physical and/or chemical conditions that are more favorable to each type. The three processes proposed above to explain the abundance patterns of the two size fractions 222 223 (aggregate break-down, grazing, and separate sup-types) have different predictions for the metabolic 224 state of the deeper population of cells. As such, it is unclear what contribution those cells may be making N_2 fixation at the deeper depths. Future experiments could assess the biogeochemical 225 226 contributions of the two sub-types using a variety of methods, including measuring sinking rates, 227 measuring N2-fixation rates in deep vs. shallow water, and by assessing the viability of the deeper population through physiological fluorescence measurements and/or gene expression levels of the two 228 229 groups.

230

231 **Conclusions**

The qPCR assays developed for this study provide a novel method for quantifying two 232 233 phenotypes of *Crocosphaera* that were previously treated as a single, globally distributed population. Resulting water column distribution patterns demonstrated, for the first time, that each phenotype has 234 a distinct biogeography, consistent with known phenotypic differences and suspected ecological 235 236 distinctions. Small cells were 10 to 1,000 times more abundant than large cells in the N. Pacific upper water column, but the two types were nearly equally represented throughout the water column in the 237 238 S. Pacific. Furthermore, the evidence of large cell aggregation observed in the N. Pacific samples was 239 not seen in the S. Pacific large cell populations. These patterns indicate that further sub-types of large cell Crocosphaera exist, with unique distributions the North and South Pacific, or alternatively, 240

241	differences in physiology and/or grazing rates between the phenotypes result in differing degrees of
242	aggregation in each basin. The observed patterns indicate that distinct controls determine the
243	distributions of the two Crocosphaera phenotypes. Because of the ecologically important differences
244	between the two phenotypes demonstrated here, quantifying C. watsonii as two distinct groups is
245	necessary for determining the global contribution of this keystone species to the carbon pump and
246	marine biogeochemical cycles.

247

248 **Experimental Procedures**

249 Design and testing of qPCR assays

250 Previous comparisons of six Crocosphaera watsonii genomes identified genes unique to each 251 phenotype (Bench et al., 2011; Bench et al., 2013). Two genes were chosen for each phenotype that were found in all genomes of one type, and were absent from all genomes of the other type. A primer-252 253 probe set was designed for each gene using Primer 3 (Rozen and Skaletsky, 1999) with a goal of 254 obtaining a T_m of 64°C for primers, and 74°C for probes. All four genes and corresponding primer and probe sequences were used in nucleotide BLAST searches against the CAMERA (Sun et al., 2011) and 255 GenBank NT and WGS (Benson et al., 2003) databases to verify that they did not have significant 256 257 sequence similarity to other known organisms. The genes used for primer and probe design and the 258 resulting sequences for all loci are listed in Table 1, with the design and testing of the *nifH* locus previously described (Moisander et al., 2010). Dual-label probes were synthesized with FAM 259 260 fluorescent tags and TAMRA quenchers. Reactions were set up in sterile PCR hoods using UV sterilized optical tubes or plates and contained $1.5 - 2 \mu l$ of template DNA plus $1 \mu l$ of each primer (10 μ M), 0.5 261 μl of probe (10 μM), 12.5 μl TaqMan Gene Expression 2X Master Mix (Life Technologies, Grand Island, 262 NY, USA), and water to a final volume of 25 µl. Amplification and detection was carried out on an ABI 263 7500 instrument using the following 2-step reaction: initial steps of 50°C for 2 minutes, then 95°C for 264 265 10 minutes, then 45 cycles of 90°C for 15 seconds, then 60°C for 60 seconds. Each run included 3 or 4 no template controls (NTCs) and a set of standards, in triplicate, with known gene copies from 10⁰ to 266 10^7 per reaction. Following each run, the threshold cycle (C_t) values for each standard were plotted 267 versus the log of its gene copy number to create a standard curve. The equation for that standard 268 curve was used to calculate the gene copies in each of the sample reactions from the same run. 269

Standards were made from amplified genomic DNA from C. watsonii strains of the appropriate 270 271 phenotype. To avoid amplifying DNA from contaminants in non-axenic cultures, cells were sorted 272 using a flow cytometer prior to whole genome amplification (WGA) with Repli-g (Qiagen, Germantown, MD, USA). The sorting and WGA were carried out as described in the methods used for genome 273 sequencing of C. watsonii strains (Bench et al., 2011; Bench et al., 2013). Amplified genomic DNA was 274 quantified using Pico Green (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA), and genome copies/µl were 275 calculated based on the DNA concentration and the genome sizes (Bench et al., 2013). Appropriate 276 dilutions were made to generate a set of standards that contained 10^{0} to 10^{7} genome copies in 2 μ l 277 (the volume used in each reaction). Multiple sets of the prepared genomic standards were compared 278 in triplicate to nifH linearized plasmid standards to verify the DNA quantification, and relative reaction 279 efficiency, and no significant differences were observed between the plasmid and any of the genomic 280 281 standards.

282 Tests for cross reactivity and inhibition were carried out for all loci using multiple mixtures of 283 DNA from different C. watsonii strains. Names and phenotypes of C. watsonii strains used are listed in Table S1. Four test mixtures contained genomic DNA from WH8501 and WH0003 strains in the 284 following ratios: 1:3, 3:1, 1:10, and 10:1. Eight additional test mixtures contained WH8501 or WH0003 285 DNA mixed with 3-fold more DNA (final ratio of 1:3) from one of four additional strains (WH8502, 286 WH0401, WH0401, and WH0005). The primer-probe set for each locus was tested for amplification 287 and inhibition in triplicate qPCR reactions with the 12 different mixtures, which ranged over an order in 288 magnitude in target DNA and non-target DNA concentrations, and included samples that contained 289 only target DNA as well as only non-target DNA. Copy numbers from qPCR reactions were consistent 290 291 with DNA concentrations used in each reaction, and there was no amplification in any of the samples that did not contain target DNA (Table S1). Because there was no observed cross-reactivity or 292

inhibition from non-target strains, all four primer-probe sets were determined to be appropriate foruse in environmental samples.

295

296 Sample collection, DNA extraction and qPCR of cruise samples

South Pacific samples were collected during the R/V Kilo Moana cruise KM0703 in March and 297 298 April of 2007. Cruise station locations as well as methods for water sample collection and processing and DNA extraction were described previously (Moisander *et al.*, 2010). North Pacific samples were 299 300 collected at 8 stations during the BioLINCS cruise in September of 2011 just north of Station Aloha (Fig. 301 5). At each station, water samples were collected from multiple discrete depths (5, 25, 45, 75, 100, 125, 150, 175 m) with Niskin bottles mounted on a CTD rosette. Two to three liters of collected water 302 was filtered through two in-line Durapore filters (10 μm pore size, followed by 0.2 μm pore size). 303 304 Filters were placed in bead beater tubes with sterile glass beads, immediately flash-frozen in liquid 305 nitrogen and subsequently stored at -80°C until DNA was extracted. Sediment trap samples were 306 collected from seven depths (the three used in this study are 100, 150 and 500m) using a drifting sediment trap that was deployed near Station 5 (Fig. 5). The trap drifted northeastward during the 307 308 BioLINCS cruise, on a track that was approximately 30^o northeastward of the ship transit. In order to relate qPCR abundances of ecotypes sampled from the ship's CTD Niskin bottles to samples collected in 309 the drifting sediment traps, samples exclusively from the ship's northeast trajectory were used. Details 310 311 of the sediment trap deployment, drift track and sample collection are described in Wilson et al. (2014). Because the volume of sea water that contributed to the sediment trap samples is not known, 312 Crocosphaera abundances "per sample" are reported, and ratios of the two phenotypes (rather than 313 314 actual abundances) are used for comparisons between sediment trap samples and water column data. In addition, water column abundances of each Crocosphaera type were integrated over equivalent 315

depths to the sediment traps (100 m, or 150 m), and the depth-integrated totals were used to calculate the ratio of small to large cells at each station. The ratios were then averaged over the six stations that approximated the multi-day drift track of the sediment trap in order to approximate the average water column populations above the sediment trap during its deployment.

The DNA extraction protocol used for N. Pacific samples is a slight adaptation of the modified 320 321 DNeasy Plant MiniKit (Qiagen) protocol used to extract the S. Pacific samples (Moisander et al., 2008; Moisander et al., 2010). Filters were thawed and 400 µl of AP1 buffer (provided in kit) was added to 322 323 each tube. Samples were subjected to three freeze-thaw cycles of rapid freezing in liquid N₂, followed 324 by rapid thawing in a 65°C heat block. The samples were then bead-beat in Mini-Beadbeater-96 (Biospec Inc.) for 2 minutes. Tubes were centrifuged briefly prior to addition of 45 µl (20 mg/ml) of 325 Proteinase K (Qiagen), vortexed briefly and incubated (with rocking) at 55°C for 1 hour. An RNaseA 326 327 digestion was then carried out by adding 4 µl of RNaseA to each sample, vortexing and incubating at 328 65°C for 10 minutes. The filters were removed from the tubes, and 130 μl of AP2 buffer (provided in 329 kit) was added to each tube followed by a brief vortex and a 10 minute incubation on ice. Tubes were spun for 5 minutes at 14,000 RPM to pellet beads large precipitates, and the supernatant for each 330 331 sample was transferred to sterile 2 ml locking Sample tubes RB (Qiagen). DNA was extracted from the transferred supernatant using the standard reagents and protocols for "Plant Cell & Tissues" with the 332 "DNeasy Plant Mini" kit in the QIAcube instrument (Qiagen). The final elution volume for each sample 333 was 100 µl. 334

The qPCR assays of environmental samples used the same reaction contents (except template DNA), genomic DNA standards, and cycling conditions were as described for primer-probe testing above. DNA extracts were diluted 1:5 (N. Pacific samples) or 1:1 (S. Pacific samples) and 1.5 μl of the dilution was used in triplicate reactions. For the N. Pacific samples, *nifH* reactions contained 2 μl of 339 undiluted DNA extract in duplicate reactions. For the S. Pacific samples, previously determined *nifH*

abundance values (Moisander *et al.*, 2010) were used.

341

342 Acknowledgements

- 343 The authors would like to thank Pia Moisander, Kendra Turk-Kubo, and Ariel Rabines for
- 344 collecting samples and carrying out DNA extractions, as well as the captains and crew of the R/V Kilo
- 345 Moana during both research cruises. This work was funded by the NSF Center for Microbial
- 346 Oceanography: Research and Education (EF0424599) and by grants to JP Zehr from the Gordon and
- 347 Betty Moore Foundation.
- 348

352

355

358

361

364

367

349 **References**

- Bench, S.R., Ilikchyan, I.N., Tripp, H.J., and Zehr, J.P. (2011) Two strains of *Crocosphaera watsonii* with highly
 conserved genomes are distinguished by strain-specific features. Front Microbiol 2: 1-13.
- Bench, S.R., Heller, P., Frank, I., Arciniega, M., Shilova, I.N., and Zehr, J.P. (2013) Whole genome comparison of six *Crocosphaera watsonii* strains with differing phenotypes. J Phycol 49: 786-801.
- Benson, D.A., Karsch-Mizrachi, I., Lipman, D.J., Ostell, J., and Wheeler, D.L. (2003) GenBank. Nucleic Acids Res
 31: 23-27.
- Church, M.J., Jenkins, B.D., Karl, D.M., and Zehr, J.P. (2005) Vertical distributions of nitrogen-fixing phylotypes at
 Stn ALOHA in the oligotrophic North Pacific Ocean. Aquat Microb Ecol 38: 3-14.
- Church, M.J., Bjorkman, K.M., Karl, D.M., Saito, M.A., and Zehr, J.P. (2008) Regional distributions of nitrogen fixing bacteria in the Pacific Ocean. Limnol Oceanogr 53: 63-77.
- Dyhrman, S.T., and Haley, S.T. (2006) Phosphorus scavenging in the unicellular marine diazotroph *Crocosphaera watsonii*. Appl Environ Microbiol 72: 1452-1458.
- Falcon, L.I., Carpenter, E.J., Cipriano, F., Bergman, B., and Capone, D.G. (2004) N₂ Fixation by unicellular
 bacterioplankton from the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans: phylogeny and in situ rates. Appl Environ Microbiol 70:
 765-770.
- 371
- Kitajima, S., Furuya, K., Hashihama, F., Takeda, S., and Kanda, J. (2009) Latitudinal distribution of diazotrophs and
 their nitrogen fixation in the tropical and subtropical western North Pacific. Limnol Oceanogr 54: 537-547.

374	
375	Langlois, R.J., Hummer, D., and LaRoche, J. (2008) Abundances and distributions of the dominant nifH phylotypes
376	in the Northern Atlantic Ocean. Appl Environ Microbiol 74: 1922-1931.
377	
378	Moisander, P.H., Beinart, R.A., Voss, M., and Zehr, J.P. (2008) Diversity and abundance of diazotrophic
379	microorganisms in the South China Sea during intermonsoon. ISME J 2: 954-967.
380	
381	Moisander, P.H., Beinart, R.A., Hewson, I., White, A.E., Johnson, K.S., Carlson, C.A. et al. (2010) Unicellular
382	cyanobacterial distributions broaden the oceanic N_2 fixation domain. Science 327: 1512-1514.
383	
384	Montoya, J.P., Holl, C.M., Zehr, J.P., Hansen, A., Villareal, T.A., and Capone, D.G. (2004) High rates of N ₂ fixation
385	by unicellular diazotrophs in the oligotrophic Pacific Ocean. Nature 430: 1027-1031.
386	
387	Passow, U., Shipe, R.F., Murray, A., Pak, D.K., Brzezinski, M.A., and Alldredge, A.L. (2001) The origin of
388	transparent exopolymer particles (TEP) and their role in the sedimentation of particulate matter. Cont Shelf Res
389	21: 327-346.
390	Densing C. Zille, A. Misheletti, C. Manadas Ferrains, D. Dhilingia, D.D. and Tenservini, D. (2000). Complexity of
391	Pereira, S., Zilie, A., Micheletti, E., Moradas-Ferreira, P., Philippis, R.D., and Tamagnini, P. (2009) Complexity of
392	cyanobacterial exopolysaccharides: composition, structures, inducing factors and putative genes involved in
393	their biosynthesis and assembly. FEIVIS MICrobiol Rev 33: 917-941.
394 205	Pobidart I.C. Church M.L. Byan, I.B. Accani, F. Wilson, S.T. Bombar, D. et al. (2014) Ecogonomic concor
206	rougels controls on N2 fixing microorganisms in the North Pacific Ocean ISME 1.9: 1175-1185
207	reveals controls on we-maing microorganisms in the worth Facilic Ocean. Isivil 3 8. 1175-1185.
398	Rozen S, and Skaletsky, H. (1999) Primer3 on the WWW for general users and for biologist programmers. In
399	Right Research and Protocols Misener S and Krawetz SA (eds) Totowa NI: Humana Press np 365-
400	
401	
402	Sohm, J.A., Edwards, B.R., Wilson, B.G., and Webb, E.A. (2011) Constitutive extracellular polysaccharide (EPS)
403	production by specific isolates of <i>Crocosphaera watsonii</i> . Front Microbiol 2.
404	
405	Sun, S., Chen, J., Li, W., Altintas, I., Lin, A., Peltier, S. et al. (2011) Community cyberinfrastructure for Advanced
406	Microbial Ecology Research and Analysis: the CAMERA resource. Nucleic Acids Res 39: D546-D551.
407	
408	Webb, E.A., Ehrenreich, I.M., Brown, S.L., Valois, F.W., and Waterbury, J.B. (2009) Phenotypic and genotypic
409	characterization of multiple strains of the diazotrophic cyanobacterium, Crocosphaera watsonii, isolated from
410	the open ocean. Environ Microbiol 11: 338-348.
411	
412	Wilson, S.T., del Valle, D.A., Segura-Noguera, M., and Karl, D.M. (2014) A role for nitrite in the production of
413	nitrous oxide in the lower euphotic zone of the oligotrophic North Pacific Ocean. Deep Sea Research Part I:
414	Oceanographic Research Papers 85: 47-55.
415	
416	Zehr, J.P., Bench, S.R., Mondragon, E.A., McCarren, J., and DeLong, E.F. (2007) Low genomic diversity in tropical
417	oceanic N ₂ -fixing cyanobacteria. P Natl Acad Sci USA 104: 17807-17812.
418	
/10	Zehr I.P. Waterbury I.B. Turner P.I. Montova I.P. Omorogia E. Staward G.E. et al. (2001) Unicellular
420	$2 \cos(3.3.7)$, water bury, $3.5.7$, ramer, $1.3.7$, wontoya, $3.7.7$, onlonge, 1.7 , $3 \cos(3.7, 0.7)$, 1.2001 , Onleendal
120	

421 **Table and Figure legends**

422

Table 1. Primer and probe sequences and gene source for qPCR assays. (All sequences area shown in 5'to 3' direction).

425

Figure 1. Abundances for total (top panel) and two phenotypic sub-groups (middle and bottom) of *Crocosphaera watsonii* in samples collected during the BioLINCS cruise (station locations shown in Fig.
5). Gene copy numbers for all three assays are the sum of both size fractions for each sample, see
supplemental material for plots of abundances of each size fraction.

430

431 Figure 2. Fraction of total abundance (i.e. the sum of both size fractions) found on 0.2mm filter for the

432 small-cell phenotype of *Crocosphaera watsonii* (upper panel) and for the large-cell phenotype (lower

433 panel) in samples collected during the BioLINCS cruise (station locations shown in Fig. 5, and

434 abundances on each filter are shown in supplemental material (figures S4 and S5).

Figure 3. Principal component analysis of BioLINCS (N. Pacific) water samples. Symbols indicate depth where water sample was collected and are clustered into three depth-related groups, with surface samples in orange symbols, chl max in green, and deep samples in blue. Projections of environmental variables (red arrows) and *Crocosphaera watsonii* abundances (sum of both filters, purple arrows) are shown in the PC space multiplied by 10 and 5 respectively. PCA analysis did not include the depth as a variable. Total variance covered by the two components is 78% (48% by PC1 and 30% by PC2).

441 Figure 4. Abundances of two Crocosphaera watsonii phenotypes in North Pacific (A) and South Pacific

442 (C) plotted according to the depth where each water sample was collected. The ratio of the two

443 phenotypes (small:large) is also shown for each of the N. Pacific (B) and the S. Pacific (D) samples.

Figure 5. Sample locations and station numbers in the Pacific Ocean. South Pacific samples were collected in 2007, and North Pacific samples (details in inset) were collected in 2011.