

1 **There and back again – unraveling mechanisms of bacterial biogeography in**
2 **the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre to and from station ALOHA**

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17
18 **Abstract**

19 Bacterially-mediated fluxes of energy and matter are dynamic in time and space coupled with
20 shifts in bacterial community structure. Yet, our understanding of mechanisms shaping
21 bacterial biogeography remains limited. Near-surface seawater was collected during transits
22 between Honolulu and Station ALOHA in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre to examine the
23 shape of occupancy-frequency distributions (the different number of populations occupying
24 different number of sites) and determine bacterial metapopulation dynamics. Bacterial 16S
25 rRNA gene amplicons were sequenced from whole seawater and filter-size fractionated
26 plankton DNA samples while also separating the community into distinct taxonomic groups
27 at phyla/class and analyzing these compartments separately. For the total seawater (i.e. the
28 >0.2 µm size fraction) and picoplankton communities (i.e. the size fraction >0.2 µm and < 3.0
29 µm), but not the large size fraction community (i.e. the >3.0 µm size fraction), most
30 individual operational taxonomic units (OTUs) occupied a single site and the number of
31 OTUs occupying different number of sites followed a significant bimodal pattern with several
32 core OTUs occupying all sites. Nevertheless, only Cyanobacteria (in particular
33 *Prochlorococcus* sp.) and in a few instances also Alphaproteobacteria (in particular SAR11

34 clade and Aegan-169 marine group bacteria) exhibited bimodal occupancy-frequency
35 patterns. As expected, *Prochlorococcus* sp. had an inversed bimodal occupancy-frequency
36 distribution with most OTUs found at all sites. Yet, there were individual satellite OTUs
37 affiliated with *Prochlorococcus* sp. that were phylogenetically distinct from the core OTUs
38 and only found at a single site. Collectively, these findings indicate that different
39 compartments (size fractions and taxa) have different metapopulation dynamics. Bimodal
40 patterns among the low diversity total and picoplankton communities but not in the high
41 diversity large size fraction suggest that positive feedbacks between local abundance and
42 occupancy are important when environmental conditions are homogenous and diversity is
43 low.

44 **Introduction**

45 Spatial and temporal variability in bacterial population dynamics influence nutrient cycling in
46 aquatic systems (Crump et al., 2004; Kirchman et al., 2005; Fuhrman et al., 2006; Galand et
47 al., 2010; Lindström et al., 2010; Östman et al., 2010; Alonso-Saez et al., 2015). Yet, despite
48 observable biogeographical patterns among marine microbial assemblages (see e.g. Pommier
49 et al., 2007; Ghiglione et al., 2012; Sunagawa et al., 2015; Salazar et al., 2016), the
50 mechanisms shaping microbial biogeography remain largely unknown (Martiny et al., 2006;
51 Hanson et al., 2012; Poisot et al., 2013).

52 With the introduction of high-throughput sequencing, and large sequence
53 datasets enabled by these technologies, microbial ecologists are now able to test a wide
54 variety of theoretical ecological models that are the foundation for mechanisms explaining
55 macroecological patterns among larger taxa (Purdy et al., 2010; Poisot et al., 2013). Such
56 theoretical models, including, but not limited to, metacommunity (Leibold et al., 2004) and
57 metapopulation (McGeoch and Gaston, 2002) frameworks have provided mechanistic
58 concepts in ecology among organisms ranging from birds to fish and insects to phytoplankton
59 (Levin, 1974; Hanski, 1982; Gotelli, 1991; Tokeshi, 1992; Hanski and Gyllenberg, 1993; van
60 Rensburg et al., 2000; Hubbell, 2001; Mehranvar and Jackson, 2001; Mouquet and Loreau M,
61 2002; Verberk et al., 2010; Unterseher et al., 2011; Wardle et al., 2011; Hercos et al., 2013).

62 Two models; Hanski's core and satellite hypothesis (CSH; (Hanski, 1982) and
63 Levin's model (Levin, 1974), were recently empirically tested and used to explain distribution
64 patterns among marine bacteria that are typically assumed not to be dispersal limited (Lindh
65 et al., 2016). In the study bimodal occupancy-frequency patterns (i.e. the number of species
66 occupying different number of sites) were found and the CSH model agreed well with
67 observed data in the Baltic Sea and in global datasets, indicating its applicability also for
68 marine microbes. The CSH model provides a mechanistic basis for the observation of

69 abundant (core) and rare (satellite) species in ecosystems. In brief, the CSH makes predictions
70 of the shape of occupancy-frequency distributions from variation in colonization and
71 extinction rates (i.e. populations successfully dispersed to previously unoccupied sites vs.
72 populations disappearing from previously occupied sites). In the CSH the bimodal
73 occupancy-frequency distributions are the result of stochastic variation in colonization and
74 extinction rates (i.e. a quadratic relationship between colonization/extinction rates and
75 occupancy) that either push populations to become rare or abundant. Nevertheless, empirical
76 data from examining the applicability of metapopulation models to marine bacterial
77 assemblages are limited.

78 In the present paper the prevalence of bimodal occupancy-frequency patterns
79 were examined in the oligotrophic North Pacific Ocean and among different taxa and/or size
80 fractions of a bacterial community. The main hypothesis was that in this relatively
81 homogenous oligotrophic ocean environment bimodal patterns, reflecting a coherent oceanic
82 region without dispersal limitation and environmental filtering, could be a common feature
83 among marine bacteria. The second hypothesis was that taxa with different dispersal
84 capability and filtered by various environmental conditions could display different
85 metapopulation dynamics. The third hypothesis was that since *Prochlorococcus* sp. is the
86 dominant bacteria found in this system (Schmidt et al., 1991; Campbell and Vaulot, 1993;
87 Eiler et al., 2011) much of the observed metapopulation dynamics could be driven by this key
88 organism but that there may be core- and satellite distribution patterns within the same genus.
89 To test these hypotheses, bacterial 16S rRNA amplicons were sequenced from whole
90 seawater and filter size fractionated community DNA, sampled from the near-surface ocean
91 on a series of cruise transects between Honolulu and station ALOHA (22.75° N, 158° W) in
92 the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre. The observed bacterial populations were subsequently
93 fitted to different theoretical metapopulation models.

94 **Material and Methods**

95 *Field sampling*

96 Seawater samples for subsequent extraction of plankton DNA were collected during 4
97 research cruises (October 2015, HOT 277; November 2015, KM1519; December 2015,
98 KM1521; and January 2016, HOT 280) offshore of the Hawaiian island of Oahu aboard the
99 R/V Ka'imikai-O-kanaloa and R/V *Kilo Moana*. Seawater was collected from the research
100 vessels' flow-through seawater intake systems into acid-washed, Milli-Q rinsed
101 polycarbonate bottles. The flow-through seawater system was instrumented to include a
102 thermosalinometer (SeaBird 911), fluorometer (Seapoint Chlorophyll Fluorometer; Seapoint
103 Sensors, Inc.) and dissolved oxygen (O₂) sensor (SBE 43; Sea-Bird Electronics). On all
104 cruises, plankton biomass for subsequent DNA extraction was harvested by filtering 2 L of
105 seawater on to 25 mm diameter, 0.2 µm pore size polyethersulfone filters (Supor membrane,
106 Pall). In addition, on two of the cruises (December 2015 and January 2016) plankton biomass
107 were also sequentially filter size-fractionated samples for subsequent extraction of DNA for
108 information on bacterial community structure among different plankton size classes. During
109 these cruises, seawater was filtered onto 25 mm diameter, 3.0 µm pore size polycarbonate
110 membranes (Millipore), followed by filtration onto 25 mm diameter, 0.2 µm pore size Supor
111 filters. The various filter size-fractionated bacterial communities were defined as: total (>0.2
112 µm), picoplankton (>0.2 and <3 µm) and large (>3 µm), respectively. Filters were stored at -
113 80°C until extraction.

114 Coincident samples for measurement of bacterial abundance and production
115 were collected from the vessels' flow-through seawater system. Seawater for determination
116 of bacterial abundance was subsampled into 2 ml cryotubes (BD Falcon) preserved with 20
117 µL paraformaldehyde (Final concentration 0.2%; Sigma-Aldrich). Triplicate 1.5 ml samples
118 for subsequent measurements of ³H-leucine incorporation rates were aliquoted into 2.0 ml

119 microcentrifuge tubes (Axygen; (Pace et al., 2004)) and amended with 20 nM (final
120 concentration) of ³H-leucine stock (3, 4, 5 -³H-leucine, 109 Ci/mmol; Perkin-Elmer). One
121 killed control was included from each station sampled (5% final concentration of
122 trichloroacetic acid; Sigma-Aldrich). Samples for ³H-leucine incorporation rates were
123 incubated shipboard at *in situ* temperatures following the ³H-leucine incorporation protocol
124 described in (Kirchman et al., 1985) and (Smith and Azam, 1992). Preserved bacterial
125 abundance and killed ³H-leucine incorporation rate samples were flash frozen in liquid
126 nitrogen and stored at -80° C until processing in the laboratory. Preserved bacterial abundance
127 samples were thawed, and aliquoted into 250 µl wells and stained with 2.5µl µl of 100X
128 SybrGreen (Thermo Fisher) and enumerated using an Attune™ acoustic focusing flow
129 cytometer (Applied Biosystems). ³H-leucine incorporation rates samples were processed
130 following a modified method of the microcentrifuge method as described in (Smith and
131 Azam, 1992). A detailed description of the ³H-leucine incorporation protocol can be found in
132 (Viviani and Church, 2017).

133

134 *DNA extraction, PCR, sequence processing and analysis.*

135 DNA was extracted from the filters using the DNeasy Plant MiniKit (Qiagen) following slight
136 modifications of the manufacturer's suggestions. Modifications included the addition of
137 Proteinase K to the lysis buffer followed by bead-beating with 0.1 mm and 0.5 mm glass beads
138 (Biospec products) for additional cell disruption prior to the extraction. DNA concentrations were
139 determined using the Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer and Qubit dsDNA High Sensitivity Assay kit
140 (Molecular Probes), with DNA quality checked using 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis. Extracted
141 DNA was stored at -80°C.

142 Amplicon processing for all samples was performed as described in (Lindh et al., 2015).

143 Bacterial 16S rRNA was amplified using primers 341F and 805R (Herlemann et al., 2011)

144 following the PCR protocol of (Hugerth et al., 2014). Amplicons were purified by spin-column
145 centrifugation using E.Z.N.A.® Cycle Pure kit (Omega Biotek). The resulting purified amplicons
146 were pooled in equimolar concentration and sequenced on an Illumina Miseq (Illumina, USA)
147 platform at the Hawai'i Institute for Marine Biology (HIMB), Hawaii, USA using the 300 bp
148 paired-end setting. Raw sequence data generated from Illumina Miseq were processed using the
149 UPARSE pipeline (Edgar, 2013). Taxonomy was determined against the SINA/SILVA database
150 (SILVA123; (Quast et al., 2013)). After quality filtering and discarding plastid and archaeal
151 sequences a total of 1.25 million bacterial sequences were utilized for subsequent analyses. Thus,
152 the final OTU table consisted of 96 samples with 27340 OTUs delineated at 99% 16S rRNA gene
153 identity with an average of 13093 ± 5644 sequences per sample. For all alpha diversity measures
154 the OTU table were subsampled to 10,000 sequences per sample. DNA sequences have been
155 deposited in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive
156 under accession number SRP091841.

157

158 *Statistical tests*

159 Occupancy-frequency distributions (the number of OTUs occupying different
160 number of sites) were analyzed as described in (Lindh et al., 2016). In brief, an equivalent to
161 Tokeshi's test of bimodality was performed using Mitchell-Olds' and Shaw's test (Mitchell-
162 Olds and Shaw, 1987) for the location of quadratic extremes. Colonization and extinction
163 rates of OTUs were determined by calculating the change in fraction of sites occupied
164 between two cruises where the same stations were sampled with <1 month interval. Non-
165 linear least squares analysis of observed colonization and extinction rates was performed
166 using the equations of Levin's model, the CSH hypothesis and Gotelli's propagule rain model
167 (Levin, 1974; Hanski, 1982; Gotelli, 1991).

168 All statistical tests were performed in R 3.3.3 (Team, 2014) using the package "Vegan"

169 (Jari Oksanen et al., 2010). Graphical outputs were made in R 3.3.3 using the package “ggplot2”
170 (Wickham, 2009).

171

172 **Results**

173 In the present study bacterial population dynamics and biogeography were examined during 4
174 research cruises in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (Fig. 1). For all four transects (total 96
175 samples) 27,340 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were detected. A more exhaustive
176 sampling was performed in the October 2015 cruise with measurements of a larger set of
177 biotic and abiotic measurements and is thus the focus in the present paper. An additional
178 cruise with a different transect (November 2015) to the Southwest of Oahu were performed to
179 compare patterns observed in the October 2015 cruise. Finally, on two cruises (December
180 2015 and January 2016), samples were filter size-fractionated for information on bacterial
181 diversity associated with differing size classes of plankton (>3 μm , >0.2 and <3.0 μm , and
182 >0.2 μm , large, picoplankton and total, respectively).

183

184 *Physicochemical conditions, community abundance, production and biodiversity*

185 Across the 200 km transect to Station ALOHA (October 2015) concentrations of Chl *a* and
186 sea surface temperatures were relatively stable in space, averaging 0.6 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and 26°C,
187 respectively (Fig. 2). Bacterial abundance varied ~2-fold (ranging 5.73 $\times 10^5$ cells ml^{-1} to 9.13
188 $\times 10^5$ cells ml^{-1} ; Fig. 2). ^3H -leucine incorporation rates ranged between 13 and 37 pmol Leu L^{-1}
189 h^{-1} (Fig. 2). Variation in bacterial abundance and production was overall small (SD = 0.7 $\times 10^5$
190 cells ml^{-1} and SD = 6 pmol Leu $\text{L}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$; Fig. 2).

191 The number of OTUs varied between 371 and 1037 but appeared relatively
192 stable in space and time (SD = 145.34). Estimation of alpha diversity followed a similar trend
193 where Shannon diversity index and Chao 1 richness varied between 3.99 and 5.06 and 903.45

194 to 2256.88, respectively. Alpha diversity for the total community was also stable within all
195 other cruises around the same range as observed during October 2015 (Fig. S1A). During the
196 December 2015 and January 2016 transect, size fractionation of plankton DNA samples
197 revealed higher alpha diversity in the larger size fraction (3.0 μm filter fraction) compared to
198 the total ($>0.2 \mu\text{m}$) and picoplankton fraction (0.2 and 3.0 μm ; Fig. S1A).

199

200 *Bacterial community composition*

201 In all cruises the total and picoplankton communities were dominated by Cyanobacteria
202 (averaging ~50% of total sequences), with bacteria that were affiliated with several other
203 phyla or classes not included in the taxonomic analysis or unclassified OTUs comprising
204 nearly 25% of the total sequences (Fig. 3). Actinobacteria and Alphaproteobacteria each
205 typically contributed to ~5% of total sequences in these communities. In the December 2015
206 and January 2016 cruises the large size class bacterial assemblages were more diverse than
207 other size classes of bacteria, with notable increases in relative abundances of
208 Alphaproteobacteria, Planctomycetes, Chloroflexi and Bacteroidetes (Fig. 3B). However,
209 Cyanobacteria were also dominating the large size class communities. Cluster analysis of
210 Bray-Curtis distances obtained from samples in the October 2015 cruise showed a largely
211 similar community structure (~15% dissimilarity), resulting in samples from near-shore
212 coastal sites clustering with samples from the open ocean sites (Fig. 3).

213 Among the top ten most abundant OTUs all were affiliated with
214 *Prochlorococcus* sp., demonstrating homogenous relative abundances along the transect (Fig
215 S2). Other less abundant OTUs that exhibited variance in relative abundance along the
216 transect, included the OM-1 clade bacteria (*Candidatus Actinomarina*) and OTUs within the
217 family *Rhodospirillaceae* affiliated with AEGEAN-169 marine group. Notably, the OM-1
218 clade bacteria appeared relatively enriched in a localized region north of Oahu (22° N, see

219 arrows Fig. S3). Nevertheless, the variation in relative abundance among these OTUs was
220 low.

221

222 *Occupancy-frequency distributions*

223 The number of different species occupying different number of sites sampled during the
224 transects were also examined to evaluate the shape of occupancy-frequency distributions.
225 Bacterial communities sampled during the October 2015 cruise displayed a significant
226 bimodal occupancy-frequency pattern. Most OTUs were found at a single site followed by a
227 monotonical decrease in the number of OTUs occupying increasing number of sites but with a
228 peak in the number of OTUs occupying all sites (Fig. 4A; Table S1). As this transect
229 contained several samples obtained from around Station ALOHA this dataset were
230 subsampled to only show stations 3, 6, 9, 13, 33 and 47 to keep a clear transect trajectory
231 profile with distinct sites (see insert Fig. 4A). This subsampling exercise confirmed the
232 significant bimodal pattern. In addition, samples from completely different stations in a
233 trajectory 30 km Southeast of Honolulu were collected to validate the shape of occupancy-
234 frequency distribution found in the Honolulu-Station ALOHA transect. Also for this transect
235 a significant bimodal pattern were found (see insert Fig. 4A).

236 The main hypotheses were that different parts of a bacterial community may
237 exhibit different metapopulation dynamics; for example, taxa distributed among the
238 picoplankton and larger bacterial assemblages might have different dispersal capabilities and
239 be subjected to different environmental filters. To elucidate differences between such
240 compartments the total community from the October 2015 cruise and size-fractionated
241 communities from the December 2015 and January 2016 cruises were examined and taxa
242 were analyzed at different taxonomic levels. Similar to the “total” community, the
243 picoplankton assemblage demonstrated significant bimodal patterns (Fig. 4B; Table S1); in

244 contrast, for the “large” bacterial size classes most OTUs were found at a single site followed
245 by a monotonical decrease in the number of OTUs occupying increasing number of sites.
246 Thus, in contrast to the picoplankton and total communities, the large size fractions exhibited
247 unimodal occupancy-frequency patterns (Fig. 4B; Table S1). In addition, for particular OTUs
248 binned at the phyla/class level detected in the October 2015 cruise varying occupancy-
249 frequency distributions were observed. In fact, only Planctomycetes, Alphaproteobacteria,
250 and Cyanobacteria contained OTUs that were found at all sites and only the latter two
251 displayed bimodal patterns (Fig. S4; Table S1). Cyanobacteria had the most substantial
252 bimodal pattern with a strong peak in number of OTUs occupying all sites. Moreover, most
253 OTUs binned at the phyla/class level exhibited unimodal patterns for picoplankton and large
254 size class communities (Fig. S5; Table S1).

255 More than 50% (64 out of 108) of the core OTUs detected from the October
256 2015 cruise was affiliated with *Prochlorococcus* sp. (Fig. 3; S6A). When analyzed separately,
257 *Prochlorococcus* sp. OTUs exhibited a strong right-skewed occupancy-frequency distribution
258 in the total and picoplankton size classes, with most OTUs occupying all sites. There were
259 satellite phylotypes among the *Prochlorococcus* sp. affiliated OTUs detected at only a single
260 site (Fig. S6). Notably, for the *Prochlorococcus* sp. OTUs in the large size class communities,
261 neither unimodal nor bimodal occupancy-frequency patterns were detected (Fig. S6B). By
262 analyzing phylogenetically distinct *Prochlorococcus* sp. OTUs and comparing those OTUs
263 detected at all sites (core) vs. the OTUs only found in a single site (satellite) phylogenetic
264 differences in core/satellite characteristics among closely related populations were examined.
265 This analysis revealed that the most abundant core *Prochlorococcus* sp. OTUs were
266 phylogenetically distinct from the most frequently observed satellite OTUs within the same
267 genus (Fig. S7).

268

269 *Colonization and extinction rates*

270 In the CSH (Hanski, 1982) predicted bimodal occupancy-frequency distributions of species
271 based on stochastic variation in colonization and extinction rates following a quadratic
272 relationship between these rates and occupancy. By calculating the number of OTUs
273 successfully dispersed to new sites compared to the number of OTUs that disappeared from
274 occupied sites colonization and extinction rates was estimated (Fig. 5). These calculations
275 were performed using the December 2015 and January 2016 cruises where the same stations
276 were sampled allowing for the observation of temporal changes in the number of occupied
277 sites (dP/dt).

278 The total bacterial community was characterized by a quadratic curve for both
279 colonization and extinction rates. Notably, extinction rates were higher than colonization rates
280 with a more distinct quadratic curve (Fig. 5A). Both colonization and extinction rates fitted
281 well with the quadratic relationship described by the CSH (Hanski, 1982). For the
282 picoplankton and large size class communities, the relationship between colonization rates
283 and occupancy were more difficult to determine and none of the models tested resulted in
284 robust fits to the observations (Fig. 5A). However, for the large plankton size class, extinction
285 rates aligned well with the expectation of a linear relationship between extinction rates and
286 occupancy as described in Levin's model (Levin, 1974).

287 At the Phyla/Class level rates of colonization and extinction were plotted against
288 occupancy for major bacterial lineages (Fig. 5B). Both Alphaproteobacteria and
289 Cyanobacteria demonstrated quadratic relationships between extinction rates and occupancy
290 in the total community. However, as above, colonization rates were more difficult to
291 characterize. It was noteworthy that the extinction rates were both higher and more
292 pronounced compared to colonization rates. Planctomycetes, Bacteroidetes and
293 Gammaproteobacteria demonstrated curves that initially appeared to follow a quadratic

294 relationship between extinction rates and occupancy, but either decreased followed by an
295 increase in extinction rates with occupancy (Planctomycetes and Gammaproteobacteria)
296 and/or did not decrease rapidly at maximum occupancy (Bacteroidetes). Unlike the patterns
297 for all of the OTUs in the overall community analysis, resulting patterns among the
298 picoplankton and large size class bacterial communities at phyla/class level were more
299 difficult to validate using the different metapopulation models. Nevertheless, extinction rates
300 among OTUs binned at phyla/class for the larger size class communities displayed a tendency
301 toward a linear relationship between extinction rates and occupancy thus following Levin's
302 model (Levin, 1974) (Fig. 5B).

303

304 **Discussion**

305 In the present paper metapopulation models were applied to describe bacterial
306 community dynamics observed in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre to elucidate
307 mechanisms shaping biogeography. The results highlight that bimodal occupancy-frequency
308 patterns are prominent in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre but only among specific size
309 classes and taxa of the bacterial communities. Total ($\geq 0.2 \mu\text{m}$ size fraction) and
310 picoplanktonic ($\geq 0.2 \mu\text{m} \leq 3.0 \mu\text{m}$ size fraction) communities typically displayed bimodal
311 patterns, whereas the larger size class ($\geq 3.0 \mu\text{m}$ filter fraction) community exhibited unimodal
312 patterns. In instances where bimodal patterns were found quadratic relationships between
313 rates of colonization/extinction and occupancy were observed. These findings indicate a
314 strong positive feedback mechanism between local abundance and occupancy and the
315 observed patterns generally fit Hanski's metapopulation model, the CSH (Hanski, 1982). In
316 agreement, significant bimodal occupancy-frequency distributions linked with quadratic
317 colonization and extinction rates have been found among bacterial assemblages in the Baltic
318 Sea Proper (Lindh et al., 2016).

319

320 *Environmental conditions and diversity regulate metapopulation dynamics*

321 Concomitant measurements of environmental variables, bacterial abundance and
322 ³H-leucine incorporation rates in the present paper allowed for linking mechanisms shaping
323 biogeography with the prevailing environmental conditions and community functioning.
324 Overall, the environment and community dynamics was highly stable throughout each of the
325 transects performed coupled with core and satellite metapopulation dynamics. Bimodal
326 patterns were typically coupled with lower community diversity and quadratic relationships
327 between colonization/extinction rates and occupancy of OTUs in the total and picoplankton
328 communities. In contrast, the large size fraction communities exhibited unimodal patterns
329 linked with higher diversity and linear colonization and extinction rates of OTUs. These data
330 suggest that positive feedbacks between local abundance and occupancy are important in
331 structuring picoplankton bacterial communities when environmental conditions are
332 homogenous and diversity is low. Still, it is noteworthy that the metadata in this study was
333 derived from whole seawater and total community and the environmental conditions
334 characterizing the size fractionated “large” communities are unknown. Further more focused
335 studies coupling size fractionated community composition and functioning would be very
336 rewarding for our understanding of metapopulation dynamics and ultimately provide a deeper
337 mechanistic understanding of biogeography of both picoplankton and large size fraction
338 communities.

339

340 *Metapopulation dynamics of Prochlorococcus sp.*

341 OTUs affiliated with *Prochlorococcus* sp. contributed up to 50 % of total
342 sequences for the total and picoplankton communities. A majority of the detected core
343 populations were in fact affiliated with *Prochlorococcus* sp., thus driving much of the

344 observed metapopulation dynamics. In agreement with these findings, *Prochlorococcus* sp. is
345 the dominant bacteria found in this system (Schmidt et al., 1991; Campbell and Vaulot, 1993;
346 Eiler et al., 2011) and are ubiquitous in the oligotrophic ocean (Flombaum et al., 2013).
347 However, this is the first study to examine metapopulation models for *Prochlorococcus* sp.
348 and finding core- and satellite dynamics for this key organism. Although many of the
349 *Prochlorococcus* sp. OTUs found in this study were distributed over all stations, OTUs within
350 the same taxa had more restricted ranges geographically. Such OTUs with restricted
351 distributions also added to the dominance of the left-skewed majority of rare satellite
352 populations indicating dispersal and environmental filtering of particular *Prochlorococcus*
353 ecotypes. Although this bacterium is ubiquitously distributed in the oligotrophic surface
354 ocean, ecotypes within the same species have been suggested from variations in genome
355 content and functional potential (Rocap et al., 2003). In fact, ecotypes of *Prochlorococcus* sp.
356 have been observed in the Atlantic Ocean along environmental gradients with varying
357 conditions implicating niche partitioning of closely related 16S rRNA sequences derived from
358 the same species (Johnson et al., 2006). Single-cell genomic approaches have further
359 emphasized that subpopulations of the same *Prochlorococcus* sp. are likely adapted to
360 different environmental conditions (Kashtan et al., 2014). Taken together, *Prochlorococcus*
361 sp. metapopulations exhibited core and satellite dynamics indicative of positive feedback
362 mechanisms between local abundance and occupancy suggesting a rescue effect of core
363 populations (Hanski, 1982; Hanski and Gyllenberg, 1993).

364

365 *Disentangling community compartments*

366 Individual taxonomic groups and particular OTUs displayed different metapopulation
367 dynamics suggesting that taxa likely have different dispersal capability and are subjected to
368 environmental filtering. Further studies at deeper taxonomic levels are however warranted to

369 examine dynamics of “large” communities at different spatial scales to determine the
370 mechanisms that regulate their biogeographical distribution. From observing variation in the
371 shape of occupancy-frequency distributions among complex assemblages studied in
372 macroecology (Mehranvar and Jackson, 2001) and colleagues have suggested that pooling all
373 taxa into the same metapopulation model obscured taxonomic differences. Such taxonomic
374 differences in compartments of communities may ultimately be linked with different dispersal
375 capabilities and assembly of distinct species (Lindström and Langenheder, 2012).
376 Conclusions made on community structure from high-throughput sequencing of microbial
377 assemblages coupled with community functioning should thus be done with care and relative
378 to individual compartments.

379

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536

537 **Figures and Tables**

538 **Figure 1.** Map illustrating the four transects performed with the locations of Station ALOHA
539 and Station Kahe marked. Asterisks denote the same station sample repeatedly.

540

541 **Figure 2.** Variation bacterial community abundance, production and alpha diversity during
542 the October 2015 cruise, including variation in Chl *a* (green open circles) and average sea
543 surface temperature (blue dotted line).

544

545 **Figure 3.** Variation in community composition during the October 2015 cruise (A), and
546 November 2015, December 2015 and January 2016 cruises (B). Barcharts denote relative
547 abundance (% of total sequences) among major bacterial groups at phyla/class. Dendrogram
548 in (A) denote cluster analysis of variation in beta diversity estimated from Bray-Curtis
549 distances. For the cruises in December 2015 and January 2016 in (B) total, picoplankton and
550 “large” denote size-fractionated community DNA from $>0.2 \mu\text{m}$, >0.2 and $<3.0 \mu\text{m}$ and 3.0
551 μm filters, respectively.

552

553 **Figure 4.** Core and satellite populations detected among occupancy-frequency distributions
554 during the October 2015 cruise (A), and December 2015 and January 2016 cruises (B). Insert
555 in (A) shows occupancy-frequency distributions of populations in a subset of the October
556 2015 cruise with the same stations sampled in the December 2015 and January 2016 cruises
557 and the additional cruise in November 2015. Total, picoplankton and “large” denote size-
558 fractionated community DNA from $>0.2 \mu\text{m}$, >0.2 and $<3.0 \mu\text{m}$ and $3.0 \mu\text{m}$ filters,
559 respectively. The y-axis is scaled at maximum 500 OTUs. Bimodality tests was performed
560 using Mitchell-Olds and Shaw’s test for quadratic extremes (Mitchell-Olds and Shaw, 1987),
561 a proxy for Tokeshi’s test (Tokeshi, 1992). ND=Not Determined. Significance level is
562 indicated with “****”, “***” and “**” for p-values <0.001 , <0.01 and <0.05 , respectively.

563

564 **Figure 5.** Measured colonization and extinction rates for all OTUs collectively (A), and for
565 all OTUs within major bacterial groups and particular OTUs within the same genus (B).
566 Observed rates in (A) were fitted with theoretical predictions from different metapopulation
567 models.

568

Supporting information

Supplementary Figures and Tables

Figure S1. Variation in observed Shannon diversity index for all cruises.

Figure S2. Relative abundances of the top ten most abundant OTUs found during the October 2015 transect. All OTUs were affiliated with *Prochlorococcus sp.* Colour shows interpolated relative abundances using the weighted-average gridding algorithm in Ocean Data View (<http://odv.awi.de>; version 4.7.8).

Figure S3. Relative abundances of the top ten OTUs exhibited the highest variance during the October 2015 transect. Colour shows interpolated relative abundances using the weighted-average gridding algorithm in Ocean Data View (<http://odv.awi.de>; version 4.7.8). Arrows denote hotspots in relative abundance detected for OM-1 clade *Candidatus Actinomarina*.

Figure S4. Occupancy-frequency distributions of populations binned by phyla/class during the October 2015 cruise. Bimodality tests was performed using Mitchell-Olds and Shaw's test for quadratic extremes (Mitchell-Olds and Shaw, 1987), a proxy for Tokeshi's test (Tokeshi, 1992). ND=Not Determined. Significance level is indicated with "****", "***" and "**" for p-values <0.001, <0.01 and <0.05, respectively.

Figure S5. Occupancy-frequency distributions of populations binned by phyla/class during the December 2015 and January 2016 cruises. Total, picoplankton and "large" denote size-fractionated community DNA from >0.2 μm , >0.2 and <3.0 μm and 3.0 μm filters, respectively. Bimodality tests was performed using Mitchell-Olds and Shaw's test for

quadratic extremes (Mitchell-Olds and Shaw, 1987), a proxy for Tokeshi's test (Tokeshi, 1992). ND=Not Determined. Significance level is indicated with "****", "***" and "**" for p-values <0.001, <0.01 and <0.05, respectively.

Figure S6. Occupancy-frequency distributions of OTUs affiliated with *Prochlorococcus* sp. during the October 2015 (A), and December 2015 and January 2016 cruises (B). Total, picoplankton and "large" in (B) denote size-fractionated community DNA from >0.2 μm , >0.2 and <3.0 μm and >3.0 μm filters, respectively. Bimodality tests was performed using Mitchell-Olds and Shaw's test for quadratic extremes (Mitchell-Olds and Shaw, 1987), a proxy for Tokeshi's test (Tokeshi, 1992). ND=Not Determined. Significance level is indicated with "****", "***" and "**" for p-values <0.001, <0.01 and <0.05, respectively.

Figure S7. Maximum-likelihood tree of OTUs affiliated with *Prochlorococcus* sp. exhibiting core or satellite metapopulation dynamics obtained from 16S rRNA gene data from all cruises. The evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the Tamura-Nei model (Tamura and Nei, 1993). The bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 999 replicates is taken to represent the evolutionary history of the taxa analyzed (Felsenstein, 1985). Branches corresponding to partitions reproduced in less than 50% bootstrap replicates are collapsed. Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying Neighbor-Join and BioNJ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the Maximum Composite Likelihood (MCL) approach, and then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. The analysis involved 18 nucleotide sequences. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated. There were a total of 427 positions in the final dataset. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016).

Table S1. Prevalence of significantly bimodal occupancy-frequency patterns in different community compartments (size fractions and taxa) in the present paper. Bimodality tests was performed using Mitchell-Olds and Shaw’s test for quadratic extremes (Mitchell-Olds and Shaw, 1987), a proxy for Tokeshi’s test (Tokeshi, 1992). ND=Not Determined. Significance level is indicated with ”****”, ”***” and”**” for p-values <0.001, <0.01 and <0.05, respectively.

Community	October	November		December		January		
	Total	Total	Total	Picoplankton	“Large”	Total	Picoplankton	“Large”
All	YES***	YES***	YES**	YES**	NO	YES**	YES*	NO
Cyanobacteria	YES***	YES***	YES**	YES**	NO	YES*	NO	NO
Bacteroidetes	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Actinobacteria	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Verrucomicrobia	NO	NO	NO	ND	NO	NO	ND	NO
Alphaproteobacteria	YES***	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES*	NO	NO
Betaproteobacteria	NO	ND	ND	ND	NO	ND	ND	NO
Gammaproteobacteria	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Planctomycetes	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	ND	NO
Acidobacteria	ND	ND	ND	ND	NO	ND	ND	NO
Deltaproteobacteria	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Chloroflexi	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
<i>Prochlorococcus</i> sp.	YES***	YES**	YES*	YES*	NO	YES*	YES*	NO
<i>Synechococcus</i> sp.	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	ND	NO
SAR11 clade	YES**	YES**	NO	NO	NO	YES*	NO	NO
SAR86 clade	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Aegan-169	YES***	YES**	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO

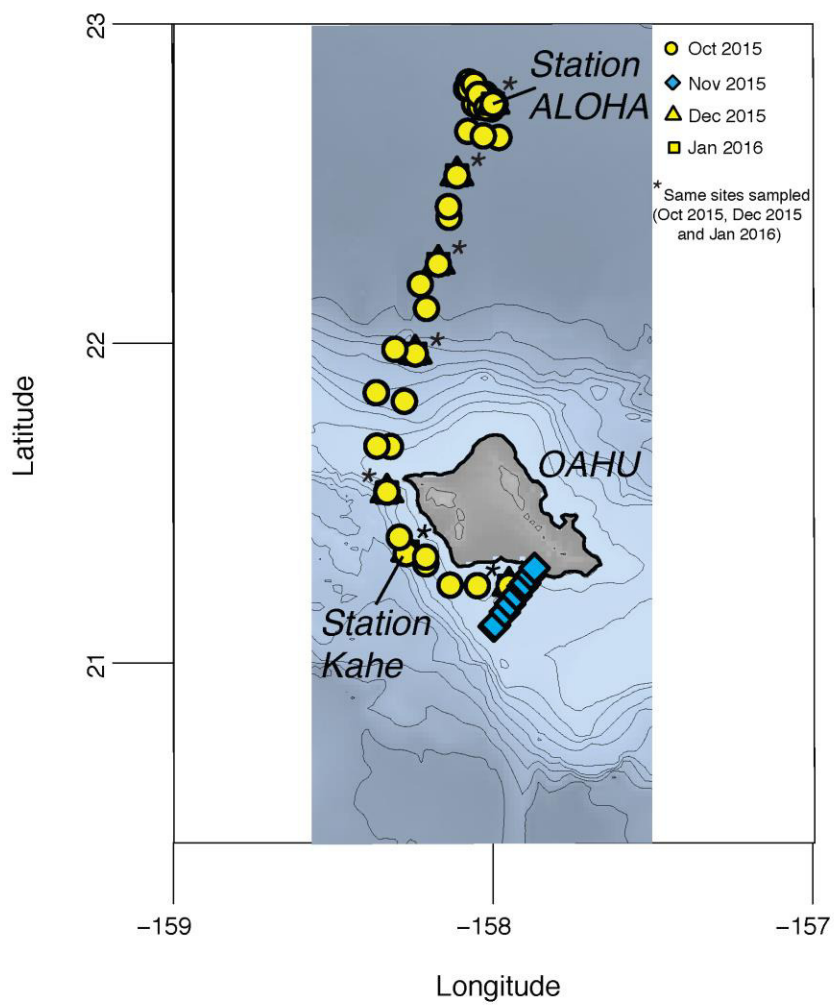
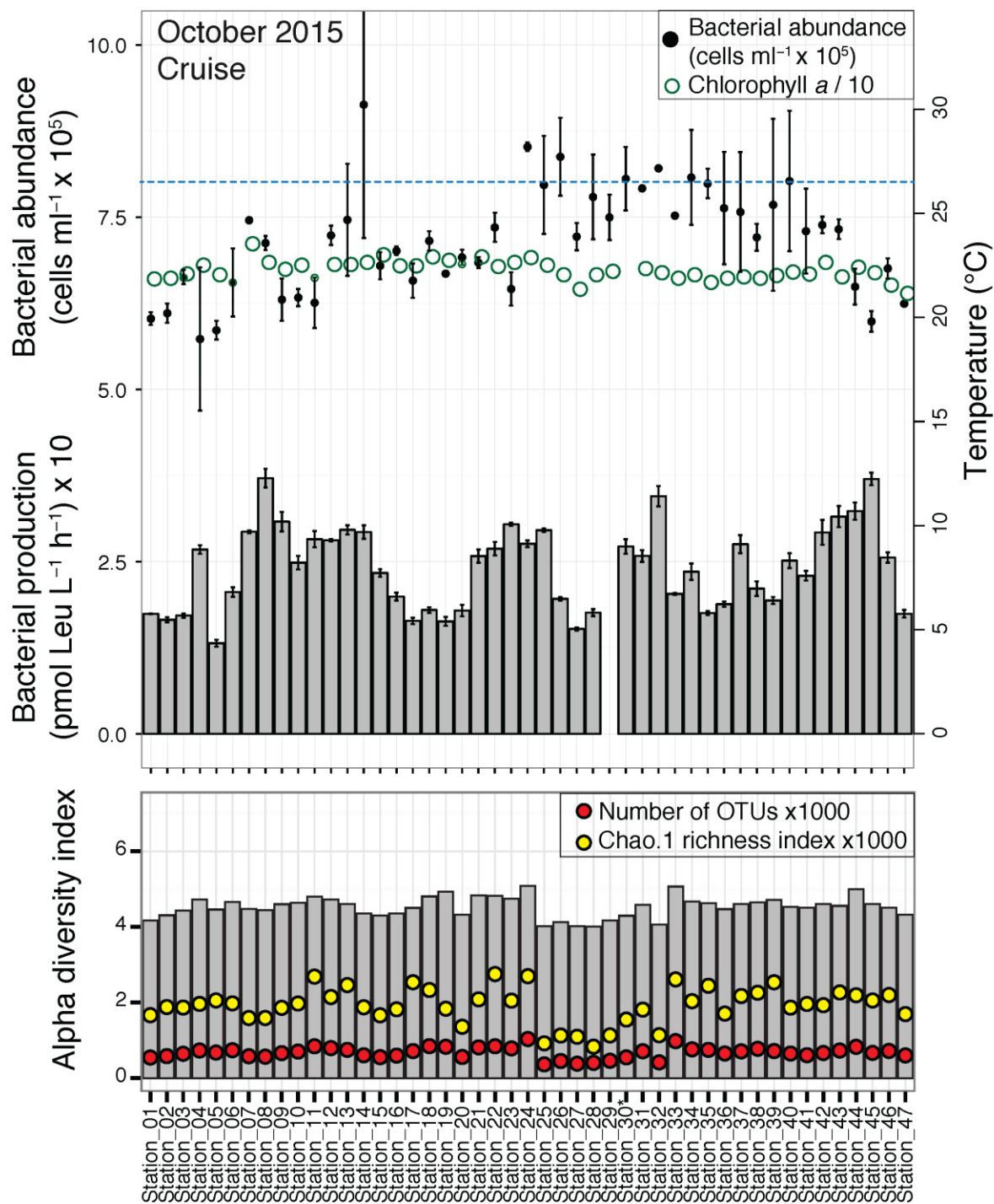


Figure 1



*CTD cast surface 5 m
(control/biological replicate for station 29)

Figure 2

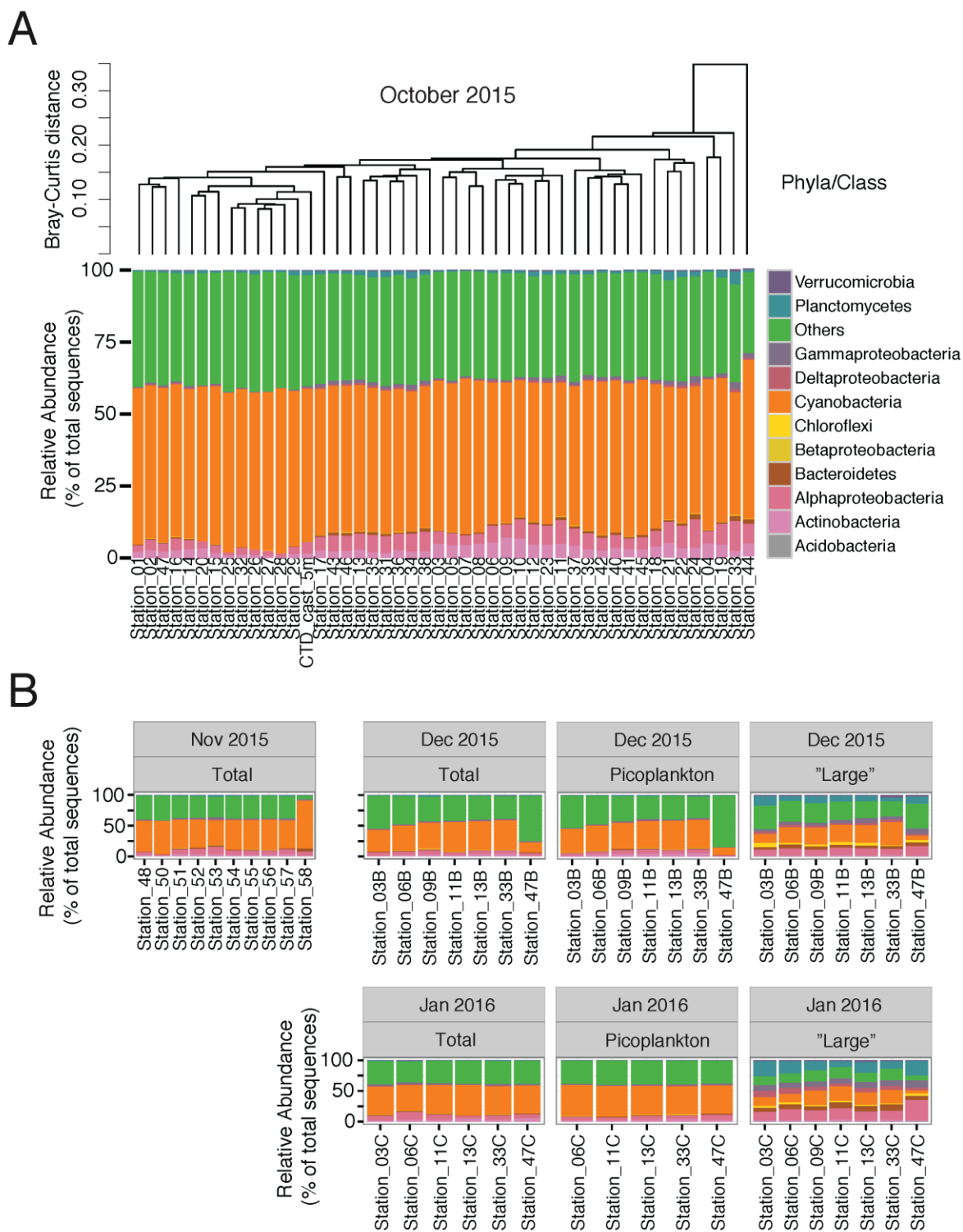
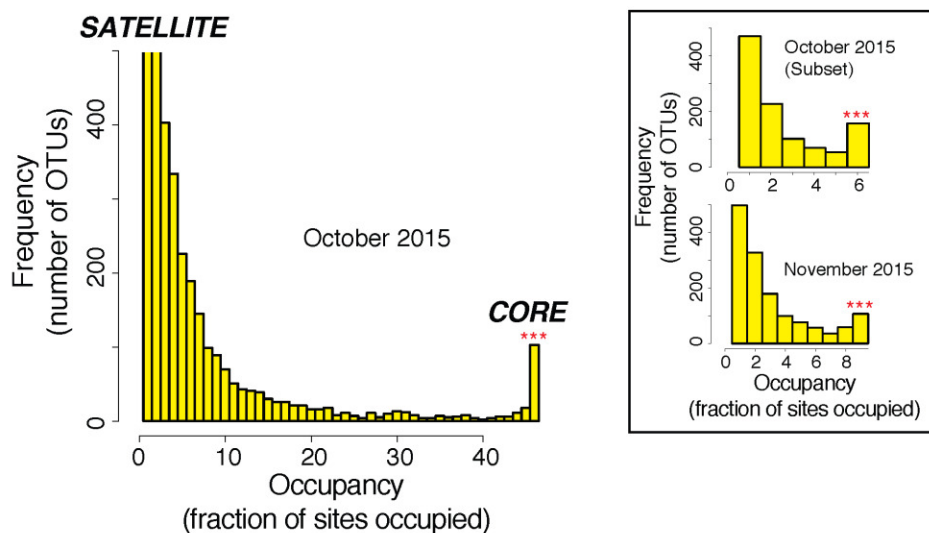


Figure 3

A



B

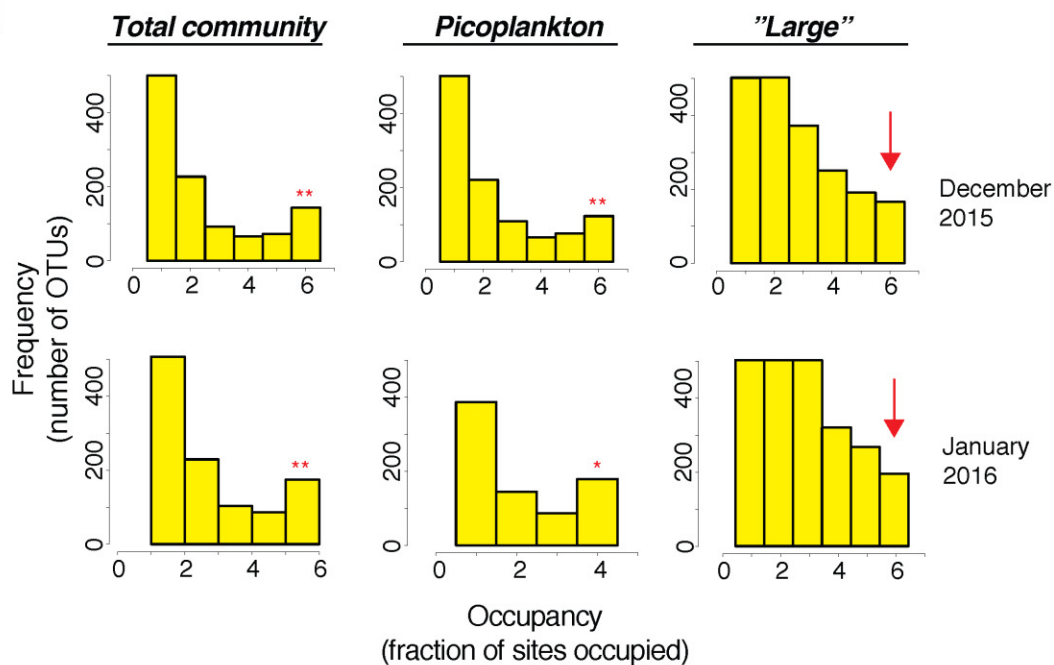


Figure 4

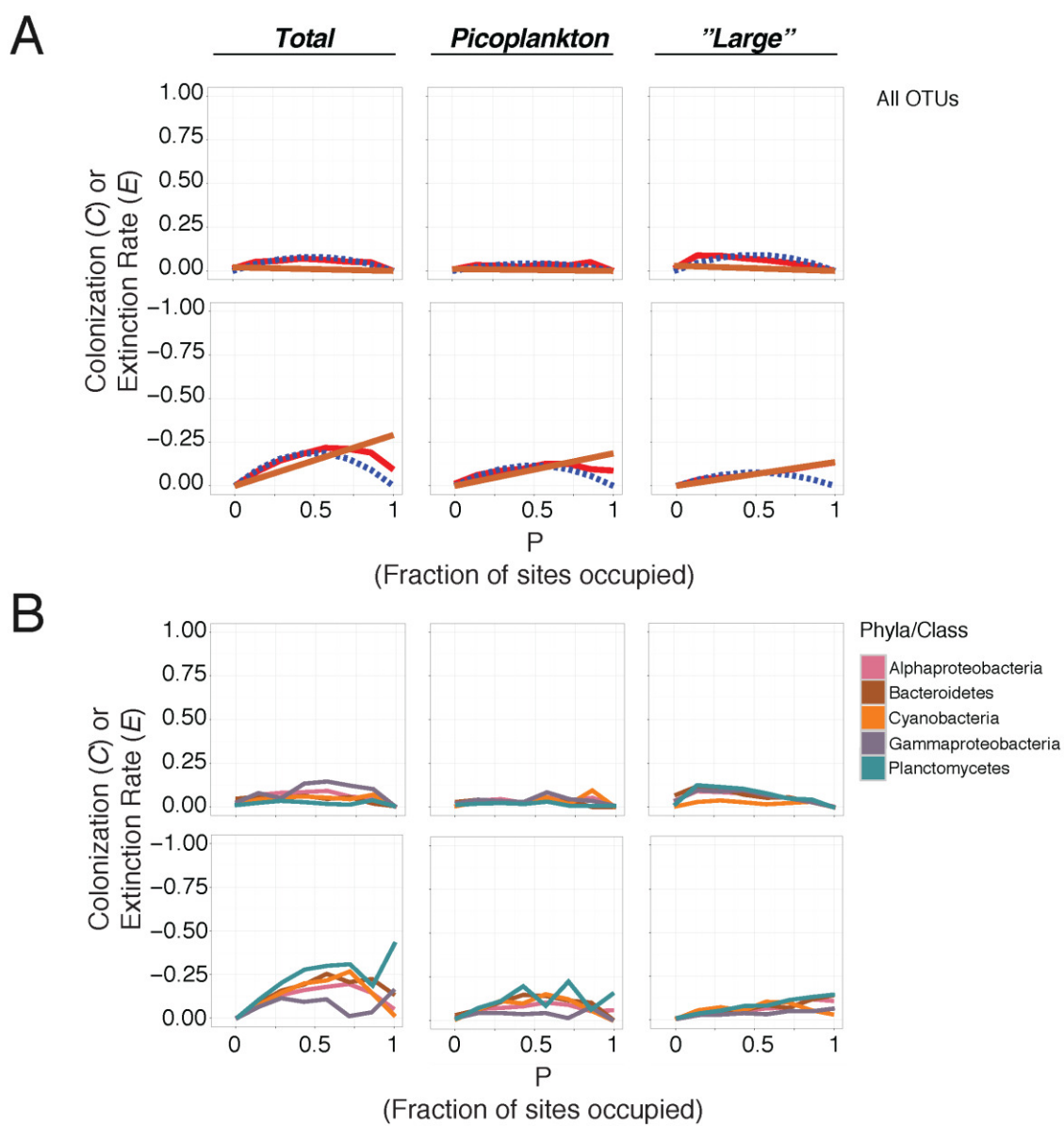
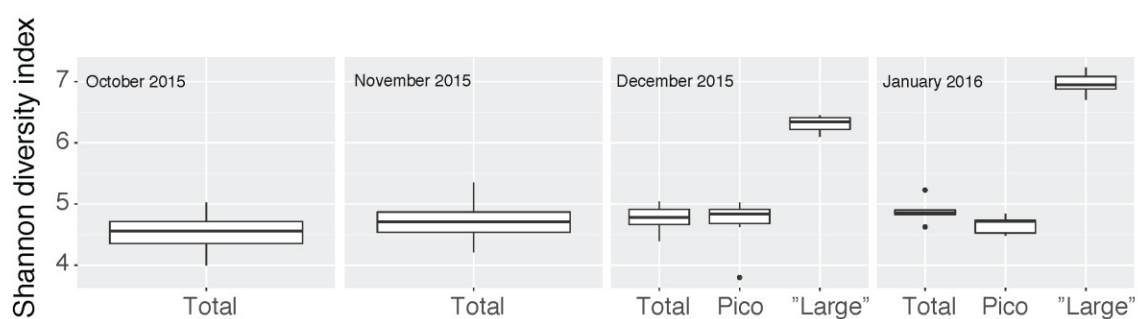
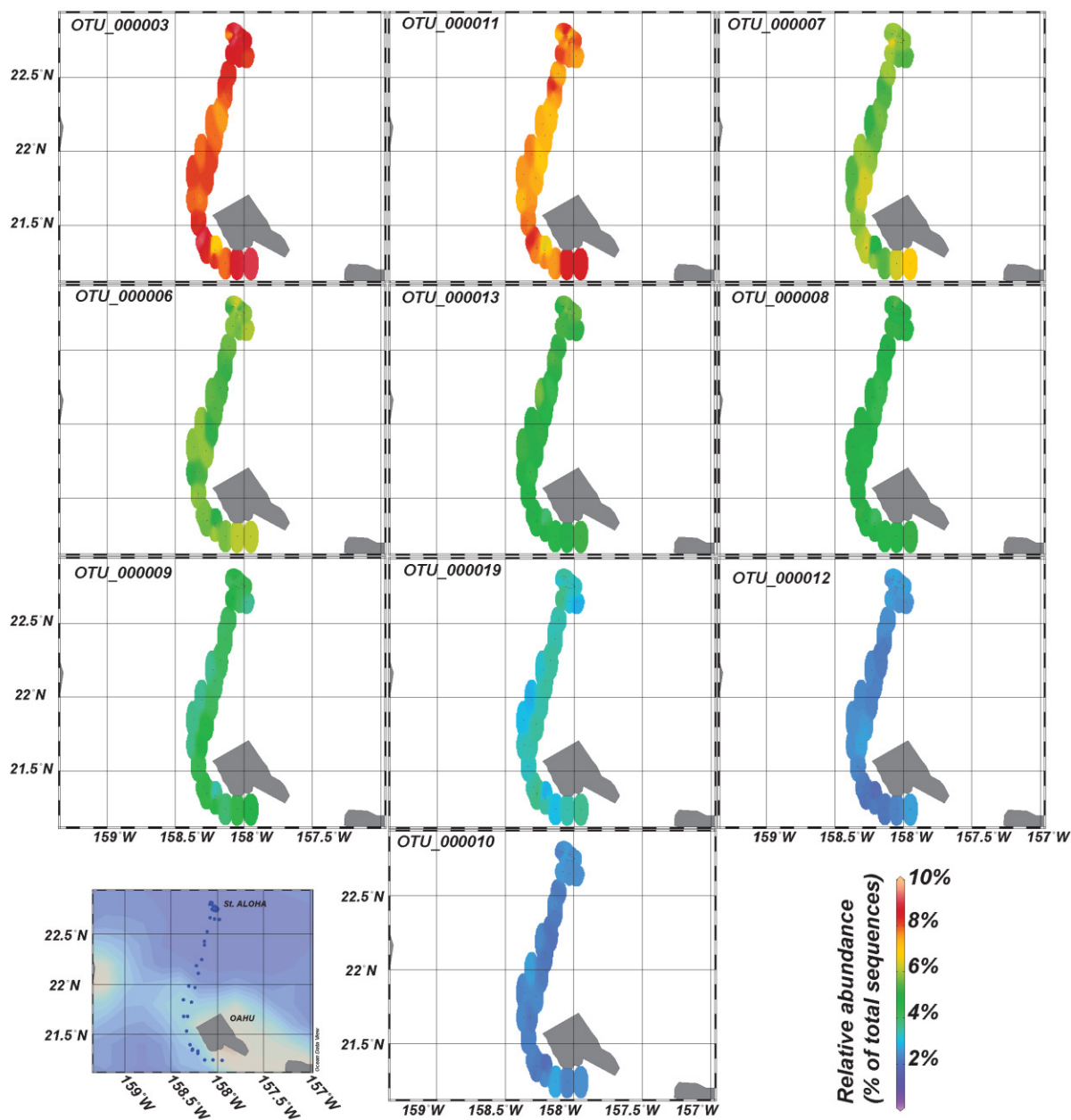


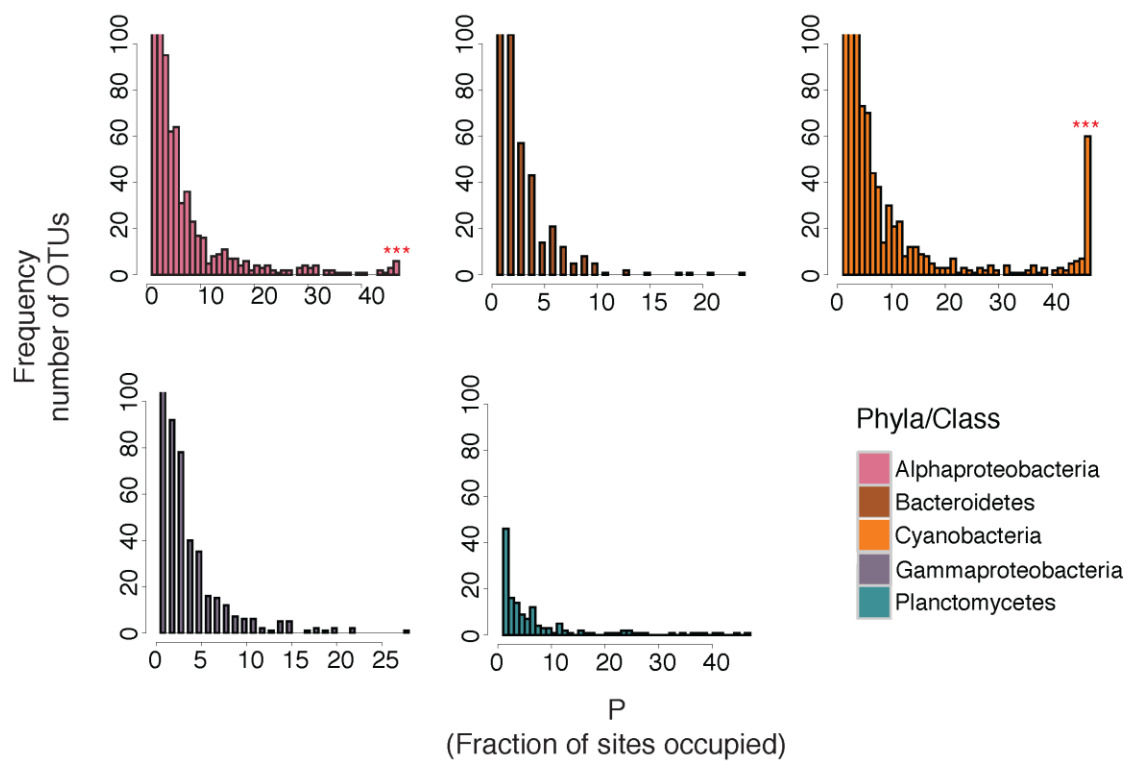
Figure 5



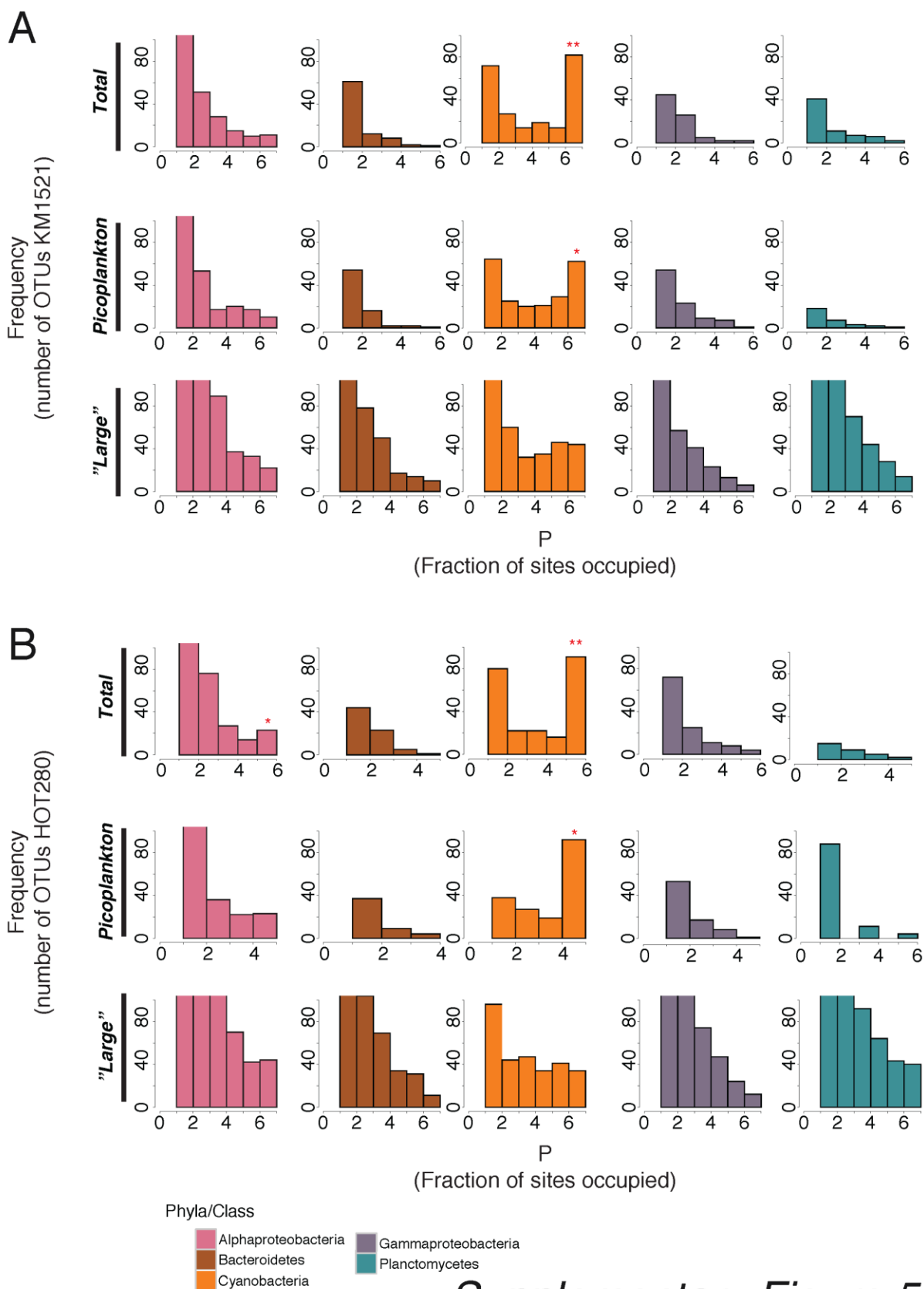
Supplementary Figure 1



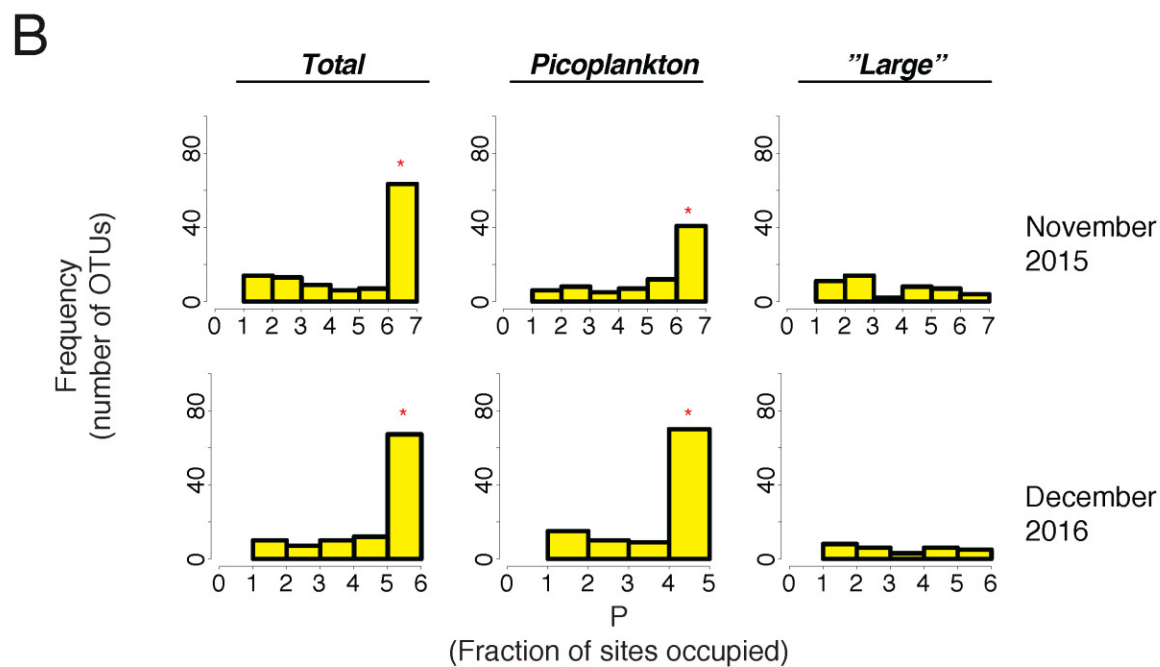
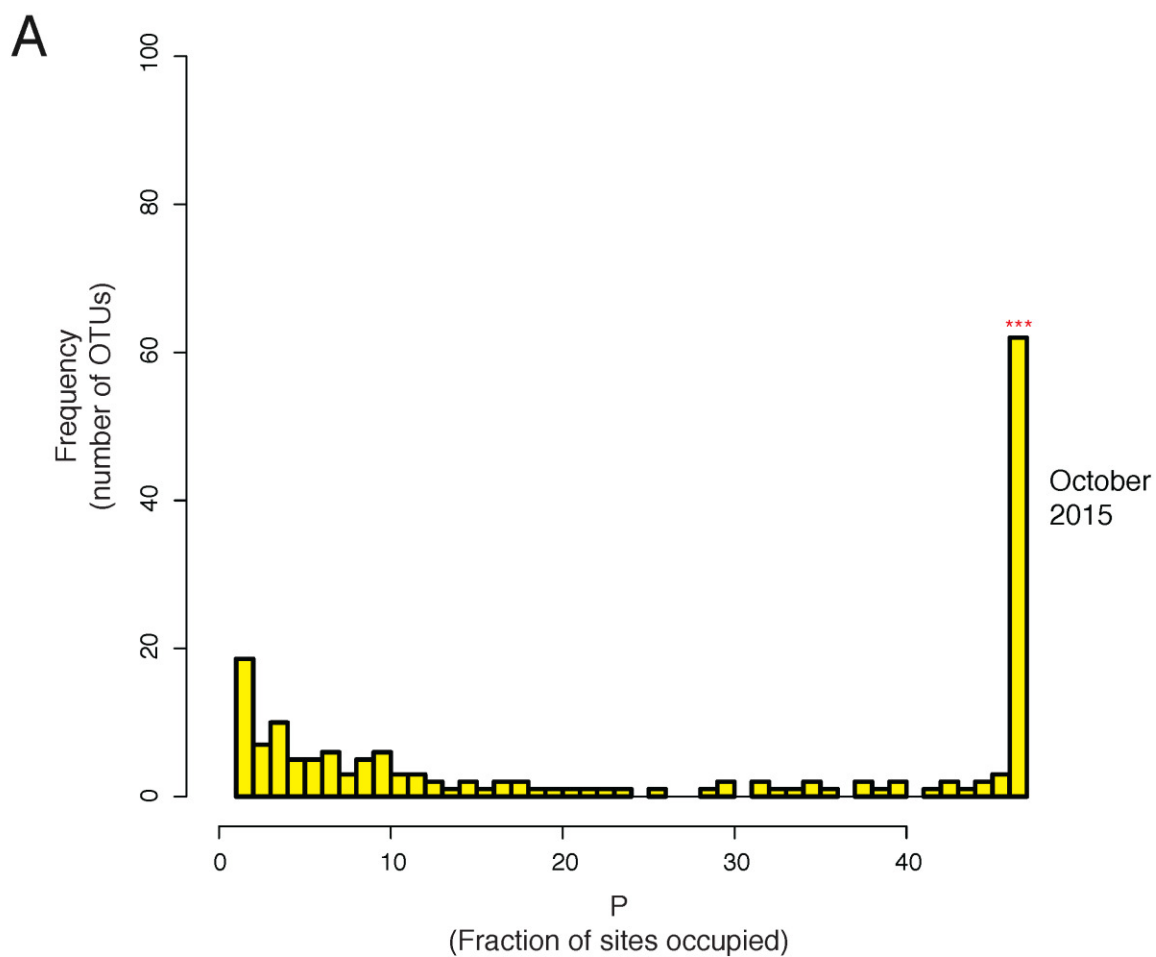
Supplementary Figure 2



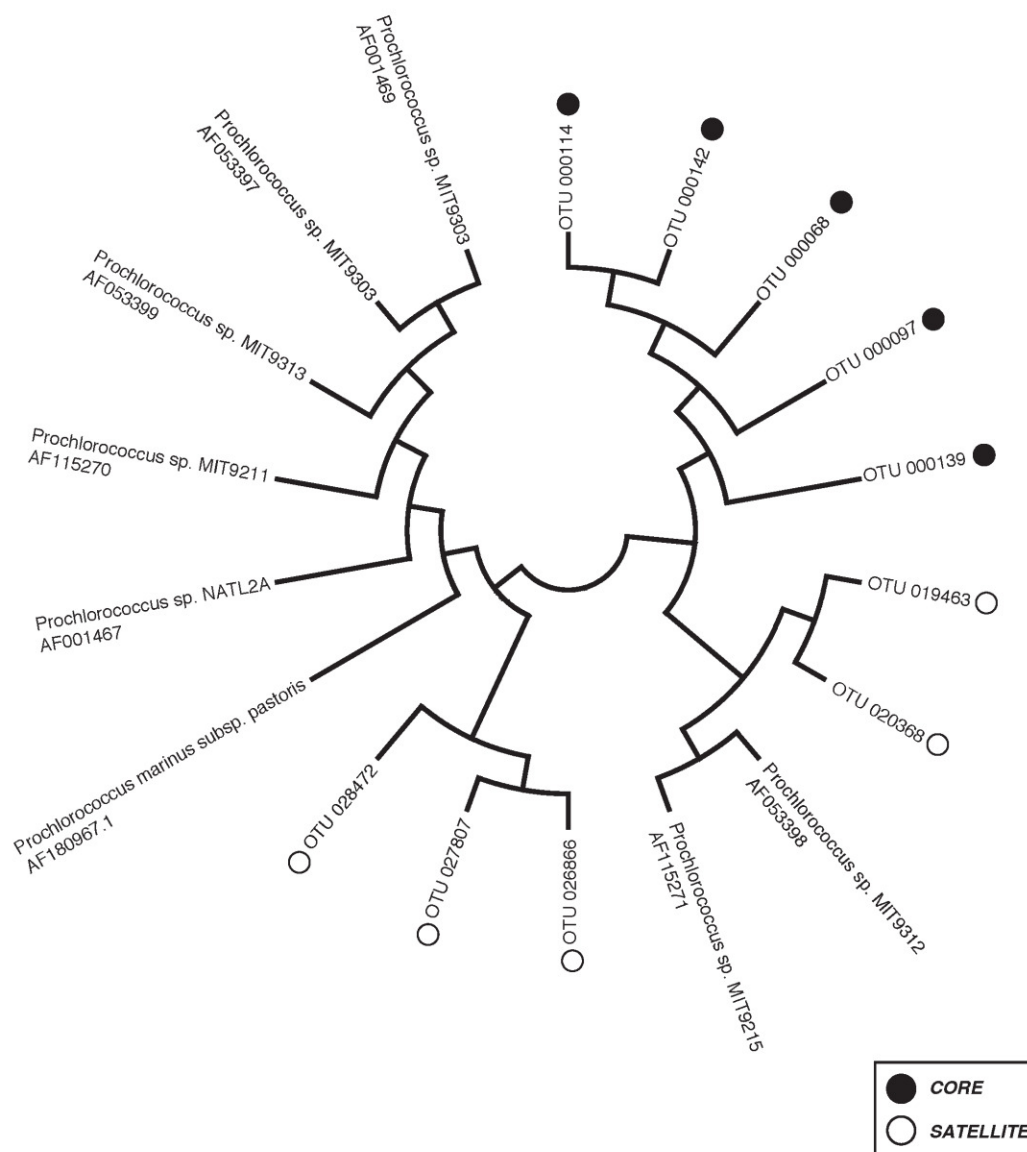
Supplementary Figure 4



Supplementary Figure 5



Supplementary Figure 6



Supplementary Figure 7