

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

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Running title: Natural abundances of two *Crocospaera* sub-types

Abstract

Crocospaera 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 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 of their genomes, while the rest of the genomes were maintained at 99-100% DNA identity. Previous 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 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 *Crocospaera* types declined sharply with depth between 45 and 75 m in both sites. In surface water small cells were 10 to 100 times more abundant than large cells in the N. Pacific; while in the S. Pacific the two phenotypes were nearly equal. Evidence for large cell aggregation was only found in N. Pacific samples. The differences in *C. watsonii* sub-populations in the North and South Pacific Ocean have direct implications for biogeochemistry and carbon export in oligotrophic gyres.

17 Introduction

18 *Crocospaera watsonii* is a species of unicellular nitrogen (N₂)-fixing cyanobacteria (“UCYN”
19 from here forward) that is important in marine primary production and biogeochemical cycling. This is
20 especially true in oligotrophic waters where nitrogen is often a limiting nutrient, and *C. watsonii* is an
21 important source of biologically available nitrogen (Zehr *et al.*, 2001; Falcon *et al.*, 2004; Montoya *et*
22 *al.*, 2004; Kitajima *et al.*, 2009; Moisander *et al.*, 2010). UCYN are among the most abundant N₂-fixers
23 in oceanic systems and measurements of UCYN abundance by direct microscopy counts and qPCR of
24 the *nifH* gene are important for determining their contributions to the N cycle. Direct counts of UCYN
25 abundances have ranged from 10⁴ to 10⁷ cells per liter in the North Pacific (Zehr *et al.*, 2001; Church *et*
26 *al.*, 2005), and near 10⁵ cells per liter in the Atlantic (Falcon *et al.*, 2004), and qPCR studies have
27 reported between 10³ and 10⁶ gene copies per liter in multiple ocean basins (Zehr *et al.*, 2001; Falcon
28 *et al.*, 2004; Church *et al.*, 2005; Church *et al.*, 2008; Langlois *et al.*, 2008; Moisander *et al.*, 2008;
29 Moisander *et al.*, 2010). However, microscopic and qPCR enumerations of natural populations have
30 treated all *Crocospaera* cells as a single global population because the cells are morphologically
31 similar by microscopy, and because there is a lack of genetic variation in the *nifH* gene.

32 The genetic conservation observed in *Crocospaera nifH* sequences was also observed in
33 sequences encoding 16S rRNA and a number of other genes that were examined in natural populations
34 and cultivated strains (Zehr *et al.*, 2007). Despite their gene sequence conservation, two distinct
35 phenotypic categories have been described in *C. watsonii* isolates. The first (large cell) phenotype has
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
38 *et al.*, 2011). The other (small cell) type has a cell diameter less than 4 µm, and does not produce

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

45 Because of their genetic and metabolic differences, it is likely that the two phenotypes have
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.*,
48 2009; Sohm *et al.*, 2011). As such, EPS production could make the large cell types greater
49 contributors to carbon export from surface water than the small cell types. The differences in iron and
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 *Crocospaera* abundances were limited to viewing the species as a
53 single population, very little is known about the distribution of the two types in the water column or
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
56 nutrient cycling and marine ecosystems. As a step towards that better understanding, this study was
57 carried out with the following specific goals: 1) use recently identified phenotype-specific genes to
58 develop specific and sensitive molecular assays to differentiate between *Crocospaera* phenotypes and
59 2) apply those assays to water column samples from two regions in the Pacific Ocean in order to
60 characterize differences in vertical and basin-wide distributions of the two *C. watsonii* types in natural
61 populations.

Results

Recent genomic comparisons of multiple cultivated *Crocospaera watsonii* strains identified gene sequences that were strain-specific and phenotype-specific (Bench *et al.*, 2011; Bench *et al.*, 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). The previously used *Crocospaera nifH* (also referred to as “Group B”) primer probe sets (Moisander *et al.*, 2010) acted as the positive quantitative control during testing of each qPCR locus using DNA from six *C. watsonii* cultivated strains (see methods). All loci amplified quantitatively in reactions with DNA from strains with the targeted phenotype as expected, and did not amplify with DNA from non-target phenotype strains (Table S1). This was true for all loci, including reaction where DNA from a non-targeted phenotype strain (i.e. not expected to amplify) was ten-fold greater than DNA from the targeted strain.

After the qPCR assays were tested against individual strains, they were applied to samples from two research cruises (Fig. 1). There was good correlation across the N. Pacific samples between the two gene-specific 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* *Crocospaera* abundance was often $>10^6$ 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 $\sim 10^3$ gene copies per liter at and below 150 m (Fig. 2, upper panel). The small cell type accounted for the vast majority of total *Crocospaera* at

84 depths shallower than 75 m, while the large cell type was more abundant in samples deeper than 100
85 m (Fig. 2). Small cell *Crocospaera* abundances ranged from over 10^6 gene copies per liter at the
86 surface to less than 10^3 copies per liter at and below 125 m (Fig. 2, middle panel). The abundance of
87 the large cell types in the upper water column was 10^4 to 10^5 gene copies per liter, decreasing to $\sim 10^3$
88 copies per liter below 75 m (Fig. 2, lower panel). The ratio of small cell to large cell *Crocospaera*
89 (calculated by dividing the small cell gene copies by large cell gene copies for each sample) was
90 typically between 10 and 1,000 in shallow samples, and between 0.1 and 1 in most samples below 75
91 m (Fig. S3).

92 *Crocospaera* 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.

98 For all water column samples, phenotype-specific assays were performed separately on the
99 10 μ m and the 0.2 μ m filters that were collected in-line (see methods) and the relative contribution of
100 the 0.2 μ m filter to the total for each sample was calculated. For nearly all samples, close to 100% of
101 small cells were found on the 0.2 μ m filter (Fig. 3, upper panel and Fig. S4). Only two samples (out of
102 60) showed less than 60% of small cells on the 0.2 μ m filter, and in the other 58 samples an average of
103 94% of small cell abundance was found on the 0.2 μ m filter. In contrast, for many samples, especially
104 in the first half of the cruise, less than 40% of the total large cell copies were found on the 0.2 μ m filter
105 (Fig. 3, lower panel and Fig. S5). In other samples (e.g. samples collected from below 75 m depth and

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

108 A principal component analysis of environmental variables was used to investigate potential
109 correlations between *Crocospaera* abundances in BioLINCS samples and water column parameters.
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)
112 explained 30% of the variation and was mainly composed of oxygen, salinity, chlorophyll, phosphate
113 and silicate. The two dimensional projection shows clustering of the water samples into three depth-
114 related groups (Fig. 4): surface (orange symbols), chlorophyll maximum and adjacent depths (hereafter
115 referred to as chl max, green symbols), and deeper water (blue symbols). In contrast to the chl max
116 samples, the surface and deep samples showed little variation along PC1, but are well spread along
117 PC2. Abundances of both *Crocospaera* cell types (as well as total *Crocospaera*) showed significant
118 negative correlation with PC1.

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

127 Abundances of the two *Crocospaera* 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-

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

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

150 In the upper water column N. Pacific samples, small cell *Crocosphaera* abundances and
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
153 small cell abundances in the same samples. Intriguingly, while total *Crocosphaera* abundances were
154 similar in surface water of the two locations, small cell types did not dominate the *Crocosphaera*
155 populations in the S. Pacific. In fact, large cell abundances were on par with small cell abundances
156 indicating that, at the time of sampling, conditions in the surface mixed layer of the S. Pacific were
157 more favorable for the large cell type than conditions in the N. Pacific during the BioLINCS cruise (Fig.
158 5). However, at both locations, there was a slight dominance of large cell *Crocosphaera* below 75 m.
159 In addition, the dominance of total *Crocosphaera* populations by the small cell population (i.e. the high
160 ratio of small: large cells when integrating over the water column) was reduced in sediment trap
161 samples relative to water column values collected in the N. Pacific, particularly at 150 m depth. The
162 dominance of large cells in deeper water and the overrepresentation of large cell *Crocosphaera* in the
163 sediment traps relative to the water column could be explained by any or all of the following; 1) faster
164 sinking of the large cell type, 2) slower degradation of large cells during sinking, or 3) preferential
165 grazing of the small cell type. All three mechanisms would be enhanced by EPS production in the large
166 cells (Passow et al., 2001; Pereira et al., 2009; Sohm et al., 2011), emphasizing the importance of
167 distinguishing the two types of *Crocosphaera* in the environment, since the two populations appear
168 capable of playing different ecological roles. A previous study carried out microscopic cell counts to
169 quantify relative abundance of two cell size classes of *Crocosphaera* in the western South Pacific (Webb
170 et al., 2009). In that study, the smaller cells were slightly more abundant than the larger cells, but
171 populations were only examined within a narrow depth range near the surface (6-14 m), so deeper
172 water patterns cannot be compared to the qPCR assays results of this study. Evidence of cell

173 aggregation was seen in the large cells (Webb *et al.*, 2009), which supports the possibility of differential
174 export dynamics of the two phenotypes, and is different from the results presented here which did not
175 show evidence of aggregation in the S. Pacific. Future experiments with additional environmental
176 samples will be needed to fully understand the export processes and the conditions that favor the two
177 phenotypes.

178 The principal component analyses carried out on the N. Pacific samples offer some clues about
179 which environmental factors may affect *Crocospaera* abundances. The largest component (PC1) was
180 driven by factors that vary strongly with depth, and resulted in the samples clustering into three
181 groups along the PC1 axis (Fig. 4). The statistically significant negative correlations with PC1 for both
182 *Crocospaera* phenotypes probably illustrate their observed depth-related decline as well as their lack
183 of dependence on bioavailable nitrogen. In addition, the larger spread in PC1 for chl max samples was
184 expected for samples that span the thermocline and contain the associated variability in depth-related
185 factors (Robidart *et al.*, 2014). The second principal component (PC2) was driven by factors that
186 varied more from station to station, (as opposed to depth) and resulted in a spreading of the surface
187 and deep samples along this axis (Fig. 4).

188 The negative correlation with ammonia may be an indication of the type of N₂-fixation
189 inhibition by ammonia that was observed in *Crocospaera* culture experiments (Dekaezemacker, 2011;
190 Garcia, 2014b) . Those studies found the effect of N₂-fixation inhibition was stronger under low light
191 growth conditions (Garcia, 2014b), and also stronger in large cell strains compared to small cell strains
192 (Dekaezemacker, 2011). Given those results, it is notable that there was a dominance of large cells in
193 deeper water where ammonia concentrations are higher and light levels are lower. A factor that
194 would favor the dominance of actively growing larger cells in deeper water is the observation that

certain small-cell strains will not grow under the same low light conditions where large cells are able to grow (Garcia, 2013b).

In chl max samples (Fig. 4, green symbols), both cell types were significantly correlated with salinity. As salinity is a conservative property of seawater, it appears that, within the chlorophyll max, *Crocospaera* distributions may be driven by mixing of disparate water types, rather than biological interactions or nutrient variation. In surface samples, there was a correlation with phosphate and silicate in large cells, and not small cells, indicating the small cell type may be less dependent on phosphate. This is in contrast to genomic evidence (i.e. fewer copies of phosphorus related genes) that suggests the small cell type is less adapted to low phosphorus conditions than the large cell strains (Bench *et al.*, 2013). Of course, the small cell phenotype has a higher surface to volume ratio, so it may also have a reduced need for phosphorus scavenging capabilities. There is also recent evidence of a dramatic reduction in cell size in both phenotypes of cultured *Crocospaera* under P and Fe co-limitation (Jacq, 2014; Garcia 2014a). Those results underscore the importance of measuring both Fe and P concentrations in the water where the two types are quantified as well as making microscopic measurements of cell-size in natural populations. Future measurements of abundances of the two cell types in other marine samples, particularly in the Atlantic where Fe is higher and P is lower than in the Pacific, will help strengthen (or refute) the correlations observed in this study, and refine how researchers understand *Crocospaera* ecology.

Because all *C. watsonii* isolates have cell diameters that range from 3.5 μm to $\sim 6 \mu\text{m}$ (Webb *et al.*, 2009; Sohm *et al.*, 2011), it is expected that the vast majority of naturally occurring *C. watsonii* cells should pass through the 10 μm filter and be captured on the 0.2 μm filter (which were arranged in-line 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

218 *et al.*, 2011). Such aggregates could contribute to retention of the large cell type on the larger pore
219 size filter, as was observed in microscopic examination of the *Crocospaera* community in the western
220 South Pacific (Webb *et al.*, 2009). In this study, the small cell type was found almost exclusively on the
221 0.2µm filter in all samples in both ocean basins. However, in many of the N. Pacific samples, the
222 majority of large cells were found on 10µm filters, supporting previous evidence of aggregation in the
223 large cell type.

224 The smaller fraction of large cells captured on 10µm filters in the deeper N. Pacific samples
225 could be explained by aggregates breaking up as they sink, or by grazing. The release of cells by these
226 processes would result in a larger proportion passing through the 10 µm filter. This explanation would
227 mean that the presence of *C. watsonii* below 75 m is not indicative of those cells being active and
228 dividing (i.e. adapted to that depth), but rather a result of sinking and mixing. On the other hand, the
229 apparent lack of aggregation observed in large cell *Crocospaera* in all S. Pacific samples (rather than
230 just deeper samples) suggests those cells were producing less EPS. There is some possibility that EPS
231 production within a genotype may be influenced by environmental factors. For example, a study of
232 *Crocospaera* growth responses to inorganic nitrogen observed a plasticity in the C:N ratio of the large-
233 cell strain WH0003 (Dekaezemacker, 2011). While those authors did not observe changes in EPS
234 production, they suggested that modifying EPS production could be a mechanism that large cell
235 *Crocospaera* could use to modulate their cellular C:N ratios. Further evidence from cultures and
236 genomic data strongly suggests that EPS production is an inherent, rather than inducible, trait in
237 *Crocospaera* (Sohm *et al.*, 2011; Bench *et al.*, 2013). As such, the much lower incidence of capture on
238 the 10 µm in the S. Pacific surface samples suggests that basin may have had a different large cell sub-
239 type than the N. Pacific, where aggregation was more often observed. If that is the case, it will be
240 important to distinguish between the two large cell sub-types because a non-aggregating sub-type

241 would likely have export properties more similar to the small cell types. Distinct responses between
242 two small cell strains to changing CO₂ concentrations (Hutchins et al. 2013) provides evidence that
243 there are sub-types with different ecological adaptations within the larger two phenotypic categories
244 examined in this study. Additional genetic markers will be needed to design and carry out experiments
245 that could differentiate between the potential sub-types, and identify the physical and/or chemical
246 conditions that are more favorable to each type.

247 The three processes proposed above to explain the abundance patterns of the two size
248 fractions (aggregate break-down, grazing, and separate sup-types) have different predictions for the
249 metabolic state of the deeper population of cells. If the cells at those depths have simply sunk from
250 shallower water, they would not be expected to contribute fixed N to the deeper water where they
251 were observed. However, if they are a separate large-cell population that is adapted to those depths,
252 their contribution of new N to deeper water will need to be considered. Future experiments could
253 assess the biogeochemical contributions of the two sub-types using a variety of methods, including
254 measuring sinking rates, measuring N₂-fixation rates in deep vs. shallow water, and by assessing the
255 viability of the deeper population through physiological fluorescence measurements and/or gene
256 expression levels of the two groups.

257

258 **Conclusions**

259 The qPCR assays developed for this study provide a novel method for quantifying two
260 phenotypes of *Crocospaera* that were previously treated as a single, globally distributed population.
261 Resulting water column distribution patterns demonstrated, for the first time, that each phenotype has
262 a distinct biogeography, consistent with known phenotypic differences and suspected ecological

263 distinctions. Small cells were 10 to 1,000 times more abundant than large cells in the N. Pacific upper
264 water column, but the two types were nearly equally represented throughout the water column in the
265 S. Pacific. Furthermore, the evidence of large cell aggregation observed in the N. Pacific samples was
266 not seen in the S. Pacific large cell populations. These patterns indicate that further sub-types of large
267 cell *Crocospaera* exist, with unique distributions the North and South Pacific, or alternatively,
268 differences in physiology and/or grazing rates between the phenotypes result in differing degrees of
269 aggregation in each basin. The observed patterns indicate that distinct controls determine the
270 distributions of the two *Crocospaera* phenotypes, many of which could vary over time as well as
271 space. Because of the ecologically important differences between the two phenotypes demonstrated
272 here, quantifying *C. watsonii* as two distinct groups is necessary for determining the global contribution
273 of this keystone species to the carbon pump and marine biogeochemical cycles.

274

Experimental Procedures

Design and testing of qPCR assays

Previous comparisons of six *Crocospaera watsonii* genomes identified genes unique to each 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-probe set was designed for each gene using Primer 3 (Rozen and Skaletsky, 1999) with a goal of 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 GenBank NT and WGS (Benson *et al.*, 2003) databases to verify that they did not have significant sequence similarity to other known organisms. The genes used for primer and probe design and the 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 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 μ l of template DNA plus 1 μ l of each primer (10 μ M), 0.5 μ l of probe (10 μ M), 12.5 μ l TaqMan Gene Expression 2X Master Mix (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA), and water to a final volume of 25 μ l. Amplification and detection was carried out on an ABI 7500 instrument using the following 2-step reaction: initial steps of 50°C for 2 minutes, then 95°C for 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 10^0 to 10^7 per reaction. Following each run, the threshold cycle (C_t) values for each standard were plotted versus the log of its gene copy number to create a standard curve. The equation for that standard curve was used to calculate the gene copies in each of the sample reactions from the same run.

Standards were made from amplified genomic DNA from *C. watsonii* strains of the appropriate phenotype. To avoid amplifying DNA from contaminants in non-axenic cultures, cells were sorted 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 sequencing of *C. watsonii* strains (Bench *et al.*, 2011; Bench *et al.*, 2013). Amplified genomic DNA was quantified using Pico Green (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA), and genome copies/ μ l were calculated based on the DNA concentration and the genome sizes (Bench *et al.*, 2013). Appropriate dilutions were made to generate a set of standards that contained 10^0 to 10^7 genome copies in 2 μ l (the volume used in each reaction). Multiple sets of the prepared genomic standards were compared in triplicate to *nifH* linearized plasmid standards to verify the DNA quantification, and relative reaction efficiency, and no significant differences were observed between the plasmid and any of the genomic standards.

Tests for cross reactivity and inhibition were carried out for all loci using multiple mixtures of 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 following ratios: 1:3, 3:1, 1:10, and 10:1. Eight additional test mixtures contained WH8501 or WH0003 DNA mixed with 3-fold more DNA (final ratio of 1:3) from one of four additional strains (WH8502, WH0401, WH0401, and WH0005). The primer-probe set for each locus was tested for amplification and inhibition in triplicate qPCR reactions with the 12 different mixtures, which ranged over an order in magnitude in target DNA and non-target DNA concentrations, and included samples that contained only target DNA as well as only non-target DNA. Copy numbers from qPCR reactions were consistent 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

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

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 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 collected at 8 stations during the BioLINCS cruise in September of 2011 just north of Station Aloha (Fig. 1). 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 was filtered through two in-line Durapore filters (10 µm pore size, followed by 0.2 µm pore size). Filters were placed in bead beater tubes with sterile glass beads, immediately flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and subsequently stored at -80°C until DNA was extracted. Sediment trap samples were 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. 1). The trap drifted northeastward during the BioLINCS cruise, on a track that was approximately 30° 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 the drifting sediment traps, samples exclusively from the ship's northeast trajectory were used. Details 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, *Crocospaera* abundances "per sample" are reported, and ratios of the two phenotypes (rather than actual abundances) are used for comparisons between sediment trap samples and water column data. In addition, water column abundances of each *Crocospaera* type were integrated over equivalent

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

347 The DNA extraction protocol used for N. Pacific samples is a slight adaptation of the modified
348 DNeasy Plant MiniKit (Qiagen) protocol used to extract the S. Pacific samples (Moisander *et al.*, 2008;
349 Moisander *et al.*, 2010). Filters were thawed and 400 µl of AP1 buffer (provided in kit) was added to
350 each tube. Samples were subjected to three freeze-thaw cycles of rapid freezing in liquid N₂, followed
351 by rapid thawing in a 65°C heat block. The samples were then bead-beat in Mini-Beadbeater-96
352 (Biospec Inc.) for 2 minutes. Tubes were centrifuged briefly prior to addition of 45 µl (20 mg/ml) of
353 Proteinase K (Qiagen), vortexed briefly and incubated (with rocking) at 55°C for 1 hour. An RNaseA
354 digestion was then carried out by adding 4 µl of RNaseA to each sample, vortexing and incubating at
355 65°C for 10 minutes. The filters were removed from the tubes, and 130 µl of AP2 buffer (provided in
356 kit) was added to each tube followed by a brief vortex and a 10 minute incubation on ice. Tubes were
357 spun for 5 minutes at 14,000 RPM to pellet beads large precipitates, and the supernatant for each
358 sample was transferred to sterile 2 ml locking Sample tubes RB (Qiagen). DNA was extracted from the
359 transferred supernatant using the standard reagents and protocols for “Plant Cell & Tissues” with the
360 “DNeasy Plant Mini” kit in the QIAcube instrument (Qiagen). The final elution volume for each sample
361 was 100 µl.

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

undiluted DNA extract in duplicate reactions. For the S. Pacific samples, previously determined *nifH* abundance values (Moisander *et al.*, 2010) were used.

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Table and Figure legends

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

Figure 1. 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.

Figure 2. Abundances for total (top panel) and two phenotypic sub-groups (middle and bottom) of *Crocospaera watsonii* in samples collected during the BioLINCS cruise (station locations shown in Fig. 1). 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.

Figure 3. Fraction of total abundance (i.e. the sum of both size fractions) found on 0.2µm filter for the small-cell phenotype of *Crocospaera watsonii* (upper panel) and for the large-cell phenotype (lower panel) in samples collected during the BioLINCS cruise (station locations shown in Fig. 5, and abundances on each filter are shown in supplemental material (figures S4 and S5).

Figure 4. 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 *Crocospaera 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).

Figure 5. Abundances of two *Crocospaera watsonii* phenotypes in North Pacific (A) and South Pacific (C) plotted according to the depth where each water sample was collected. The ratio of the two phenotypes (small:large) is also shown for each of the N. Pacific (B) and the S. Pacific (D) samples.