Bacterioplankton composition in the Scotia Sea, Antarctica, during the austral summer of 2003

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ABSTRACT: Physical ocean processes (ice-melt, island run-off and upwelling of nutrients) were hypothesised to affect the bacterioplankton composition in the surface mixed layer of the Scotia Sea during the austral summer of 2003, and this was investigated using flow cytometry and catalysed reporter deposition fluorescence *in situ* hybridisation (CARD-FISH) techniques. The bacterioplankton was composed predominantly of *Alphaproteobacteria* (PB), comprising SAR11, *Roseobacter* spp. and SAR116 groups, followed by Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria and *Gammaproteobacteria*, including SAR86. Two distinct bacterioplankton communities were identified, largely based on bacterioplankton abundance, which varied from $0.3 \pm 0.06 \times 10^6$ cells ml⁻¹ in the west to $0.8 \pm 0.3 \times 10^6$ cells ml⁻¹ in the east, and a corresponding difference in SAR11 percentages of $30 \pm 15\%$ in the west compared to $5 \pm 5\%$ in the east. The western community was present in waters that were largely in an over-wintered, pre-bloom condition. The eastern bacterioplankton community was associated with phytoplankton blooms developed within the eastern Scotia Sea nutrient upwelling zone, where the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) encounters the shallow bathymetry associated with the Scotia Arc, in combination with seasonal ice-melt and island effects that enabled surface water stratification.

KEY WORDS: Bacterioplankton \cdot Community \cdot CARD-FISH \cdot Flow Cytometry \cdot Scotia Sea \cdot Antarctic Circumpolar Current

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INTRODUCTION

Bacterioplankton play key roles in biogeochemical cycling within oceanic environments, and bacterial production is the main outcome of DOM sequestration within the microbial loop, a process known to largely influence the rest of the marine ecosystem (Ducklow 2000). However, these organisms have been understudied within the Southern Ocean. Bacterioplankton abundance in Antarctic waters has previously been found to be higher when associated with ice formation and melt events (Delille 1992, Grossmann 1994, Grossmann & Dieckmann 1994, Giesenhagen et al. 1999, Delille et al. 2002). Island effects also appear to be significant; for example, bacterioplankton biomass is always higher closer to the Kerguelen Islands archipelago (49.5° S 69.25° E) than at a station over 100 km away (Delille 2003). A strong

positive relationship has also been found between bacterial abundance and chlorophyll *a* within the ACC near to the Antarctic Polar Front (APF) (Lochte et al. 1997).

Various patterns of bacterioplankton distribution have previously been found in Antarctic waters. North-south gradients have been observed across fronts; for example at the APF at 170°W, phytoplankton and bacterioplankton abundances were higher to the north (Brown & Landry 2001) whereas in the Northern Weddell Sea during austral summer Zdanowski & Donachie (1993) observed cold winter water in the west (low bacteria/other parameters) but warmer meltwater in the east (high bacteria/other parameters). Several studies have found bacterial abundance in western Antarctic waters during austral summer (or in ice-free stratified water) to be between 2 and 6×10^5 cells ml⁻¹ (Grossmann 1994, Delille & Rosiers 1996, Pedros-Alio et al. 2002, Church et al. 2003). However, bacterial blooms have also been observed during this time with up to 3×10^6 cells ml⁻¹ (Ducklow et al. 2001).

The spatial variation in bacterioplankton community structure (proportions of different phylogenetic groups) and composition (absolute abundance of these groups) ultimately indicates changes in their environment, but is not well described in the Southern Ocean. One of the few studies undertaken has shown a pronounced dominance of the Sphingobacteria/ Flavobacteria (of the Bacteroidetes phylum) (Garrity et al. 2001) in the psychrophilic bacterioplankton communities from south of the APF to the marginal ice zone, with Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria present in low abundance, and Betaproteobacteria and Archaea absent (Simon et al. 1999). Another study has shown that the Roseobacter-cladeaffiliated cluster constitutes ~20% of total bacteria in the Weddell Sea (Selje et al. 2004).

With this background a large-scale cruise undertaken in the Scotia Sea in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean during January and February 2003 provided a further opportunity to study Antarctic bacterioplankton. Ice-melt-induced stratification of the water column, island run-off and upwelling of nutrients within the ACC influenced the distribution of chlorophyll biomass and mesozooplankton during this cruise (Korb et al. 2005, Ward et al. 2006). It was of particular interest to see to what extent these physical processes also influenced bacterioplankton abundance, distribution and composition.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Samples were collected during a British Antarctic Survey cruise (JR82) on board RRS 'James Clark Ross' (for full details and results of plankton studies, see Ward et al. 2006). Eight zig-zag transects across the Scotia Sea were run in January/February 2003, starting north of the Elephant Island and traversing eastwards (see Fig. 1). The transects crossed the ACC running southwest to northeast through the study area. At each station (see Fig. 1), water samples were collected at 9 vertical depths (20 to 200 m) using a rosette of water bottles mounted on a CTD profiler. At each station/depth, 2 ml seawater subsamples were placed in glass vials and fixed with formaldehyde (1% final concentration) and maintained at +2°C for 24 h. The vials were then stored frozen at -80°C until analysed ashore: bacterioplankton was enumerated using flow cytometry and its composition was determined using catalysed reporter deposition fluorescence in situ hybridisation (CARD-FISH) techniques.

Flow cytometry. Total bacterioplankton were enumerated with a FACSort flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson) in samples stained with SYBR Green I DNA dye (Marie et al. 1997). Yellow-green 0.5 µm bead standards (Fluoresbrite Microparticles, Polysciences) of calibrated concentration were used in all analyses to determine absolute cell concentrations (Zubkov et al. 2002).

CARD-FISH. Station samples used for CARD-FISH were chosen so as to be representative of the study area (see Fig. 1). Samples from 40 m were used to provide information on bacterioplankton composition in surface waters. The CARD-FISH technique employed was based on that of Pernthaler et al. (2002) and Fuchs et al. (2005). Water samples were spotted in 100 µl volumes per segment of a polycarbonate filter with pore size $0.2 \mu m$ prior to embedding in 0.2% agarose. Following cell permeabilisation for 1 h at 37°C with lysozyme solution (10 mg ml $^{-1}$ in 0.05 M EDTA, 0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.0), a further incubation with achromopeptidase solution (60 U ml⁻¹ in 0.01 M NaCl, 0.01 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.0) at 37°C for 30 min was performed. Hybridisation was carried out with segments mounted on slides and 100 µl of a 300:1 hybridisation buffer:probe (25 ng μ l⁻¹) mix added to each segment with the appropriate formamide concentration for the probe. The probe sequences, hybridisation conditions, and references are given in Table 1. The slides were placed in hybridisation chambers in an oven at 46°C for 2 h. Filter segments were then washed in a prewarmed (48°C) washing buffer for 15 min. After probe equilibration and catalysed reporter deposition (see Fuchs et al. 2005), segments were counterstained 4', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). with The DAPI-stained and probe-hybridised cells were manually counted under an epifluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axiovert 200M) equipped with a 100× objective. A minimum of 300 DAPI stained cells were counted per segment. Multi-field counts for a sample hybridised with a probe indicated the amount of variation within a segment. For example, the standard deviation of the percentage of the probe-positive cells of the Eub group present in 17 different fields was 7%.

Data analysis. The CellQuest software (Becton Dickinson Biosciences) was used for operating the flow cytometer and data analyses. For statistical analysis of CARD-FISH data, cluster analysis was used, which provided a dendrogram to indicate any station groupings (Clarke & Warwick 1994). Cluster analysis was based on Bray-Curtis similarities on untransformed data and was conducted using the PRIMER 5 software (Clarke & Gorley 2001). For comparison of average data between the 2 regions identified, *t*-tests were performed to show any significant differences (SigmaPlot software version 9.0).

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Probe	Sequence 5'-3'	Target group	FMC (%)	Source
Eub338	GCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT	Bacteria	35	Amann et al. (1990)
Eury806	CACAGCGTTTACACCTAG	Archaea	0	Teira et al. (2004)
Cren554	TTAGGCCCAATAATCMTCCT	Archaea	0	Massana et al. (1997)
Alf968	GGTAAGGTTCTGCGCGTT	Alphaproteobacteria	35	Neef (1997)
SAR11/486	GGACCTTCTTATTCGGGT	SAR 11	40	Fuchs et al. (2005)
SAR11/542R	TCCGAACTACGCTAGGTC	SAR 11	40	Morris et al. (2002)
Ros 537	CAACGCTAACCCCCTCC	Roseobacter	35	Eilers et al. (2001)
SAR116 1-447	GCTACCGTCATCATCTTC	SAR116	25	Fuchs et al. (2005)
SAR116 2-436	CATCTTCACCAGTGAAAG	SAR116	25	Fuchs et al. (2005)
Gam42a	GCCTTCCCACATCGTTT	Gammaproteobacteria	35	Manz et al. (1992)
SAR86/1245	TTAGCGTCCGTCTGTAT	SAR86	35	Zubkov et al. (2001)
CF319a	TGGTCCGTGTCTAGTAC	S/F bacteria	35	Manz et al. (1996)

 Table 1. Probes used during CARD-FISH; sequence, target phylogenetic group, formamide concentration (FMC) used for hybridisation buffer (at 46°C), and data source. S/F bacteria = Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The bacterioplankton in the Scotia Sea were dominated by Alphaproteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria and Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria, with Archaea in low percentages (Table 2). Members of the SAR11 clade dominated Alphaproteobacteria, with Roseobacter spp. and members of the SAR116 clade also present (Table 2). The Roseobacter clade (Ros537) constituted less of the total bacteria than previously observed in the nearby Weddell Sea (Selje et al. 2004). Gammaproteobacteria included SAR86 clade (Table 2), but most of this group remained unidentified by the probes used. Structurally, the bacterioplankton in the Scotia Sea differed from those found to the east in the Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean by Simon et al. (1999), where Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria alone dominated and Gammaproteobacteria Archaea were rare/ absent, showing that bacterioplankton is a dynamic community of the ACC surface waters and, perhaps, indicating the organic matter decomposition of the advected eastern Scotia Sea phytoplankton bloom by Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria. In the west of the Scotia Sea, there were high proportions of Alphaproteobacteria and SAR11; on average, 96% of Bacteria were identified by generic probes. For comparison, in the east of the Scotia Sea, Alphaproteobacteria were equally dominant with Gammaproteobacteria and Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria, together identifying just 64% of Bacteria.

Western (WR) and eastern (ER) regions were clearly identified within the Scotia Sea, based on the structure and composition of the bacterioplankton (Figs. 1 & 2, Tables 2 & 3). WR contained higher proportions of *Alphaproteobacteria* and SAR11 than ER (Table 2). Conversely ER had higher abundances of total bacteriTable 2. Structure (% probe-positive cells) and abundance (×10³ cells ml⁻¹) of bacterioplankton in 2 regions identified in the Scotia Sea. Data are averages across stations within the 2 regions \pm SD. Physical and chemical data averaged over both flow cytometry and FISH stations are given (nutrients in mmol m⁻³; chl *a* data integrated over 0 to 100 m). Results of *t*-test shown; significant differences (p < 0.05) are in bold, df = 11 (*), 31 (**) or 25 (***). Note: FISH and flow cytometry conducted at different stations within the regions. Chlorophyll *a* data is from oceanic stations only, since South Georgia stations have exceptionally high levels (295 \pm 122 mg m⁻²). S/F bacteria: Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria

Probe/group	Region		p-values			
	West (WR)	East (ER)	-			
Bacterioplankton community structure (WR n = 8, ER n = 5)						
Archaea	1 ± 2	3 ± 2	0.1*			
Bacteria	87 ± 12	89 ± 3	0.80*			
Alphaproteobacteria	52 ± 16	23 ± 11	0.005*			
SAR11	32 ± 15	5 ± 5	0.002*			
Ros537	7 ± 3	6 ± 3	0.8*			
SAR116	4 ± 3	4 ± 2	0.65*			
Gammaproteobacter	ia 12 ± 10	17 ± 5	0.36*			
SAR86	2 ± 2	2 ± 2	0.93*			
S/F bacteria	20 ± 13	17 ± 7	0.61*			
Bacterioplankton ab	undance (WR n	n = 6, ER n = 16	i)			
All bacteria	332 ± 62	819 ± 352	0.006			
			(df = 20)			
Synechococcus	0.014 ± 0.005	0.002 ± 0.002	0.001			
			(df = 19)			
Physical/chemical da	ıta					
Salinity (psu)	34.08 ± 0.25	33.99 ± 0.16	0.20**			
Temp. (°C)	0.29 ± 1.42	1.40 ± 2.02	0.09**			
$NO_{3}^{-} + NO_{2}^{-}$	29.7 ± 3.0	25.3 ± 6.5	0.025**			
PO4 ³⁻	1.94 ± 0.21	1.64 ± 0.46	0.03**			
NH ₄	0.62 ± 0.51	1.25 ± 0.82	0.017**			
Silicate	62.8 ± 21.3	37.9 ± 31.7	0.018**			
Chl $a (\text{mg m}^{-2})$	23 ± 11	47 ± 33	0.022***			

ER

South Georgia

30

0



WR

CO

50

40

oplankton, including *Synechococcus* spp. of cyanobacteria, although the latter had a very low abundance overall (Table 2). Salinity and temperature did not differ significantly between the 2 regions, but nutrients did differ, with all except ammonia in lower quantities in ER (Table 2). Chlorophyll *a* concentrations were also higher in ER, especially near South Georgia (Table 2). All these differences were shown to be statistically significant by *t*-tests (Table 2). Cluster analysis on the FISH data also separated these 2 regions, with 1 outlier: a southerly station close to the ice-edge at which bacterioplankton could have been affected by icemelting (Fig. 2).



Fig. 2. Cluster analysis dendrogram displaying percentage similarity of stations with corresponding coordinates based on bacterioplankton structure data obtained from CARD-FISH, with western (WR) and eastern (ER) regions indicated

Table 3. Comparison of bacterioplankton community composition in the surface mixed layer of western and eastern regions of the Scotia Sea. Average composition of bacterioplankton (×10³ cells ml⁻¹) was computed using FISH-probe proportions and total bacterioplankton abundance across the 2 regions. Results of *t*-test shown; significant differences (p < 0.05) are in bold, df = 11. S/F bacteria: Sphingobacteria/ Flavobacteria

Probe/group	Region		p-values
	West (WR)	East (ER)	-
Archaea	4.4 ± 5.6	25.3 ± 15.0	0.004
Bacteria	290 ± 42	729 ± 26	0.0001
Alphaproteobacteria	171 ± 53	191 ± 88	0.611
SAR11	108 ± 50	38.3 ± 38.8	0.024
Ros537	22 ± 10	51 ± 21	0.006
SAR116	13.1 ± 8.6	31.9 ± 13.7	0.014
Gammaproteobacteria	40.2 ± 31.7	136 ± 42	0.001
SAR86	7.8 ± 8.2	18.3 ± 17.0	0.158
S/F bacteria	67.0 ± 41.6	136 ± 58	0.028

The composition of the bacterioplankton (Table 3) shows the actual abundances of bacteria that were present, and can differ as to structure, i.e. group percentages in the community. Indeed, there were similar abundances of Alphaproteobacteria between the 2 regions (Table 3), whereas the proportions differed (Table 2). However, SAR11 was both highly abundant and proportionally dominant in WR (Tables 2 & 3). Roseobacter spp., SAR116, Gammaproteobacteria, Archaea and Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria abundances were higher in ER even though they had similar proportions in WR and ER (Tables 2 & 3). This suggests that as SAR11 abundance was lower in the more productive ER, the other prokaryotic groups, in particular Gammaproteobacteria and Sphingobacteria/Flavobacteria, were able to flourish and reached higher abundances.

The regions identified in this study appear consistent with those described by Korb et al. (2005), who examined primary production across the Scotia Sea in relation to the physico-chemical environment, and Ward et al. (2006), who examined plankton community structure during the same cruise. Enhanced primary production in the eastern Scotia Sea during austral summer of 2003, reported by Korb et al. (2005), was variously attributed to ice-melt in the southeast, island run-off of nutrients (e.g. iron) near the island of South Georgia, and upwelling of nutrients from sediment due to underwater plateaus/ridges encountered by the ACC as it flowed eastwards into this region. Ice-melt in the southeast was observed to cause stabilization of the water column, resulting in shallow mixed layers that restricted phytoplankton to the euphotic zone, thus maximising growth in this region. This stratification of the water column in ER and consequential phytoplankton growth would result in higher organic matter

52

Latitude, °S 09 09

64

Drake Passage

60



Fig. 3. Depth profiles of bacterioplankton (Bpl) abundance and temperature (T) at stations representing western (top panels) and eastern (bottom panels) regions

input, thus stimulating bacterioplankton growth in this region. Ward et al. (2006) also found the region in the vicinity of the Antarctic Peninsula to be characterised by low phytoplankton cell counts and low mesozooplankton abundances, with populations of the latter largely in an over-wintered state. Further east and north, stations were chlorophyll and zooplankton rich and the summer generation was well advanced. In the southern areas of the ER these relatively advanced communities were associated with production associated with the retreating ice-edge.

Diatom blooms have previously been associated with ice-edges, indicated by decreased silicate (Fonda Umani et al. 2005). In the current study, the ice-edge retreating in the southeast may be one reason for the advanced development of the bacterioplankton, with fresh nutrient input from the melting ice and diatom blooms resulting (indeed, silicate was decreased in the east). Bacterioplankton blooms during ice-melt have been shown previously (Delille 1992, Giesenhagen et al. 1999). In the northern part of the ER around the island of South Georgia, diatom blooms are a consistent feature over the shelf and surrounding regions during the austral summer. Whilst lying to the north of the seasonal sea-ice zone, production is thought to be consistent with a plentiful supply of macronutrients and the input of iron brought about by the impact of the ACC with the local bathymetry.

The physical processes of ice-melt in the southeast, island run-off and upwelling of nutrients within the ACC, appear to interact in the Scotia Sea, with ice-melt causing stratification and phytoplankton/bacterioplankton growth in ER, exacerbated by fresh nutrient input in this region due to the combined effect of the ocean physics. Thus local physical ocean processes appear to be important in controlling the abundance and community structure of microbiota in this region.

CONCLUSIONS

The distinct east-west regional distribution of the bacterioplankton appears to be attributable to the development of stratification with corresponding growth of phytoplankton responsible for inorganic nutrient depletion in the ER of the Scotia Sea (Ward et al. 2006) and organic nutrient release with consequential growth of bacterioplankton. SAR11 abundance and dominance was lower, while other prokaryotic groups were more abundant in the east, showing a dynamic response of the community to mixed-layer stratification. This further underlines the important relationship between bacterioplankton ecology and ocean physics.

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