

1 Changes in bacterial concentrations with depth, temperature, and chlorophyll fluorescence in the

2 Equatorial Pacific Ocean

3 Eunie H. Lim

4 University of Washington

5 School of Oceanography, Box 357940

6 Seattle, WA 98195-7940

7 eunielim@uw.edu

8 02 June 2023

9 **Abstract**

10 It is important to consider the abundance of marine bacteria, as they play important roles
11 in biogeochemical processes that are significant in the carbon cycle. Marine bacteria can give us
12 insight about factors such as the amount of nutrients in the water, dissolved organic matter
13 (DOM) production by phytoplankton, and photosynthesis occurring in the water. High bacterial
14 abundance indicates that there are high levels of nutrients and organic matter, and examining
15 bacterial abundances at different depths can reveal the state of the ocean such as nutrient levels
16 and bioactivity. My study was carried out by collecting water samples from the Equatorial
17 Pacific Ocean and processing the samples through a flow cytometer to get heterotrophic bacterial
18 concentrations measured in cells/mL. Here we show that bacterial abundance is the highest in the
19 top 200 meters of the ocean and decreases with depth. I found that bacterial abundance mirrors
20 the presence of phytoplankton as heterotrophic bacteria absorb nutrients from dead
21 phytoplankton. My results show that temperature and chlorophyll fluorescence share the same
22 trend as bacteria, of increasing at the surface and decreasing at depth, which seems to relate to
23 the availability of sunlight with depth in the ocean. In addition, bacterial abundance is higher
24 south of the equator compared to north of the equator. This could be due to sunlight and the
25 angle of the sun's rays on the ocean surface being more direct on the water, resulting in increased
26 sunlight available for photosynthesis in phytoplankton and thus more food for bacteria.

27 **Plain Language Summary**

28 Heterotrophic bacteria are bacteria that use dissolved organic matter for food, which is
29 released by phytoplankton. Therefore, phytoplankton are a main food source for heterotrophic
30 bacteria. Autotrophic bacteria are bacteria that are able to produce their own food through
31 sunlight and photosynthesis. In this experiment, I focused on heterotrophic bacteria and how
32 their abundance is affected by temperature, chlorophyll fluorescence, and depth. Chlorophyll
33 fluorescence is able to be used to tell the abundance of phytoplankton, because phytoplankton
34 are also autotrophs and need chlorophyll in order to carry out photosynthesis. Therefore, the
35 levels of chlorophyll fluorescence also represent phytoplankton abundance in the ocean. This
36 experiment was carried out by collecting water samples from the Equatorial Pacific Ocean and
37 processing the samples through an instrument to obtain heterotrophic bacterial concentrations
38 measured in cells/mL. I found that bacterial abundance is the highest in the top 200 meters of the
39 ocean, where temperatures are the warmest and chlorophyll fluorescence is the highest. It is
40 important to study marine bacteria because they are responsible for incorporating and
41 redistributing organic matter and inorganic nutrients throughout the ocean and regulating the
42 marine food chain.

43 **Introduction**

44 Marine bacteria play critical roles in the global nutrient cycle as they incorporate and
45 redistribute organic matter and inorganic nutrients throughout the oceans (Tang et al., 2012).
46 They are involved in the transformation of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in the ocean, which
47 is correlated between bacteria and primary production (Jiménez-Mercado et al., 2007). Primary
48 production occurs where light is the most available for autotrophs to carry out photosynthesis.
49 Sunlight is required for photosynthesis to occur, and the warmth from the sun causes water
50 temperatures to rise, which results in increased respiration rates and bacterial growth rates
51 (Jiménez-Mercado et al., 2007). Respiration of marine bacteria is linearly related to their growth
52 rate, and the slope of the line appears to depend on other nutrients, principally nitrogen for
53 protein synthesis (Fenchel & Blackburn, 1979).

54 Half of the ocean's primary productivity is channeled by heterotrophic bacteria to the
55 microbial loop (Djaoudi et al., 2020). The role of the microbial loop is important as it rapidly
56 recycles nutrients above the thermocline caused by bacteria consuming sinking particles and
57 reintroducing the energy back into the food web when they get eaten by larger creatures
58 (Wangersky 1977). This pathway drives a wide range of biogeochemical processes, such as
59 assimilating and transforming dissolved organic matter (DOM) in marine ecosystems, that are
60 necessary for the carbon cycle (Bunse and Pinhassi, 2017). The Sheldon (1972) particle-size
61 model describes how organisms tend to use particles one order of magnitude smaller than
62 themselves. Phytoplankton releases DOM, which is a significant process that provides energy
63 and nutrients to bacteria and is returned to the main food chain via a microbial loop of bacteria-
64 flagellates-microzooplankton (Azam et al., 2017). Bacterial production and growth rates appear

65 to be limited by DOM in the equatorial pacific, which results in bacterial production following
66 primary production over large spatial and temporal scales (Kirchman & Rich 1997).

67 Bacteria feed on organic matter, such as dead phytoplankton, and are also responsible for
68 the uptake of phosphate and ammonium. In the ocean, bacteria consume NH_4^+ for their growth,
69 which reduces the availability of NH_4^+ in the water for phytoplankton to use. Therefore,
70 phytoplankton ultimately turns to NO_3^- as a substitute nutrient source as NH_4^+ availability
71 decreases. This indicates that when bacteria grazing is not recycling enough NH_4^+ back into the
72 system, phytoplankton use more NO_3^- in response to the lack of NH_4^+ . (Kirchman 1994). Giebel
73 et al. (2021) found that prokaryotic cells, which include bacteria, follow patterns of Chl *a*,
74 particulate organic carbon (POC), and particulate organic nitrogen (PON) in the ocean, resulting
75 in enhanced levels of Chl *a*, POC, and PON in the upper 100 meters of the ocean at the
76 equatorial upwelling zone, where temperatures are also warmer (Giebel et al., 2021).

77 Since marine bacteria play such important roles in the ocean, I think it is essential to
78 observe where bacterial concentrations are most abundant, because it could give us insight of
79 marine bacteria's ability to recycle organic matter and factors that can help determine the health
80 of ocean environments such as primary production and nutrient concentrations. The question I
81 have is how bacterial concentrations will change with depth, and what environmental factors
82 regulate the abundance of heterotrophic bacteria in the Equatorial Pacific Ocean. I hypothesize
83 that there will be high bacterial concentrations in the surface mixed layer and decrease as depth
84 passes the mixed layer into the intermediate layer, about 500-1000 meters below sea level. Fast
85 growing microbes are abundant in the upper column, whereas slower growing microbes are
86 relatively more abundant at depth (Nguyen et al., 2022). I assume that there will be higher
87 concentrations of bacteria where there is an abundance of phytoplankton due to dead

88 phytoplankton and released DOM being one of the main intakes by bacteria. Following the same
89 logic, I predict there to be less bacterial abundance as depth increases past the mixed layer
90 because phytoplankton concentrations decrease as there is less light available and phytoplankton
91 are unable to carry out photosynthesis. Deep waters are colder, which indicates a surplus of
92 nutrients that are available for bacteria as there are no phytoplankton utilizing it, as well as
93 particulate organic matter sinking through the oceanic water column into the deep ocean
94 (Bergauer et al., 2017). Jing et al. (2013) found that species richness and diversity were higher
95 for bacterial communities in the intermediate water layers than for those in surface and deep
96 waters in the Pacific Ocean, but Höfle & Brettar (1995) stated that bacterial species richness was
97 the highest in the bottom water due to carbon and oxygen rich sites being known to carry more
98 diverse communities than near bottom waters that suffer from oxygen depletion. (Jing et al.,
99 2013; Höfle & Brettar 1995). Another paper found that the diversity of community structure was
100 uniform horizontally between different sites than vertically, which supports my hypothesis of
101 bacterial abundances changing with depth (Koskinen et al., 2010). With these papers, I infer that
102 with high species richness and diversity, there will also be high bacterial counts, and by
103 collecting my own data I can test if there are more bacteria in the surface, intermediate, or deep
104 waters.

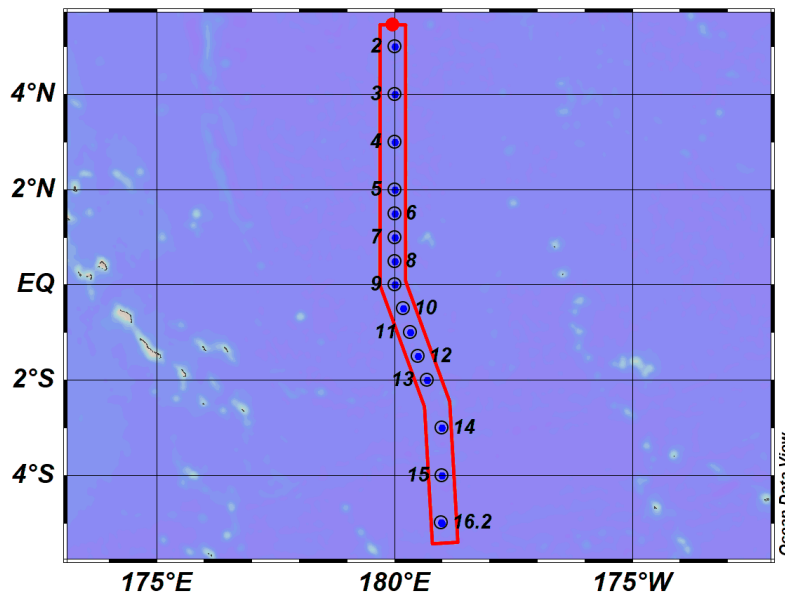
105 Fluctuations of environmental factors could affect the bacterial abundance in surface
106 waters compared to the deep waters in the Equatorial Pacific because of westerly wind events
107 such as El Niño. These winds cause changes such as an increase in sea surface height (SSH),
108 deepening of the mixed layer, and an increase in sea surface temperature (SST) (Vecchi &
109 Harrison 2000). During El Niño, winds decrease, which causes upwelling to weaken, and cold,
110 nutrient rich waters from the deep waters are unable to rise to the surface. With a lack of

- 111 nutrients in the surface water, there are fewer phytoplankton, which affect organisms that feed on
- 112 phytoplankton, such as bacteria.

113 **Methods**

114 I carried out my experiment aboard the R/V Thomas G. Thompson from February 23 to
115 March 23, 2023, on a transect from Honolulu, Hawaii to Suva, Fiji. Depths were chosen based
116 on rapid changes in chlorophyll fluorescence, oxygen, and salinity – properties that may affect
117 bacterial abundance – using the conductivity, temperature, and density (CTD) instrument as it
118 was being lowered into the ocean. I chose 10 different depths, ranging from 5 meters to 1000
119 meters below sea level. Most samples were taken from the surface waters between 5 meters and
120 200 meters where chlorophyll fluorescence levels were the highest. I took these samples from
121 5°N -5°S in the Equatorial Pacific Ocean (Fig 2). From the CTD, I filled a 15 mL

Figure 1. Thesis expedition map with markers representing sampling locations from 5°N -5°S in the Equatorial Pacific Ocean.



123 falcon tube with water from the
124 different depths and then transferred
125 1uL of each sample into a cryotube
126 and then flash froze them in the -80°
127 freezer. The samples were
128 transported from Fiji to Seattle in a
129 dry shipper filled with liquid
130 nitrogen. In the lab in Seattle, the

131 cryotubes were organized by station and depth. I filled duplicate 96 well plates with 150 uL of
132 sample and added 3 uL of SYBR green into one of the duplicate plates. This SYBR was used to
133 stain the DNA of the bacteria in the samples so that the Guava easyCyte flow cytometer would
134 be able to count them. Once the plates were run into the flow cytometer, it gave me a cell count
135 in cells/mL of the heterotrophic and autotrophic bacteria combined in the samples. Heterotrophic

136 bacteria concentrations were obtained by subtracting bacterial abundance counted by the flow
137 cytometer without SYBR green from bacterial abundance counted by the flow cytometer stained
138 with SYBR green. Staining the samples before running them through the flow cytometer gives a
139 count of all of the bacteria in the sample, whereas the non-stained samples give a count of
140 autotrophs and phytoplankton. By finding the difference between the two, counts of
141 heterotrophic bacteria were able to be obtained. With this data, I made figures using
142 OceanDataView, and was able to layer different variables measured from the CTD and compare
143 them to bacterial abundance to see how they were affected. Then, in order to better understand
144 the correlation between chlorophyll fluorescence and bacterial abundance, I used the multiple
145 linear regression (MLR) tool in Excel and combined chlorophyll fluorescence, light
146 transmission, and temperature. I used these three variables to assess whether they could be used
147 to predict heterotrophic bacterial abundance.

148 **Results**

149 Bacteria concentrations are
150 highest from 0 to 200 meters below
151 sea level. As depth increases,
152 bacterial abundance decreases (Fig
153 2). The bacterial depth profiles were
154 consistent with every station
155 from 5N to 5S, but there was
156 a difference in the maximum
157 bacterial concentrations depending on if the samples were taken north or south of the equator
158 (Fig 3). Heterotrophic bacterial concentrations were higher in samples taken from the stations
159 south of the equator, ranging from
160 concentrations of 500,000 cells/mL
161 to 700,000 cells/mL, whereas
162 concentrations of bacteria taken in
163 the northern hemisphere ranged from
164 300,000 cells/mL to 500,000
165 cells/mL (Fig 3). Using the
166 heterotrophic bacterial counts, a heat
167 contour map was created through
168 OceanDataView (ODV) with depth,
169 measured in meters on the y-axis
170 and latitude from 5N to 5S on the x-

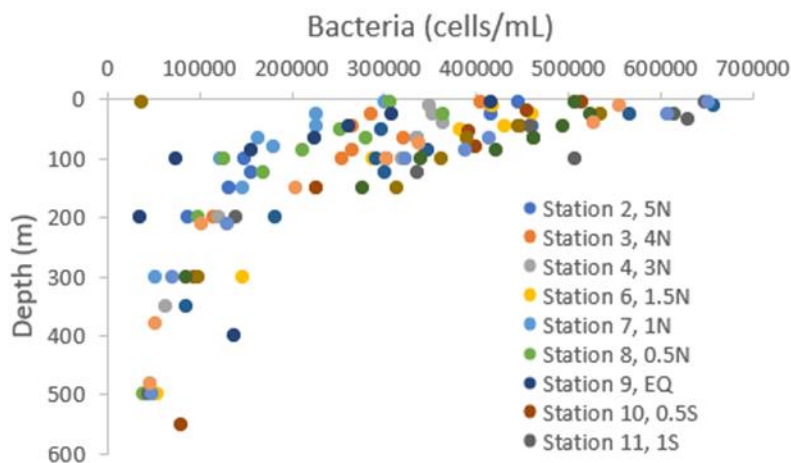


Figure 2. Heterotrophic bacterial abundance measured in cells/mL from the Equatorial Pacific Ocean on the x-axis and depth measured in meters on the y-axis. Stations labeled in legend, represented by different colored dots.

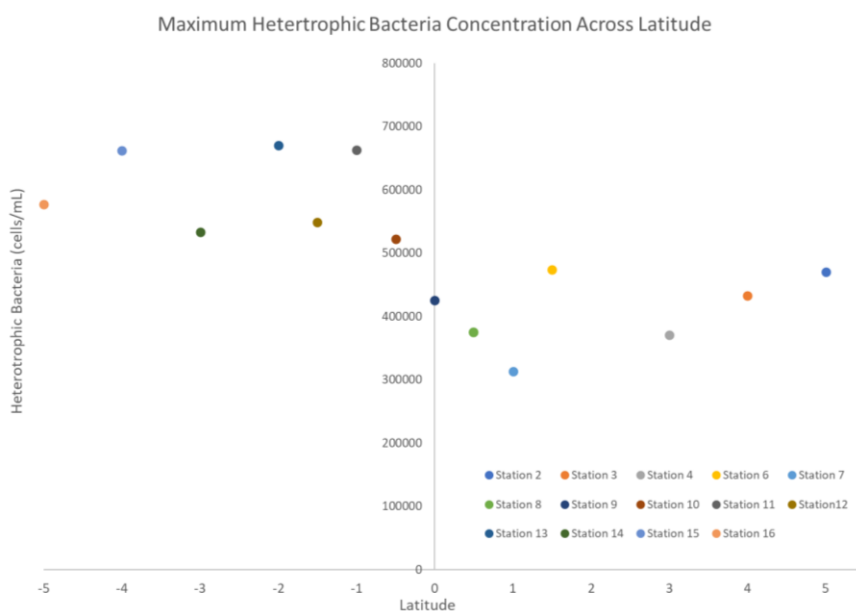


Figure 3. Greatest bacterial concentrations from each station on the y-axis measured in cells/mL against latitude from 5N to 5S in the Equatorial Pacific Ocean on the x-axis. Stations labeled in legend, represented by different colored dots.

171 axis and
 172 heterotrophic
 173 bacterial
 174 concentrations on
 175 z-axis represented
 176 by the different
 177 colors (Fig 4).

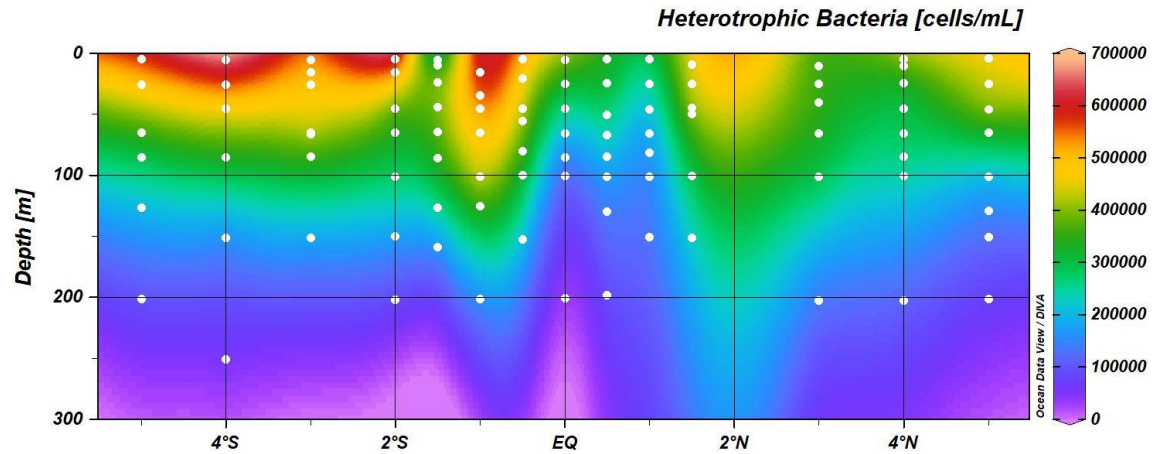


Figure 4. Heat contour map of heterotrophic bacteria (cells/mL) against depth. White dots on the figure represent depths where samples were taken.

178 Although there are
 179 extrapolations evident as an
 180 impact of ODV contouring, it represents the spatial distribution of heterotrophic bacteria along
 181 latitude and depth, providing a visual of how bacterial concentrations are highest at the surface
 182 than with depth, and is higher south of the equator than the north, with a minimum amount at the
 183 equator. (Fig 4).

184 In the Equatorial Pacific
 185 Ocean, waters were warmest at the
 186 surface and became colder with
 187 depth, and the thermocline of the
 188 ocean changed with latitude. (Fig
 189 5). This was similar to the

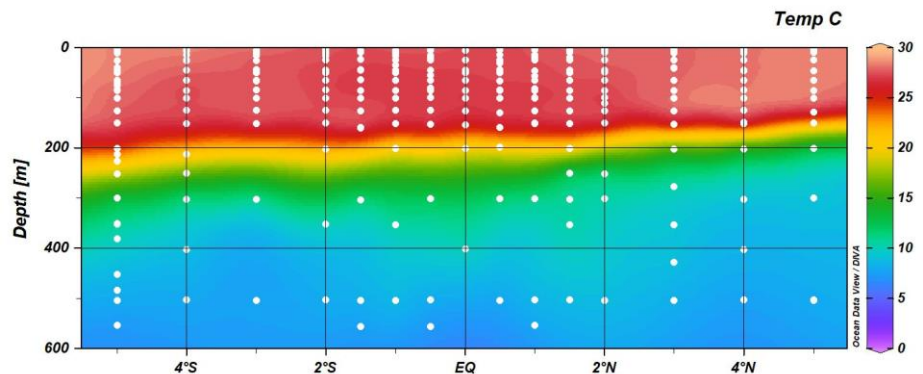


Figure 5. Heat contour map of temperature against depth along latitude. The warmest temperatures are shown in red and changes colors according to the scale on the right with depth and temperature.

190 bacterial abundance of the samples
 191 taken because bacterial abundance was
 192 highest at the surface, where the temperature of the water was the warmest, and decreased in
 193 abundance as temperature decreased as well. Chlorophyll fluorescence was also seen to follow

194 the same trend, as levels were highest at
195 the surface and decreased with depth,
196 along with the concentration of bacteria
197 (Fig 6). The chlorophyll fluorescence
198 ranged from 1.5 to 0 RFU when bacteria
199 concentrations were the highest and ranged
200 from 0 to 0.25 RFU when bacteria
201 concentrations began to decrease (Fig 6).
202 Bacteria concentrations, temperature, and
203 chlorophyll concentrations all displayed similar trends of maxing at the surface and decreasing
204 with depth.
205

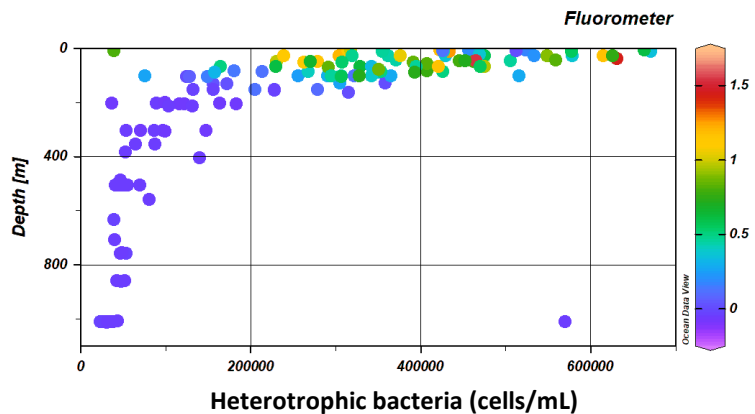


Figure 6. Bacterial depth profile, with colors of the dots representing chlorophyll fluorescence data at each sample. Red dots represent the highest chlorophyll fluorescence and purple dots represent the lowest chlorophyll fluorescence. Bacterial abundance on the x-axis and depth on the y-axis.

206 **Discussion**

207 Bacterial abundance is
208 highest at the surface primarily due
209 to their correlation with chlorophyll
210 fluorescence. Bacterial abundance is
211 correlated with chlorophyll fluorescence
212 because where there is high fluorescence,
213 there is also high primary production activity, which includes phytoplankton (Fig 7). After dying,
214 phytoplankton becomes a source of food for bacteria, which is why bacteria are usually abundant
215 where there are high levels of phytoplankton. Since primary producers need sunlight in order to
216 carry out photosynthesis, they are found in the warmer surface ocean where sunlight is the
217 strongest. Sunlight cannot penetrate deep into the ocean, and with decreased sunlight is a
218 decrease in temperature and a decrease in primary production. Therefore, bacterial abundance is
219 seen to correlate with the trends of chlorophyll fluorescence with depth.

220 However, bacterial
221 concentrations did not appear to
222 correlate with temperature. When
223 the temperature was the highest at
224 around 27 degrees, heterotrophic
225 bacterial concentrations varied
226 from 100,000 cells/mL to 600,000
227 cells/mL. This significantly large

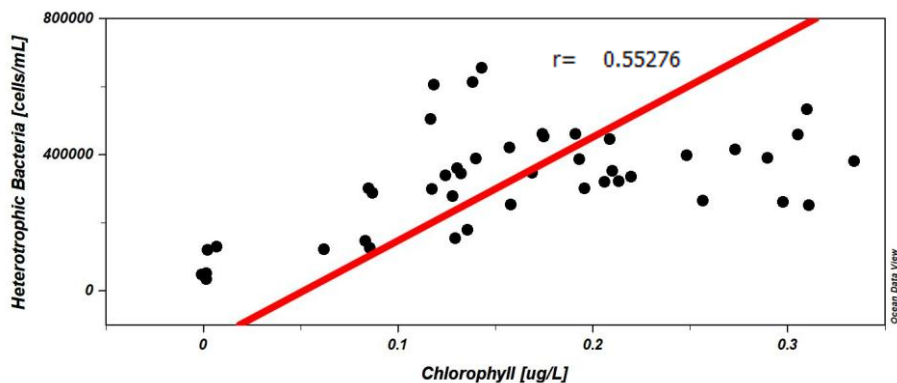


Figure 7. Comparison of heterotrophic bacteria concentrations against calculated chlorophyll concentrations from all stations

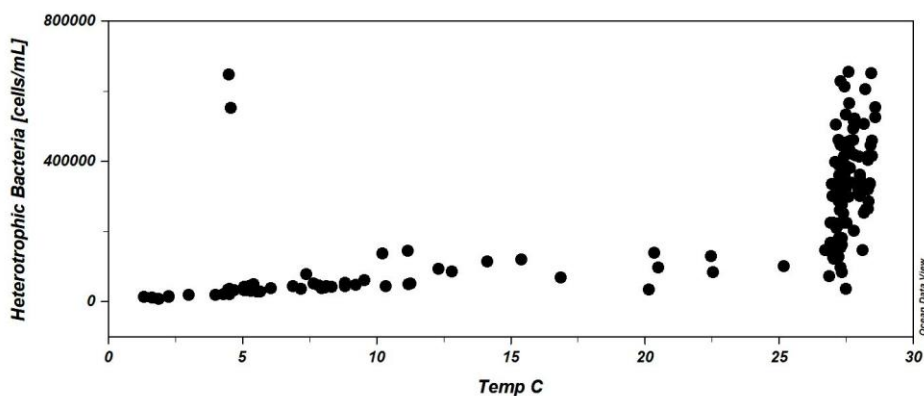


Figure 8. Heterotrophic bacteria compared against temperature from all stations and depths.

228 variation in data does not demonstrate a correlation between bacterial concentrations and depth
229 (Fig 8).

230 Using the MLR, I made line fit
231 plots for all three variables individually.

232 There were significant overlaps in the
233 measured heterotrophic bacteria

234 abundances and predicted (Fig 9). In
235 addition, I used the line fit plot to create

236 residual plots for the variables. The
237 residual is what is left after subtracting

238 the predicted bacteria from the observed bacteria; the positive values mean that the prediction
239 was too low, and negative values mean the prediction was too high, whereas zero means the

240 prediction was accurate. The residual
241 values of each variable clustered toward 0,

242 so I can conclude that a linear model is
243 appropriate for predicting heterotrophic

244 bacterial concentrations (Fig 10). I had
245 146 samples of heterotrophic bacterial

246 data and found that the three variables combined accounted for 72% of the variability in bacterial
247 abundance, which is represented by the R squared value. The multiple linear regression fit was

248 0.85 – represented by the R value. Seeing as temperature, chlorophyll fluorescence, and light
249 transmission could be used to predict bacterial abundance with an accuracy of 72%, I can assume

250 that there is a correlation between heterotrophic bacterial abundance, chlorophyll fluorescence,

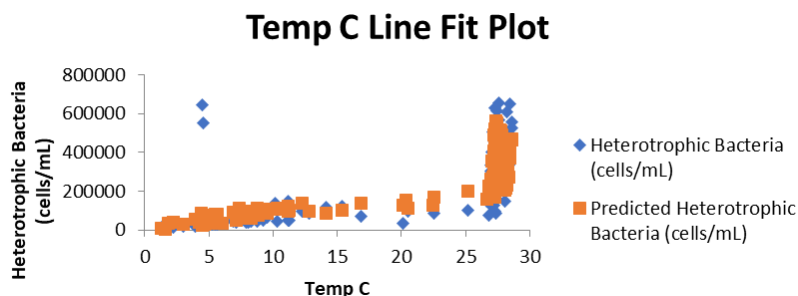


Fig 9. Line fit plot of heterotrophic bacteria measured in cells/mL on the y-axis and temperature in °C on the x-axis. Measured heterotrophic bacteria represented by blue diamonds and predicted heterotrophic bacteria using multiple linear regression represented by orange squares.

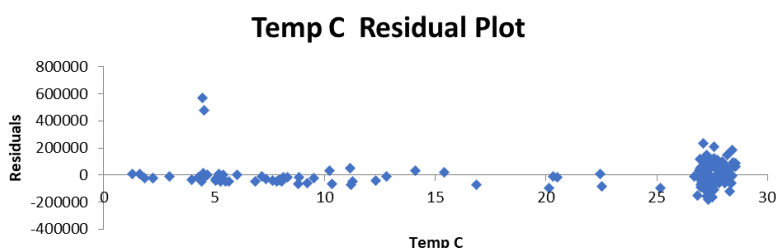


Fig 10. Residual plot of chlorophyll fluorescence, with residual data from line fit plot on the y-axis and chlorophyll fluorescence on the x-axis.

251 and depth. When the multiple linear regression test was done without light transmission, the
252 linear regression only accounted for 55% of the variability. Since light transmission accounts for
253 about 20% of the variability in bacterial abundance, it is safe to assume that light transmission is
254 significant when considering heterotrophic bacterial abundance. Light is most available at the
255 surface and decreases with depth, and although there is no direct correlation with depth and
256 bacteria alone, the results of this multiple linear regression test indicates that there is a
257 correlation between bacterial abundance and depth when light is considered. The results that I
258 found were similar to Aniefiok (2015) when researching bacterial abundance-chlorophyll a
259 concentration relationship in Southeastern Nigeria (2015). Aniefiok's overall results concluded
260 that there is a correlation between bacteria cell abundance with chlorophyll a concentration. He
261 took samples from two stations and found a weak positive correlation at 57°N, 18°E with an r
262 value of -0.587. The second station at 45°N and 35°E had a strong positive correlation with an r
263 value of 0.599. This finding was consistent with my results as I found that the correlation
264 between heterotrophic bacteria and chlorophyll concentration had an r value of 0.55 (Fig 7).

265 **Conclusions**

266 My hypothesis was correct in that bacterial abundances were highest at the surface waters
267 and decreased with depth. This is primarily due to the correlation with chlorophyll fluorescence.
268 Bacterial abundance is correlated with chlorophyll fluorescence because where there is high
269 chlorophyll fluorescence, there is also high primary productivity, which includes phytoplankton.
270 Although there is no direct correlation between bacterial abundance and temperature, bacteria do
271 grow faster in warmer temperatures, which occurs in the upper 200 meters of the ocean and
272 decrease with depth. This is because as depth increases, the sunlight able to penetrate into the
273 ocean decreases, which causes water to be colder and denser. As a result, light availability in the
274 ocean decreases, limiting primary production in the deeper ocean. When phytoplankton
275 decreases, primary production decreases, resulting in less food available for bacteria, decreasing
276 their abundance. In addition, although there is also no direct correlation between bacteria
277 abundance and depth, variables of temperature, chlorophyll fluorescence, and light attenuation
278 combined can be used to predict bacterial abundance with an accuracy of 72%. This indicates
279 that depth plays a significant role when considering light availability in the ocean, which
280 contributes to bacterial abundance. However, this also means that there are other important
281 factors to consider as 30% of the variability of bacteria still remains unaccounted for. It is
282 important to understand these factors and how they affect bacteria because bacteria play an
283 important role in nutrient cycles by incorporating and redistributing dissolved organic matter and
284 inorganic nutrients throughout the oceans, which reveals the state of the ocean such as nutrient
285 levels and primary production. If this experiment were to be repeated, I suggest taking duplicates
286 of each sample in order to ensure more useful and reliable data in order to eliminate any

287 ambiguity in the results. In addition, I would like to take nutrient samples to see how they play
288 an effect on bacterial abundance variability.

289 **Acknowledgements**

290 I'd like to thank my lab mentor, Mike Sadler, for the guidance both on the cruise creating
291 my sampling plan and in lab analyzing my data, as well as Robert Morris for providing me with
292 the Guava EasyCyte flow cytometer and lab space to process my samples. I'd also like to thank
293 my advisors Ginger Armbrust, François Ribalet, and Rick Keil for encouraging me to expand my
294 knowledge and providing critical feedback to improve my experiment. Finally, I'd like to thank
295 the captain and crew of the R/V Thomas G. Thompson for giving me the opportunity to collect
296 my data and allowing me to experience such a unique hands-on learning experience.

297 **References**

- 298 Aniefiok I, I. (2015). Bacterial abundance – chlorophyll a concentration relationships in Cross
299 River Basin, Southeastern Nigeria: An evaluation of empirical bacterial abundance –
300 chlorophyll a models using a multivariate analysis. *Journal of Water Resources and Ocean
301 Science*, 4(6), 72. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.wros.20150406.11>
- 302 Azam, F., Fenchel, T., Field, J. G., Gray, J. S., Meyer-Reil, L. A., & Thingstad, F. (1983).
303 The ecological role of water-column microbes in the sea. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*,
304 10, 257–263. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps010257>
- 305 Bergauer, K., Fernandez-Guerra, A., Garcia, J. A., Sprenger, R. R., Stepanauskas, R.,
306 Pachiadaki, M. G., Jensen, O. N., & Herndl, G. J. (2017). Organic matter processing by
307 microbial communities throughout the Atlantic water column as revealed by
308 Metaproteomics. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(3).
309 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1708779115>
- 310 Bunse, C. and Pinhassi, J. (2017). Marine bacterioplankton seasonal succession dynamics,
311 *Trends Microbiol.*, 25, 494–505, 2017.
- 312 Djaoudi, K., Van Wambeke, F., Barani, A., Bhairy, N., Chevaillier, S., Desboeufs, K., Nunige,
313 S., Labiadh, M., Henry des Tureaux, T., Lefèvre, D., Nouara, A., Panagiotopoulos, C.,
314 Tedetti, M., & Pulido-Villena, E. (2020). Potential bioavailability of organic matter from
315 atmospheric particles to marine heterotrophic bacteria. *Biogeosciences*, 17(24), 6271–
316 6285. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-17-6271-2020>

317 Fenchel, T., Blackburn, T. H. (1979). *Bacteria and mineral cycling*, Academic Press, London

318 Giebel, H.-A., Arnosti, C., Badewien, T. H., Bakenhus, I., Balmonte, J. P., Billerbeck, S.,
319 Dlugosch, L., Henkel, R., Kuerzel, B., Meyerjürgens, J., Milke, F., Voss, D., Wienhausen,
320 G., Wietz, M., Winkler, H., Wolterink, M., & Simon, M. (2021). Microbial growth and
321 organic matter cycling in the Pacific Ocean along a latitudinal transect between subarctic
322 and Subantarctic Waters. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 8.
323 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.764383>

324 Höfle, M. G., & Brettar, I. (1995). Taxonomic diversity and metabolic activity of microbial
325 communities in the water column of the Central Baltic Sea. *Limnology and Oceanography*,
326 40(5), 868–874. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.1995.40.5.0868>

327 Jiménez-Mercado, A., Cajal-Medrano, R., & Maske, H. (2007). Marine heterotrophic bacteria in
328 continuous culture, the bacterial carbon growth efficiency, and mineralization at excess
329 substrate and different temperatures. *Microbial Ecology*, 54(1), 56–64.
330 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-006-9171-4>

331 Jing, H., Xia, X., Suzuki, K., & Liu, H. (2013). Vertical profiles of bacteria in the tropical and
332 Subarctic Oceans revealed by pyrosequencing. PLOS ONE. Retrieved January 16, 2023,
333 from <https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0079423>

334 Kirchman, D. L. (1994). The uptake of inorganic nutrients by heterotrophic bacteria. *Microbial*
335 *Ecology*, 28(2), 255–271. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00166816>

336 Kirchman, D. L., & Rich, J. H. (1997). Regulation of bacterial growth rates by dissolved organic
337 carbon and temperature in the equatorial Pacific Ocean. *Microbial Ecology*, 33(1), 11–20.
338 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s002489900003>

339 Koskinen, K., Hultman, J., Paulin, L., Auvinen, P., & Kankaanpää, H. (2010). Spatially differing
340 bacterial communities in water columns of the northern Baltic Sea. *FEMS Microbiology*
341 *Ecology*, 75(1), 99–110. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6941.2010.00987.x>

342 Nguyen, T. T., Zakem, E. J., Ebrahimi, A., Schwartzman, J., Caglar, T., Amarnath, K.,
343 Alcolombri, U., Peaudecerf, F. J., Hwa, T., Stocker, R., Cordero, O. X., & Levine, N. M.
344 (2022). Microbes contribute to setting the ocean carbon flux by altering the fate of sinking
345 particulates. *Nature Communications*, 13(1). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-29297-2>

346 Tang, K., Jiao, N., Liu, K., Zhang, Y., & Li, S. (2012). Distribution and functions of tonb-
347 dependent transporters in marine bacteria and environments: Implications for dissolved
348 organic matter utilization. *PLoS ONE*, 7(7). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0041204>

349 Vecchi, G. A., & Harrison, D. E. (2000). Tropical Pacific sea surface temperature anomalies, El
350 Niño, and equatorial westerly wind events*. *Journal of Climate*, 13(11), 1814–1830.
351 [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(2000\)013<1814:tpssta>2.0.co;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2000)013<1814:tpssta>2.0.co;2)

352 Wangersky, P. J. (1977). The role of particulate matter in the productivity of surface waters.
353 *Helgolander wiss. Meeresunters.* 30: 546-564