Microbial loop of Proterozoic ocean analogue

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Abstract

Meromictic Lake Cadagno, an ancient ocean analogue is known for its permanent stratification

and persistent anoxygenic microbial bloom within the chemocline. Although the alpine lake has

been extensively studied for at least 25 years, a comprehensive picture of the microbial food web

relating phytoplankton, zooplankton, bacteria, and viruses is still missing. This study sought to

better understand the abundances and productivity of microbes in the context of nutrient

biogeochemical cycling across the stratified zones of Lake Cadagno. Photosynthetic pigments and

chloroplast 16S rRNA gene phylogenies suggested the presence of eukaryotic microbial guilds in

chemocline and oxic mixolimnion where oxygenic-primary production peaked. Anoxygenic

phototroph, *Chromatium okenii,* was the most abundant bacteria along with the high abundances

of *Lentimicrobium* whose members are known to perform fermentation. Secondary production

peaked in the chemocline suggesting that primary producers rely on heterotrophs for nutrients

remineralization. Virus-to-microbe ratios (VMR) peaked in the zone of phytoplankton and were

minimum at the peak *Chromatium okenii* hinting viruses modulating oxygenic and anoxygenic

photo-and-chemosynthesis.

Significance

This study provides a window to the past on how microbial guilds of the chemocline may have

functioned towards the production and recycling of organic matter in vertical water-columns of

sulfur- and ammonia-containing ancient oceans, which slowly evolved to modern oxygenated

systems. New observations of this work suggest that eukaryotic algae were persistent in the low

oxygen upper-chemocline where they were found to be associated with purple sulfur and green

sulfur bacteria in the lower half of the chemocline. This study provides the first insights into Lake

Cadagno viral ecology. High viral abundances suggest viruses were essential components of the

chemocline where they may cause the release and recycling of organic matter. The framework

developed in this study through the integration of a multitude of geochemical and biological data

lays the foundation for future studies to further resolve the microbial loop in this early anoxic

ocean analogue.

Introduction

Roughly 2.3 billion years ago the oceans were filled with sulfur [1]. Anoxygenic photosynthesis was a dominant mode of microbial primary production [2–4]. Following the great oxidation event (~2 Gyr), anoxygenic photosynthesis continued to sustain microbial life in euxinic environments below oxygenated surface waters [1,3,5]. Habitats in which anoxygenic photosynthesis significantly contributes to primary production continue to persist, such as in anoxic zones of permanently stratified sulfur-rich meromictic lakes like Lake Cadagno [6] where hydrogen sulfide is used as an electron donor [7]. These permanently stratified lakes are resistant to seasonal mixing events that would otherwise redistribute oxygen throughout the water column [8]. In these systems, biogeochemical processes provide a link between the contrasting dominant modes of primary production, thereby directly connecting the food webs of the oxygenated and anoxic habitats.

The microbial community composition of meromictic Lake Cadagno typifies the reconstructed signatures of life in the Proterozoic ocean [9,10]. Purple and green sulfur bacteria (PSB and GSB, respectively) are amongst the hallmark bloom-forming microbes that are frequently observed in the chemocline of Lake Cadagno [11,12]. Within the chemocline, carbon, nitrogen, sulfur, and iron cycling are integrated through metabolic activities of the anoxygenic photosynthetic purple sulfur and green sulfur bacteria [13–16]. Two purple sulfur bacteria, *Thiodictyon syntrophicum* and *Chromatium okenii*, have been identified as the greatest contributors to primary production in Lake Cadagno [12,14,17]. However, measurements of primary production to date have been limited to the chemocline [12,18] and measurements of secondary production do not exist. Phytoplankton (including modern eukaryotes and cyanobacteria) evolved in Proterozoic oceans [19,20], and their recurrence with anoxygenic phototrophic sulfur bacteria are known in the ancient aquatic systems [21]. Phytoplankton abundance and productivity were expected to be prevalent in the oxic zone because phytoplankton produces organic matter via oxygenic photosynthesis. In order to better understand microbial loop linkages across the stratified mixolimnion-chemocline transition in Lake Cadagno, paired measurements of productivity, microbial community composition and diversity are essential next steps.

Lake Cadagno studies to date have focused on the phytoplankton and prokaryotic members of the microbial community and have yet to include viruses. Viruses are known to impact both phytoplankton and heterotrophic microbial populations through lysis and lysogeny and may hold a central position in the marine food webs and biogeochemical cycling [22–25]. Through the lysis of

their microbial hosts, viruses play a role in the conversion of particulate organic carbon to

dissolved organic carbon, which is predicted to be capable of sustaining the microbial loop [26,27].

Viruses have been identified in meromictic lakes [28–30], but their abundances across the vertical

water column of Lake Cadagno are unknown.

To better understand the role the microbial loop plays in sustaining the food web across

the stratified layers of Lake Cadagno, microbial community members (phytoplankton,

prokaryotes, and viruses) were studied in the context of biogeochemical and production (primary

and secondary) measurements across the oxic-anoxic transitions of the meromictic Lake Cadagno

[9,13]. We hypothesized the mixolimnion to have low primary production as compared to the

chemocline because chemocline is inhabited by a persistent microbial bloom of primary producing

phototrophic sulfur bacteria [12]. We also expected high secondary production and viral abundance

to be an indicator of effective organic matter recycling within the Lake Cadagno water column

because photoautotrophs, both phototrophic sulfur bacteria and phytoplankton, rely on

heterotrophs and viruses for the remineralization of organic matter and nutrient cycling [31,32].

Through a combination of physical, chemical and biological analyses, this work provides new

evidence on how transitions between permanently stratified lake habitats and assemblages may

sustain microbial food webs and informs our understanding of the aquatic ecosystems of early

Earth.

Results

Position of Mixolimnion, Chemocline, and Monimolimnion

Transitions between the major stratified layers sampled from Lake Cadagno were visually apparent

by the colour of pigmented biomass captured on the 0.22 µm filters (Fig. 1A). From the surface to

12.5 m depth, the oxygen levels fell from a maximum of 9.24 mg/L to 2.79 mg/L (light green, day

2; Fig. 1B). As hypoxia is defined as 2 mg O_2/L [33], 12.5 m marks the boundary of the oxic

mixolimnion zone and the upper chemocline (top light purple; Fig. 1). The chemocline was 13.5-

15.5 m, as determined based on near-zero oxygen and light levels (day 2), peaked turbidity, a sharp

decrease in temperature, and a simultaneous rise in conductivity (dark purple; Fig. 1, B-D). At

14.5 m, oxygen levels were below detection and <1% of surface light penetrated (day 2; Fig. 1B,

D). Within the chemocline, the deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) and peak turbidity shifted

overnight between days 1 and 2, but in both cases, the peak turbidity was observed 0.5-1.5 m below

the DCM (day 2; Fig. 1B, D). Peak phycocyanin concentrations (26.53 µg/L) and basal

fluorescence (Fb= 66.0) were observed at the DCM (day 2, 13.5-14 m) and above a secondary

chlorophyll peak at 15 m (Fig. 1D, Fig. S1E). The monimolimnion was defined as the zone

between 15.5 m and the benthos. The peak in particulate sulfur (0.74 ppm), H_2S (2.84 mg/L) and

ammonia (262.4 µg/L) concentrations were observed in the monimolimnion, as well as a decline

in turbidity and photosynthetic pigments (Fig. 1B, E, H).

Microbial production at the oxic/anoxic interface

Between 7-11 m in the lower mixolimnion, there was a slight rise (up to 13.12 µg/l on day 1 and

11.80 µg/l on day 2) in Chl *a* (Fig. 1D). The Chl *a* peak in the mixolimnion at 9 m corresponded

with a peak in net primary production (NPP; 3210 ng C l^{-1} h^{-1}; Fig. 1D, F). The NPP peak declined

in the lower mixolimnion (11 m) and upper chemocline (13 m). Though NPP was not measured

below 13 m, basal and maximum fluorescence measured through the chemocline gave an

indication of photosynthetic activity and efficiency (Fig. S1E). In the oxic-anoxic boundary, a

maximum Fv/Fm (an indicator of photosynthetic efficiency) of 0.49 was observed between 13-

13.5 m and declined to 0.36 at 15 m (Fig. 1F). Overlapping with this oxygenic photosynthesis, the

highest rates of secondary productivity (SP) were observed through the chemocline (Fig.1F). SP

was significantly positively associated with some indicators of both photosynthetic microbes

(Pearson: Chl *a*: R=0.96, p-value=1.7e-5; phycocyanin: R=0.80, p-value=0.005) and total biomass

(Pearson: turbidity: R=0.78, p-value=0.007; total cell counts: R=0.65, p-value=0.04) (Fig. S2). In

the chemocline, SP and indicators of NPP (phycocyanin, Chl a) were significantly negatively

correlated with oxygen and light (Pearson: R=-0.7 to -0.9, p-values = 0.0002 to 0.01; Fig.S2). The

peak of DOC (14 m) were followed by peaks of POC, PON (15 m; Fig. 1G-H). In the

monimolimnion below the chemocline, some organic and inorganic compounds continued to rise

(POS, H_2S, NH_4^+), while PON and POC dropped (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. Depth profiles of biogeochemical parameters of Lake Cadagno. (A) Photographs of biomass collected on 0.22 μm (142 mm diameter) filters from Lake Cadagno mixolimnion, chemocline, and monimolimnion strata. The depth profiles of (B) oxygen and turbidity, (C) conductivity and temperature, (D) Chl *a*, phycocyanin, and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) (E) hydrogen sulfide and ammonium, (F) net primary production (NPP) and secondary production (SP), (G) particulate organic carbon (POC) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC), (F) particulate organic sulfur (POS) and particulate organic nitrogen (PON). In B-H, the mixolimnion, chemocline transition zone, chemocline, and monimolimnion layers are indicated by light green, lilac, purple and light brown backgrounds, respectively. Dashed and solid lines represent 28th and 29th August 2017, respectively.

Figure 2. The abundance of (A) prokaryote-like particles (PLP) and (B) virus-like particles (VLP) from flow cytometry analyses and (C) virus-to-microbe ratio, as VLP/PLP.

Prokaryote- and Virus-like-particle abundances and trends

The concentration of prokaryotic-like particles (PLPs; prokaryotic cell counts inferred from flow cytometry data) was highest in the chemocline (905,000 cells/ml ± 28,583 at peak, 496,000 ± 17,295 avg cells/ml), lower in the monimolimnion (435,833 ± 10,243 avg cells/ml), and was lowest in the mixolimnion (109,556 ± 3,496 avg cells/ml). In contrast, virus-like particles (VLPs; viral counts inferred from flow cytometry data) were highest at the bottom of the mixolimnion and were relatively invariable through the rest of the water column (Fig. 2B). As a result, the virus to microbe

ratio (VMR) peaked with viruses at the bottom of the mixolimnion but decreased drastically when prokaryotic-like particles rose in the chemocline (Fig. 2).

Significant positive correlations were observed between PLP concentrations and other indicators of biomass: turbidity (R=0.95; p-value=0.00003), Chl *a* (R=0.76; p-value=0.01), POC R=0.92; p-value=0.0001), PON (R=0.93; p-value=0.0001), and POS R=0.76; p-value=0.010) (Fig. S3). Of those, only the VLP concentrations were correlated with Chl *a* (R=0.77; p-value=0.02, (Fig. S4). Significant negative correlations were observed between VLPs and oxygen (R=-0.82, p-value=0.01) and light R=-0.90, 0.002). Significant positive correlations were observed between VLP and depth (R=0.78, p-value=0.02), conductivity (R=0.92, p-value=0.001), and SP (R=0.70; p-value=0.05) (Fig. S4).

Bacterial community composition through the mixolimnion, chemocline, and monimolimnion

Absolute abundances of Bacteria-classified cells (16S rRNA gene read abundances scaled by total FCM PLP counts at each depth) were at a minimum in the oxic mixolimnion (0-12.5 m; Fig. 3, SI Table 1). In this zone, the community primarily consisted of Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria, and Cyanobacteria phyla (Fig. 3A, Fig. S5). The relative abundance of Cyanobacteria peaked in the mixolimnion to chemocline transition zone at 13 m, where the phylum comprised 24.53% of the total community (23,387 cells/ml; Fig. S5).

In the chemocline, at 15 m (day 2) the absolute abundance of Bacteria-classified cells peaked (Fig. 3A), which corresponded with peak turbidity, POC and PON (Fig. 1). The major phyla represented at this depth were Proteobacteria (48.42% of total Bacteria, 438,272 cells/ml) and Bacteroidetes (25.35% of total Bacteria, 229,448 cells/ml). The genera that dominated these phyla at 15 m were purple sulfur bacteria *Chromatium* (35.18% of total Bacteria, 318,381 cells/ml; Proteobacteria). *Chromatium* was significantly positively correlated with turbidity (R=0.93; p-value=7.3e-5) and total cell counts (R=0.99; p-value=8.2e-09) (Fig.6 A-B). An unclassified *Lentimicrobiaceae* OTU, the second most abundant OTU, was significantly positively correlated with secondary production (*R*=0.8; p-value=0.005), turbidity (R=0.91, p-value=0.0002), PLPs (R=0.85, p-value=0.001), PON (R=0.71, p-value=0.02), POS (R=0.92; p-value=5e−04), yet, negatively correlated with light (*R*=-0.78, p-value=0.007, Fig.S6H) and oxygen concentration

(*R*=-0.87; p-value=0.001; Fig. S6C-I). Though Firmicutes was not a dominant phylum itself, an

unclassified genus of *Erysipelotrichaceae* (3.90%, 35,360 cells/ml; Firmicutes) was also among

the dominant genera at 15 m (SI Table 1). In addition to *Chromatium* (purple sulfur bacteria,

PSBs), other PSBs found to be involved in primary production in the Lake Cadagno chemocline

[12,15], *Thiodictyon* and *Lamprocystis* were observed at low abundances at 15 m (7.16e-04%, 649

cells/ml, and 4.09e-03%, 3,707 cells/ml, respectively; SI Table 1). Apart from PSBs, green sulfur

bacteria *Chlorobium* (2.29%, 20,808 cells/ml) was the fifth most abundant genera of chemocline.

Also in chemocline at 15 m, previously observed sulfur-reducing genera [34,35], *Desulfocapsa*,

Desulfobulbus, were also observed at low abundances (5,098 cells/ml, 0.005% and 1,854 cells/ml,

0.002%, respectively; SI Table 1).

In monimolimnion (17-19 m), the relative community composition reflected that of the

chemocline, while OTU absolute abundances decreased (Fig. 3A). The same genera reported

above to dominate the chemocline at 15 m were found to dominate the monimolimnion depths. In

addition to bacteria, this study also found archaeal OTUs (genus methanoregula, Woesearchaeia)

in monimolimnion but was not considered further because of a significantly low abundance

overall (<100 OTUs, SI Table 3).

Figure 3: At the sampled depths in Lake Cadagno, absolute abundances (cells/ml) of (A) bacteria phyla, (B) genera in the Proteobacteria phylum, (C) genera in the Bacteroidetes phylum. To the right of each panel, the mixolimnion, chemocline transition zone, chemocline, and monimolimnion layers are indicated by light green, lilac, purple and light brown backgrounds, respectively and correspond with the depths reported on the y-axis to the left.

Oxygenic phototrophs in the mixolimnion, chemocline, and monimolimnion

At the phylum level, Cyanobacteria was among the top phyla consistently observed at each depth in the water column, but at no depth did it dominate (Fig. 3A). At all depths, *Oxyphotobacteria* and chloroplast-classified OTUs dominated the Cyanobacteria phyla, representing 94-100% of the total Cyanobacteria-classified OTUs. Three other low abundance genera classified as belonging to the Cyanobacteria phylum included *Cyanobium* (throughout the water column), *Pseudanabaena* (predominantly 15 m and below, Fig. 4A-B), and *Gastranaerophilales* (predominantly 15 m and below, Fig. 4A-B). We sought to derive more information about the origin of these putative chloroplast OTUs. The phylogeny of all Cyanobacteria-classified OTUs and their two nearest neighbours in SILVA [36] indicated that the chloroplast and *Oxyphotobacteria* OTUs clustered in clades with chloroplast 16S rRNA genes of cultured eukaryotic algae (Fig.4B): Chlorophyta (Otu00008, Otu000342, Otu00006, Otu00323), Ochrophyta (Otu00033), Streptophyta (Otu00208), Haptophyta (Otu00143), and uncultured-chloroplasts (Otu00042, Otu00051, Otu00052, Otu00055).

In the lower mixolimnion between 7-11 m, where high oxygen, *chl a*, and NPP persisted and peak Fv/Fm was observed (Fig. 1D, F), Otu00008, which belonged to the same clade as the chloroplast genome of *Ankyra judayi*, a cultured Chlorophyta, dominated the subset of Cyanobacteria-classified OTUs and ranged in absolute abundance from 1810 to 17,340 cells/ml (Fig. 4B, D). At 11 m, the next most abundant OTUs were Otu00042 and Otu00055, which belonged to a clade of uncultured chloroplasts and were observed at 4316 and 6341cells/ml, respectively.

At the chemocline DCM between 13-14 m, flow cytometry-based counts phycobilin-containing cells (309,333 cells/ml; Fig.4C), phycocyanin pigments (26 µg/l day 2, Fig1D), and Chl *a* pigments (45 µg/l day 2) rose sharply (day 2; Fig. 1D). At this depth, Cyanobacteria-classified OTUs represented 24.53% of total reads and 23,387 cells/ml. At the secondary peak of chlorophyll (15 m), Cyanobacteria-classified OTUs represented 7.28% of total reads and 65,947 cells/ml (SI Table 2). The most abundant chloroplast OTU throughout the chemocline, Otu00006, belonged to a clade with the chloroplasts of cultured Chlorophyta species, *Parachlorella kessleri* and *Closteriopsis acicularis* (Fig. 4D). The next most dominant chloroplast-like OTUs, Otu00033 and Otu00052, clustered with cultured Ochrophyta chloroplasts and uncultured chloroplasts, respectively (Fig. 4D). In the monimolimnion, Otu00006 and Otu00033 dominated the

262 Cyanobacteria-classified OTUs (Fig. 4D), which belong to Chlorophyta and Ochrophyta

263 chloroplast clades, respectively.

A. Cyanobacteria−classified Genera

B. Putative Chloroplast and Non−Chloroplast OTUs

C. Phycobilisome Containing Cells

D. Phylogram with manual bootstrapping (Values <80)

Figure. 4: Abundance of phototrophs based on flow-cytometry counts and 16S rRNA sequencing. Mixolimnion samples (0-11 m) were collected on day 1, chemocline and monimolimnion (12-19 m) samples were collected on day 2. Abundances in panels B-C are acquired by scaling OTU read counts by FCM cell counts. (A) Concentrations (cells/ml) of OTUs classified as belonging to the Cyanobacteria phylum. (B) Concentrations (cells/ml) of OTUs are classified as putative chloroplasts and non-chloroplast at the genus level assigned within phylum cyanobacteria. (C) Depth profile of phycobilins-containing cell counts based on flow cytometry with a 640 nm laser. The mixolimnion, chemocline transition zone, chemocline, and monimolimnion layers are indicated by light green, lilac, purple and light brown backgrounds, respectively. (D) Phylogenetic tree of the representative 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequences of putative chloroplast and non-chloroplast OTUs in panel B along with their two nearest neighbour sequences from the SILVA database. Clades are colour-coded consistent with the colouring of bar plots in prior panels.

Prokaryotic genotypic and phenotypic diversity trends

Bacterial genotypic diversity and PLP phenotypic diversity (based on individual cell features distinguished by the cytometer; [37] both dropped at 7 m and rose in lower mixolimnion where oxygenic primary production peaked (Fig. 5A-B, Fig. 1F). Overall, genotypic alpha diversity (Shannon) trends were near-uniform, except at the peak of turbidity (15 m) where PLP phenotypic alpha diversity peaked and moderate genotypic alpha diversity was observed (Fig. 5A-B). Below chemocline, consistently high genotypic and phenotypic alpha diversity was observed in the anoxic monimolimnion. In the Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) ordinations of genotypic and phenotypic diversity, the first two PCs of bacterial community dissimilarity (Bray Curtis) accounted for 77% and 46.2% of all observed variation in genotypic and phenotypic beta diversity, respectively (Fig. 5 C-D). Oxic (mixolimnion, green) and anoxic (monimolimnion, light brown) samples separated along with the first principle component (PC1) (Fig. 5 C-D), which explained 66.6% and 29.8% and of the total variation in sample dissimilarity, for the genotypic and phenotypic beta diversity, respectively. In the phenotypic diversity ordination (Fig. 5), the mixolimnion samples separated along PC2 (alone explaining 16.4% total variation) by whether they originated from the high-oxygen (1-7 m, light green) or the mid-oxygen (8-11 m, dark green)

zones (Fig. 5 C-D). As with bacterial phenotypic alpha diversity, oxygen and light were negatively correlated with bacterial phenotypic and genotypic beta diversity (Fig. S7).

Figure. 5: Trends in microbial community genotypic (16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing) and phenotypic (flow-cytometry) diversity in Lake Cadagno. (A) Shannon diversity index depicting genotypic diversity of bacterial communities including chloroplasts OTUs (16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing). The mixolimnion, chemocline transition zone, chemocline, and monimolimnion layers are indicated by light green, lilac, purple and light brown backgrounds, respectively. (B) Phenotypic alpha-diversity (Shannon) of microbial communities with depth in Lake Cadagno. Mixolimnion samples (0-11 m) were collected on day 1, chemocline and monimolimnion (12-19 m) samples were collected on day 2. Data are represented colour-coded according to sampling depths. (C) PCoA of beta diversity of bacterial communities (16S rRNA gene sequencing including chloroplast-like OTUs) based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity metric. (D) PCoA ordination representing sample distances inferred from phenotypic beta diversity measures (Bray Curtis distance) of microbial communities based on PLP flow cytometry data.

Discussion

In this study, the investigation of microbial and biogeochemical dynamics through Lake Cadagno's water column improves our understanding of the connectivity of spatially segregated food webs in the Proterozoic ocean model [3].

Eukaryotic algae associated with oxygenic phototrophy in the mixolimnion

With the transition of OMZ chemistry at 800-700 Ma, the reduced levels of sulfur and ammonia likely facilitated the eukaryotic evolution as proposed in the Proterozoic ocean model [3]. The low sulfur and ammonia along with the relatively low number of small (<40 µm) prokaryotic-like particles, in combination with the high number of chloroplast 16S rRNA gene reads in the zone of oxygenic photosynthesis support the eukaryotic trend in mixolimnion of this study (Fig. 6A). The chloroplasts signals further suggest a high abundance of eukaryotic algae throughout the mixolimnion, specifically the freshwater chlorophyte, *Ankyra judayi* (Chlorophyta; OTU00008), which has not yet been described in Lake Cadagno (Fig. 6B). *Ankyra judayi* has been observed to outcompete other phytoplankton and grow to high densities in a high-alpine Andean lake, which was attributed to its ability to endure high UV radiation [38] and may explain its presence in the sun-lit mixolimnion of high-alpine Lake Cadagno. Our findings are consistent with prior microscopy-based studies that have reported that the majority of the algal biomass was attributed to eukaryotic

330 algae, such as *Echinocoleum* and *Cryptomonas* (Chlorophyta) and diatoms [18]. Overall, these
331 observations match the predictions about the evolution of eukaryotes in low sulfur and ammonia
332 and further suggests that the mixolimnion represents the conditions of modern aquatic systems.
333
Coexistence of oxygenic and anoxygenic primary producers in chemocline

The processes of the major microbial oxygenic and anoxygenic guilds have been reported
to contribute almost equally to organic matter production in the Lake Cadagno chemocline [18], as
they may have in ancient ocean chemoclines. Oxygenic (Chlorophytes, Diatoms, Cyanobacteria)
and anoxygenic phototrophs (PSB and GSB) coexisted in the chemocline of this study (Fig. 6 C-
E). Previous studies also reported cyanobacterial bloom (28 August, 12 September 2017) at the
oxic-anoxic transition directly above the phototrophic sulfur bacteria [39,40], however, cyanobacteria
(*Cyanobium*, *Gastranaerophilales, Pseudanabaena*) were rare in this report. Furthermore, the shift
of oxygenic to anoxygenic photosynthesis is coincident with a decreasing efficiency of oxygenic
photosynthetic microbes (F_v/F_m), increasing concentrations of hydrogen sulfide, and a shift in
bacterial abundance and beta-diversity (Fig. 6F). When considering oxygenic and anoxygenic
photosynthesis, nitrogen cycle was proposed to provide inorganic nitrogen essential for
photoautotrophs in ancient oceans [3]. The peak in PON, and the rise in biologically accessible N
(ammonia) at the peak turbidity supports the N-fixation trend in Lake Cadagno chemocline. The
N-fixation mechanism likely carried out by the major carbon assimilators; PSB (*Chromatium,*
Thiodictyon) and GSB (*Chlorobium*) of chemocline, which exhibited genes involved (*nif*) in
nitrogen fixation [10,13,41,42]. Their diazotrophic metabolism may have provided PSB and GSB an
ecological advantage for organic matter production (POC, PON, POS) in the chemocline of Lake
Cadagno (Fig. 6G), and that explains PSB and GSB persistence in the 1.6Gyr old ocean basin of
permanently stratified paleoproterozoic sea [43].

Apart from oxygenic and anoxygenic primary production, aerobic respiration also
proposed to be contributed to the organic matter production in ancient ocean chemocline [3].
However, information on microbes associated with such activity was missing from the model.
Chromatium, the most abundant microbe of chemocline in this study, was previously reported to
carry out aerobic sulfide oxidation which contributed to 40% of total dark carbon fixation [44] (Fig.
6L). This aerobic respiration by *Chromatium okenii* was coupled with *in-situ* production of oxygen
by photosynthetic algae [44]. Such *in situ* oxygenic production in Lake Cadagno was also associated

with methane oxidation by methanotrophs and iron oxidation likely by *Chlorobium* and *Rhodobacter*, where iron oxidation solely accounted for 10% of total primary production of chemocline [45,46] (Fig. 6H). The coexisting oxygenic phototrophs (Chlorophytes, Diatoms, Cyanobacteria) observed in this report might be contributing to the *in situ* oxygen production in the chemocline of Lake Cadagno. Therefore, future work is needed to understand the metabolisms of Chlorophytes, diatoms, cyanobacteria present in the oxic-anoxic interface of Lake Cadagno. Altogether, our observations fit the prediction of the Proterozoic ocean model which proposed a mixed community of oxygenic and anoxygenic primary producers typified by decreasing oxygen and increasing sulfide concentrations [3].

Figure. 6: Microbial loop of meromictic Lake Cadagno.

Nutrient remineralization through secondary production contributes to chemocline biomass

The purple sulfur bacteria (PSB), such as *Chromatium, Lamprocystis and Thiodictyon*, and green sulfur bacteria (GSB), such as *Chlorobium,* that dominated the Lake Cadagno chemocline, are known to be largely responsible for anoxygenic photo-chemosynthesis in this stratum (Fig. 6E) [12,47], In this first report of secondary production in Lake Cadagno, we found that rates were the highest in the chemocline, like primary production [12,14,17,18], exceeding rates in the mixolimnion and monimolimnion by 42.4- and 1.9-fold, respectively (Fig. 6I).

Lentimicrobium, the second most abundant genus in this report, has strongly implicated fermentation characteristics under limited light and oxygen in previous studies [48]. Heterotrophic sulfur-reducing bacteria (SRBs, Fig. 6J), such as the observed *Desulfocapsa* and *Desulfobulbus,* are known to associate with phototrophic PSB (e.g., *Chromatium okenii*, *Lamprocystis purpurea*) and were both also observed in the chemocline [34,35]. The presence of such heterotrophic microbes likely be decomposing particulate organic matter (POC, PON, POS), and supplying inorganic nutrients (iron, sulfate, and nitrogen) necessary to carry out primary production of chemocline (Fig. 6K). Thus contributing to maintaining the biomass of oxygenic and anoxygenic photoautotrophs observed in the chemocline. Lastly, these autotrophic and heterophic relations along with the secondary productivity rates provide the evidence on microbes involved in recycling of organic matter proposed in the Proterozoic ocean model [3].

Potential for viral modulation of phytoplankton and PSB activity

Viruses were proposed to have a substantial impact on ancient cyanobacterial mats by encoding the nblA gene responsible for degrading phycobilisomes, a pigment central to photosynthesis [49]. They can also act as top-down controls on host populations and reprogram host metabolism during infection [24,25,50]. VMR peaked in the lower mixolimnion and mixolimnion-chemocline transition where high VLP and chlorophyll concentrations and high photosynthetic activity were observed together with low bacterial abundances. Such coexistence between high viral loads and highly active phytoplankton populations could be explained by ongoing lytic viral infections of phytoplankton near the DCM (Fig. 6L). Such a scenario was observed in the phytoplankton *Ostreococcus* virus-host system, where host densities were maintained concurrently

with continual lysis due to phase switching between resistant and susceptible host, a strategy
supported by mathematical modeling [51]. If this scenario is occurring, the sustained lysis of
phytoplankton has the potential to release DOC in a viral shunt near the mixolimnion-chemocline
transition. Such a DOC peak was observed slightly below this depth in Lake Cadagno. However,
given that VMR is a feature that emerges from a number of underlying virus-microbe, viral life
history traits, and environmental co-factors [52], the prediction of sustained phytoplankton viral
predation at the mixolimnion-chemocline transition requires empirical genomic confirmation.

Previous studies have identified genomic evidence for viral infection of the presumed
major carbon assimilators in the chemocline, *Thiodictyon syntrophicum,* and *Chromatium okenii*
[12]. Genomes of these organisms sequenced from Lake Cadagno contain CRISPR elements [41,42],
which derive from a type of acquired immunity against invading viral and plasmid DNA. This
suggests viruses may play a role in the modulation of carbon, and sulfur cycles, as has been
proposed in the study of a hydrothermal vent [53] and wetland [54] microbial communities, where
viruses have been found to carry genes central to methanogenesis (*mcrA*) and sulfur reduction
(*dsrA*, *dsrD*). Active viral lysis also provides a new possible mechanism to explain the previously
observed low abundance of *Chromatium okenii*, which was attributed to microbial predation [17].
Despite genomic evidence suggesting infection of these populations, VLP counts did not rise with
PLP counts in the chemocline. Yet, our observation of minimum VMR (Fig. 6M) and peak
microbial abundances in the Lake Cadagno chemocline support an emerging trend in stratified
meromictic lakes, as the same observation was made in meromictic Ace Lake (Vestfold Hills of
East Antarctica; [28]. Such coincident low VMR and high microbial abundance has been recognized
as a hallmark of the power-law relationship proposed to describe the VMR dynamics in aquatic
systems [52]. At the end, we suggest viruses as important part of Proterozoic ocean microbial
community and to resolve the rates and roles of infection on the evolution and function of microbes
that underlie Lake Cadagno biogeochemistry, especially in the chemocline, population-specific
studies of viral infection are needed to explain their detailed role from ancient ocean perspectives.

In the end, the organic matter facilitated by eukaryotes, bacteria and viruses in the
chemocline will eventually sink to sediments contributing to the organic matter burial (Fig. 6N).
Our empirical observations support the proposal that the chemocline (oxic-anoxic boundary) in
the ancient ocean [3] played a crucial role in transitioning from anoxygenic to oxygenic microbial
life, which dominated nutrient biogeochemical cycling in modern oceans [55,56].

Conclusion

This work summarizes how biogeochemical exchange within microbial guilds may be driving biomass accumulation in the permanently stratified Lake Cadagno. The observed trends emphasized the ecological importance of microbial guilds in stratified ancient oceans. In recent years, the pangenomes of the dominant chemocline anoxygenic phototrophs (*Thiodictyon syntrophicum*, *Chromatium okenii*) have been explored [41,47]. However, the genomes and metabolic potential of heterotrophic bacteria (e.g., *Lentimicrobium*) that recycle chemocline biomass in the presence of sulfur and ammonia are yet to be explored. Furthermore, eukaryotic phytoplankton in the deep chlorophyll max have been associated with the chemocline for at least two decades [18] and have survived hypoxia. Yet, insights into their cellular machinery that allows them to photosynthesize efficiently under limited light and oxygen is still missing. While primary producers (phytoplankton, and phototrophic sulfur bacteria) and heterotrophic bacteria are central to the realized function of the lake biogeochemistry and ecology, viruses may shuffle the repertoire of genes controlling both microbial guilds, hence modulating biogeochemical (carbon, nitrogen and sulfur) cycles of the lake. Future work will build from these observations to confirm such hypotheses.

Methodology

Water-sample collection and Physicochemical profiling

This study was conducted in Lake Cadagno (21 m deep), a high alpine meromictic lake situated at 1921 m above sea level in the Southern Alps of Switzerland [57]. Water sampling and characterization of physical (turbidity, temperature, oxygen, conductivity), biological (Chl *a*, phycocyanin) and chemical (H_2S, NH_4^+) parameters of the water column were performed as previously described [16]. Water was sampled on the 28 (Day 1) and 29 (Day 2) August 2017 using a double diaphragm teflon pump (Almatech PSG Germany Gmbh) connected to acid-washed low-density polyethylene (LDPE) line deployed from a platform that was anchored above the deepest part of the Lake Cadagno (46.55087° N, 8.71152° E). The oxic stratum of the lake (0-10 m) was sampled on 28 August (Day 1) and the chemocline and anoxic part strata (11-19 m) were sampled on 29 August 2017 (Day 2).

Vertical lake profiles were determined using an autonomous conductivity temperature depth sensor (CTD; Ocean Seven 316 Plus CTD; IDRONAUT, S.R.L.). The CTD recorded pressure (dbar), temperature (°C), conductivity (mS/cm), and dissolved oxygen (mg/L) were measured with a pressure-compensated polarographic sensor. The error in oxygen profiles for day two was manually adjusted by referring to day 1 measurements which indicated approximately zero oxygen within and below chemocline. CTD profiles from the whole water column (0-20 m, Day 1 and 2) were used to identify the distribution of the mixolimnion, chemocline and monimolimnion and guided water sampling strategy. The CTD was equipped with an LI-192 Underwater Quantum Sensor (Li-Cor Biosciences; NE, USA) that continuously recorded photosynthetically active radiation (PAR-w/m^2;) and a TriLux multi-parameter algae sensor (Chelsea Technologies Ltd; Surrey, UK) that measured in-vivo Chl a (Chl a, µg/L), an indicator of phytoplankton (including eukaryotic autotrophs and cyanobacteria) biomass [58], and phycocyanin (µg/L), a pigment characteristic of cyanobacteria [59].

Chemical parameters

2.1 Dissolved compounds

Samples for the analysis of dissolved compounds (DOC) were filtered through an Acropack filter cartridge (PALL) with a 0.8 µm pre-filter and 0.2 µm final filter. Filters were collected in 30 mL acid-washed and pyrolyzed pyrex tubes filled to the top and supplemented with 100 µL HCl 2M. Tubes were stored in the dark at 4° C until processed (November 2017; University of the Geneva) using a Shimadzu TOC-LCPH analysis system. Blanks consisting of Milli-Q water were made and calibration was done using the standard from 0.2 to 5 ppm. Analyses of dissolved ammonium (MNH$_4^+$) and hydrogen sulfide (H$_2$S) were done on-site at the Alpine Biology Centre (CBA; Piora, Switzerland) with freshly collected water samples using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (DR 3800, HACH) [60].

2.2 Particulate compounds

Particulate organic carbon (POC), nitrogen (PON) and sulfur (POS) were collected by filtering 150 to 500 mL of lake water (volume necessary to begin to clog the filter) on pre-combusted 47 mm GF/F filters (5h at 550 °C, cat. #WH1825-047, Whatman, Wisconsin, USA), which were then

acidified (500 µL HCL 1 M, added twice at 1 h interval) and dried in an oven (65 °C) overnight in
acid-washed pyrex petri dishes. Samples were sealed using parafilm and aluminium foil until
analysis (November 2017, University of Geneva) using an Elemental Analyzer (2400 series II
CHNS/O Elemental Analysis, PerkinElmer). Procedural blanks using MilliQ water were
performed (24-25 November 2017) in duplicate to measure the background signal which was
subtracted to sample analysis. POC, PON, POS were expressed in mg/L (ppm).

Biological parameters

3.1 Primary production

501 Primary productivity was determined using incubation with $NaH_{14}CO_3$ (Perkin Elmer cat.
502 #NEC086H005MC; Waltham, MA, USA; 5 mCi, 1 mL in glass ampoule) that was freshly diluted
503 into 4 mL MilliQ water at pH 9.6 (adjusted using NaOH, Sigma) and added at a dose of 1 mCi/L
504 of lake water, as described [61]. Incubation experiment further explained in detail in supplementary
505 methodology.

3.2 Maximum quantum yield

The maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) informs the photosynthetic health and biological activity of
algae based on photo-physiological characteristics of the photosystem II variable Chl *a*
fluorescence. Maximum quantum yield was determined using a Fast Repetition Rate Fluorometer
(FRRF, FastOcean PTX coupled to a FastAct base unit; Chelsea Technologies). Water for
maximum quantum yield measurements was pre-concentrated 10-fold using a 47 mm filtration
unit (cat. #300-4000; Nalgene), a 0.2 µm 47 mm polycarbonate filter (cat. #GVWP04700,
Millipore; Darmstadt, Germany) and a 15 mL pipette to gently resuspend the cells as the sample
was passed through the filter using a hand pump (pressure below 15 mbar). This step was done to
ensure high enough method sensitivity and has been shown to alter neither Chl *a* nor cell integrity
of samples from Lake Geneva (Moisset et al., 2019). Please refer to supplementary methodology
for F_v/F_m calculations.

3.3 Flow-cytometry

A BD Accuri C6 cytometer (Becton Dickinson, San José CA, USA) was installed with two lasers

(blue: 488nm, red: 640 nm) and four fluorescence detectors (lasers 488 nm: FL1 = 533/30, FL2 =

585/40, FL3 = 670; laser 640 nm: FL4 = 675/25) was used to estimate total cell counts from fresh

unpreserved collected samples on-site in the Alpine Biology Centre. FL4 detectors were

specifically used to detect emission from phycobilin, a pigment proxy for cyanobacteria. Cells

were stained with SYBR green I (cat. #S7563, Molecular Probes; Eugene, OR) with a ratio of

1:10,000 (vol/vol), following incubation for 13 minutes at 37°C in the dark [11]. Histogram of event

counts versus green fluorescence (FL1 > 1,100) allowed quantification of total cells.

VLPs were counted using flow-cytometry after filtration of lake water through 55 µm mesh and

0.22 µm filters to remove large particles and cells. In triplicate, 1 ml sample from the filtrate was

fixed by adding 10 µL of glutaraldehyde (25% stock solution) in sample cryovials. The samples

were fixed for 15 minutes at room temperature and subsequently stored in liquid nitrogen for

shipping then stored at -80°C until processed in February 2018. Virus-like particle counts were

obtained using a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson Biosciences; Grenoble, France)

at Université Savoie Mont-Blanc. Samples were thawed at 37°C then diluted in a sterile buffer

solution of Tris-EDTA (0.1 mM Tris-HCL and 1 mM EDTA, pH 8) that had been autoclaved and

filtered through 0.02 µm. Samples were then stained for 10 minutes at 75°C using SYBR Green I

(Molecular Probes) at a 1:10,000 final concentration [62].

3.3.2 Phenotypic alpha diversity of PLP (Prokaryotic-like-particles)

Raw flow-cytometry files were used to estimate phenotypic traits (morphology and nucleic acid

content) using the Phenoflow package in R [37,63]. Briefly, this approach estimates kernel densities

on multiple bivariate single-cell parameter combinations (e.g., fluorescence and scatter intensity)

and concatenates these into a feature vector, which can be thought of as a phenotypic fingerprint

[37]. This fingerprint represents community structure in terms of the phenotypic attributes of the cells

that comprise the community—essentially, any feature that influences the way the laser interacts

with passing particles, such as morphology, size, and nucleic acid content, is captured in the

phenotypic fingerprint. Using this approach, bacterial phenotypic diversity metrics have been

shown to be highly correlated with community taxonomic diversity[37]. The phenotypic diversity

calculations are further explained in supplementary methodology.

3.4 Secondary production

Heterotrophic bacterial production also termed as secondary production was estimated by the
micro-centrifuge ^{3}H-Leucine bacterial production method [64], as described [65,66]. A working solution
of 5 µCi mL^{-1} leucine was made from a manufacturer stock solution of radioactive leucine, L-
[3,4,5-^{3}H(N)] (cat. #NET460A005MC, PerkinElmer, MA, USA). To reduce the potential for
autodegradation of the leucine radiolabel, this stock ^{3}H-Leucine material was stored in the dark at
2 to 4° C (never frozen) and used for the incorporation experiment within 5 days. Two replicates
and one trichloroacetic acid (TCA)-killed control (5% [vol/vol] final concentration; cat. 91228,
Sigma) were used for each depth. The details of secondary production are further described in
supplementary methodology .

3.5 Statistics

The magnitude and significance of linear relationships between physical and biological
parameters were determined with linear regression scatter plots in R-Studio (1.4.1106) using
ggplot2 (3.3.3)[67] and ggpubr (0.4.0) [68] packages which included correlation coefficients (R) with
p-values to the scatter plots [69]. R>0.70 was considered a strong correlation, and a p-value <0.05
was considered statistically significant.

Illumina MiSeq 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequence analyses

4.1 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing

The samples were collected from 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 15.5, 17 and 19 m to capture Lake Cadagno's
mixolimnion (surface to 10 m), chemocline (11-14 m), and monimolimnion (below 16 m).
Collected water samples (20 L/depth) were 55 µm pre-filtered to remove large particles and
aggregates and then 0.22 µm filtered (cat. #GPWP14250 142 mm Express Plus Filter, Millipore;
Darmstadt, Germany) using a peristaltic pump. Filters were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and
stored at (-80°C) until extraction of DNA using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (cat. #69504
QIAGEN, Germantown, MD, USA) combined with QIAshredder (cat. #79654, QIAGEN, CA,
USA), as described [70]. The first and second elutions of DNA (50 µl each) were stored (4° C) until
sequencing. Dual indexed primers were used and the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene amplicon
was targeted and amplified, as described [71]. Sequencing libraries were prepared using the Illumina

Nextera Flex kit (Illumina; CA, USA) and sequenced using the MiSeq platform (500 cycles,

Illumina) at the University of Michigan Microbiome Sequencing Core.

The 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequence reads were quality controlled and the contigs were

assembled, trimmed, aligned, and clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 97%

identity threshold using mothur (Schloss et al., 2009). The OTUs were taxonomically classified

using SILVA (Quast et al. 2013) and TaxAss freshwater (Newton et al. 2011) 16S rRNA gene

databases. The code used for running the mothur analysis is available at the project GitHub

repository ([72]/). Raw sequences are available under project accession ID PRJNA717659 at NCBI.

4.2 Genotypic alpha and beta diversity and Phylogenetic Tree

Downstream analysis was carried out by the Phyloseq package in R-studio (v1.3.1093) to analyze

the alpha and beta genotypic diversity of bacterial communities. Taxa not observed in 20% of

samples at least 3 times were removed. The Alignment, Classification, and Tree (ACT) function

of SILVA was used to generate the phylogenetic tree [73]. Further steps of genotypic and phenotypic

diversity analysis are mentioned in supplementary methodology.

4.3 Absolute Abundances (cells/ml)

Absolute quantifications of taxa were determined as described [74]. The relative abundance of 16S

rRNA gene amplicons including bacteria and archaea of a given taxon (taxon read count/total read

count in sample) was multiplied by the PLP concentrations (cells/ml) for that sample, as

determined by flow cytometry. Thereon, archaeal abundance was deducted from the total

prokaryotic population to get an absolute abundance of the only bacterial population.

Supplementary table

SI Table

Data and Code availability

Data and code availability

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Supplementary figures

Fig. S1: Raw flow-cytometry files visualized with; BD6 flow-cytometer interface (A-B) and R-
studio Phenoflow package (A-D). Red outline represents the gating strategy for cell counting and
phenotypic diversity analysis. FCM events representing prokaryotic-like particles in a Lake
Cadagno (1 m depth) targeted using (A) Four-area layout vs (B,C) Manual coordinated based
gating. (D) FCM events represent prokaryotic-like particles in a 0.2 μm filtered, cell-free MilliQ
water (control). (E) Experiment to monitor the health of photosynthetic cells. Basal fluorescence
(F_b) and maximum fluorescence (F_m) were obtained to calculate Fv/Fm values.

Fig. S2 R-coefficient and p-values were obtained using linear regression performed between
secondary production, photosynthetic pigments, Prokaryotic-like-particles (PLPs), and
physicochemical parameters including turbidity, oxygen and light. Lake depth in meters (m) is
indicated by colors. (A) Secondary production vs Chl a (B) Secondary production vs Phycocyanin
(C) Secondary production vs Turbidity (D) Secondary production vs Oxygen (E) Secondary
production vs light (F) Secondary production vs PLPs (G-J) Chl a and Phycocyanin vs oxygen and
light.

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806　Fig. S3 R-coefficient and p-values were obtained using linear regression performed between
807　Prokaryotic-like-particles (PLPs) and biomass indicating factors. Lake depth in meters (m) is
808　indicated by colors. (A) PLPs vs Turbidity (B) PLPs vs Chl a (C) PLPs vs particulate organic
809　carbon (POC). (D) PLPs vs particulate organic sulfur (POS). (E) PLPs vs particulate organic
810　nitrogen (PON).

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817 Fig. S4 R-coefficient and p-values were obtained using linear regression performed between Virus-

818 like-particles (PLPs) and physicochemical parameters. Lake depth in meters (m) is indicated by

819 colors. (A) VLPs vs Oxygen (B) VLPs vs Light (C) VLPs vs depth. (D) VLPs vs conductivity. (E)

820 VLPs vs secondary production.

834 Fig. S5 Relative and absolute abundance of microbial cells based on 16S reads and flow-cytometry

835 cells counts within the vertical water column of Lake Cadagno. (A) 16S relative abundance of

836 bacterial communities at phylum.(B) Absolute abundance of bacterial communities based on 16S

837 and flow-cytometry cell counts at genus level.

841 Fig. S6 R-coefficient and p-values were obtained using linear regression performed between

842 microbial abundance and physicochemical parameters. Lake depth in meters (m) is indicated by

843 colors. (A-B) Chromatium vs PLPs and turbidity. (C-I) Lentimicrobium vs secondary productivity,

844 turbidity, PLPs, PON, POS, light and oxygen.

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Fig. S7 R-coefficient and p-values were obtained using linear regression performed between microbial alpha and beta diversity and physicochemical parameters. Lake depth in meters (m) is indicated by colors. (A-B) PLPs Shannon alpha diversity vs oxygen and light. (C-D) 16S beta diversity vs oxygen and light. (E,F) PLP phenotypic beta diversity vs oxygen and light. (G-H) Phenotypic vs genotypic prokaryotic alpha and beta diversity.

Supplementary methodology

3.1 Primary productivity

Incubation was carried out along an incubation chain deployed at 6 depths for 23 h on 28-29 August 2017. Each depth consisted of a metallic ring fixed to a rope at the desired depth (3, 5, 7, 9, 11 and 13 m). The ring was surrounded by 6 arms on a horizontal plane, each of which ended with a bottle holder. 75 mL acid-washed glass bottles were filled to the top with lake water (ca. 100 mL) at the corresponding depth and spiked with ^{14}C prior to being deployed on each level of the incubation chain. At each depth, three transparent bottles were incubated for activity measurements at *in situ* natural light intensities and three amber bottles were incubated for dark community respiration measurements. At the end of the incubation, each bottle was filtered onto 47 mm GF/F filters (cat. #WH1825-047, Whatman, Wisconsin, USA) that were then each stored in a plastic petri dish. Petri dishes were placed in a sealed box containing calcium hydroxide (slaked lime) powder. After adding HCL (1M, 500 µL) onto filters, inorganic carbon was allowed to degas overnight in a sealed box. Filters were then collected into 20 ml scintillation vials, supplemented with 10 mL of Ultima Gold AB cocktail, and shaken manually. Slaked lime, Decon solution and pipet tips were collected as radioactive waste for appropriate disposal at the University of Geneva, while all other labware was decontaminated by using warm (40 to 50° C) 5% solution of Decon 90 (cat no. #10335650, East Sussex, England). Primary productivity was expressed in µmol of carbon net fixation per h either per L of lake water or per Chl *a,* considering a dissolved inorganic carbon concentration of 1.8 mM C [20].

3.2 Maximum quantum yield

The FRRF was used in single turnover mode to record, in a 45 min dark-adapted natural sample, the basal (F_b) and the maximal (F_m) fluorescence following exposure to intense light. The sample

was then gently filtered on a 0.2 µm 47 mm syringe filter (cat. #GVWP04700, Millipore;

Darmstadt, Germany) to record the residual fluorescence (F_r). For each sample, the F_b-F_r

represented the initial dark-adapted fluorescence F_0 associated with intact cells. The F_v/F_m was

then calculated using the ratio: (F_m- F_0)/F_m .

3.3.2 Phenotypic alpha diversity of PLP (Prokaryotic-like-particles)

To calculate phenotypic alpha diversity, phenoflow calculates Hill number diversity indices (D_q)

from order 0-2, where 0 represents the richness and q>1 represents richness and evenness also

referred to as D0 (richness), D1 (Shannon), and D2 (inverse Simpson) [46]. Phenotypic beta diversity

was estimated using PCoA of phenotypic fingerprints.

Fluorescence detectors (lasers 488 nm: FL1-H = 533/30, FL3-H = 670) were used to target PLP

diversity. Polygon gating was applied to filter out the noise observed in control samples (Fig. S1).

Clockwise, the polygon gate coordinates (x,y) were: (7, 6), (15, 6), (15, 17), and (7,10). Kernel

density estimates were calculated by applying binning grid (128 x 128) to FSC-H (Forward scatter

height), SSC-H (Side scatter height), FL1-H and FL3-H. The obtained kernel densities values were

assigned into one-dimensional vectors, termed *phenotypic fingerprints*.

3.4 Secondary production

Briefly, 1.5-mL of lake water samples were incubated with a mixture of radioactive and

nonradioactive leucine at final concentrations of 20 nM. Using the [^{3}H]-Leucine working solution,

enough "hot" leucine was added to each tube to create a sufficient signal (50% or 85% of hot

leucine were used in the mixture for samples collected above and below 13m depths, respectively).

Incubations were conducted in a dark incubator at the respective *in situ* temperatures

(corresponding to the depths) for 2 h. Saturation of leucine incorporation over this period was

tested with 20, 30 and 40 nM of total leucine. At the end of the incubation, 200 µL of 50% TCA

is added to all but the control tubes to terminate leucine incorporation. To facilitate the

precipitation of proteins, bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma, 100 mgL^{-1} final concentration) was

added, then samples were centrifuged at 16,000 g for 10 min [50]. The supernatant was discarded

and the resultant precipitated proteins were washed with 1.5 mL of 5% TCA by vigorous vortexing

and again centrifuged (16,000 g for 10 min). The supernatant was discarded. Subsequently, 1.5

mL of UltimaGoldTM uLLt (Part number: 6013681, PerkinElmer, MA, USA) was added to each

vial, mixed, and allowed to sit for >24 h before the radioactivity was determined by liquid

scintillation using a Beckman LS6500 liquid scintillation counter. To calculate biomass

production, the following conversion factors were applied: molecular weight of leucine of 131.2

g/mol, a fraction of leucine per protein of 0.073), the ratio of cellular carbon to the protein of 0.86,

and 2.22×10^6 DPM/μCi to convert disintegrations per minute (DPMs; the measure of radioactivity)

to μCi. A factor of 1.55 kg C mol leucine^{-1} was used to convert the incorporation of leucine to

carbon equivalents, assuming no isotope dilution [51].

4.2 Genotypic alpha and beta diversity and Phylogenetic Tree

Representative sequences of chloroplast OTUs were aligned to SILVA sequences (SINA 1.2.11)

Two neighbours per query sequence (95% minimum sequence identity) were added to the tree with

the chloroplast OTU sequences. Advance variability profile was selected as 'auto' and sequences

below 90% identity were rejected. The phylogenetic tree of the OTUs was bootstrapped with

RAxML [59] with 20 maximum likelihood (ML) and 100 bootstrapped searches. Annotation was

performed in R-studio (1.4.1106) with package ggtree (2.2.4) and Adobe Illustrator (25.2.1).