Diversity and biogeography of SAR11 bacteria from the Arctic Ocean

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Abstract

The Arctic Ocean is relatively isolated from other oceans and consists of strongly stratified water masses with distinct histories, nutrient, temperature and salinity characteristics, therefore providing an optimal environment to investigate local adaptation. The globally distributed SAR11 bacterial group consists of multiple ecotypes that are associated with particular marine environments, yet relatively little is known about Arctic SAR11 diversity. Here, we examined SAR11 diversity using ITS analysis and metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs). Arctic SAR11 assemblages were comprised of the S1a, S1b, S2, and S3 clades, and structured by water mass and depth. The fresher surface layer was dominated by an ecotype (S3-derived P3.2) previously associated with Arctic and brackish water. In contrast, deeper waters of Pacific origin were dominated by the P2.3 ecotype of the S2 clade, within which we identified a novel subdivision (P2.3s1) that was rare outside the Arctic Ocean. Arctic S2-derived SAR11 MAGs were restricted to high latitudes and included MAGs related to the recently defined S2b subclade, a finding consistent with bi-polar ecotypes and showing the potential for Arctic endemism. These results place the stratified Arctic Ocean into the SAR11 global biogeography and have identified SAR11 lineages for future investigation of adaptive evolution in the Arctic Ocean.

Introduction

The SAR11 (Pelagibacterales) group accounts for roughly 30% of bacteria in the ocean surface and 25% of mesopelagic bacteria [1–3]. High phylogenetic diversity and divergence into ecological lineages (i.e. ecotypes) of SAR11 tends to mirror distinct conditions in the oceanic environment [2, 4–6]. SAR11 are classified into clades and subclades based on 16S rRNA genes and further classified into phylotypes based on rRNA internal transcribed spacers (ITS) (Table 1). Three major SAR11 clades (S1, S2 and S3) are currently recognized, with several subclades defined within S1 (S1a, S1b, S1c). Within this diversity approximately 12 phylotypes have been described [2, 5]. To date, many of the phylotypes are thought to have restricted distributions. For example, there are three phylotypes in subclade S1a: P1a.1 is associated with cold environments [2], while P1a.2 and P1a.3 are associated with temperate and tropical environments, respectively [2, 5]. Subclade S1b is generally associated with tropical environments [2, 5, 7], while subclade S1c is associated with deep marine samples [5]. Recently, the clade S2 was divided into subclades S2a and S2b. The S2a subclade is further divided into an oxygen minimum zone subclade (S2a.a) and a tropical subclade (S2a.b) [7]. The S2 subclade phylotypes have been further divided by environment. P2.1, is associated with tropical environments [2], P2.2 is reported from cold, especially Antarctic, waters [2, 8], and the P2.3 phylotype is more ambiguous; associated with both cold waters and tropical deep-sea environments [2, 5]. To date, three phylotypes have been distinguished for clade S3; P3.1 is associated with coastal, mesohaline surface [9] and tropical samples [2], P3.2 is found in brackish [9], temperate [2], as well as Arctic samples [10] and the third S3 phylotype, LD12, is found in freshwater [11] (Table 1).

The Arctic Ocean is small, geographically isolated, and more influenced by freshwater and ice compared to other oceans [12–14]. These distinct characteristics would favour the evolution of locally adapted microbial assemblages, however evidence for this is difficult to document. Biogeographic patterns of taxa reported from the Arctic vary, with reports of

cosmopolitan, bi-polar and endemic species, suggesting a potential for different levels of

specialization to local conditions [6, 15–17]. Although SAR11 are reported widely and account

for 25 to 30% of Arctic Ocean bacterial assemblages [18, 19], comparatively little information

exists on Arctic SAR11 diversity [2]. The extensive knowledge of SAR11 diversity and ecology

in other oceans makes it an attractive clade to investigate the potential for ecotypes adapted to

Arctic Ocean conditions. The objective of this study was to place SAR11 from the Arctic Ocean

within a global context using ITS phylogenetic analysis and comparative genomics using

metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs). We then examined the distribution of SAR11 along

a latitudinal transect of the stratified waters of the Canada Basin in the western Arctic Ocean.

We targeted three water masses in the upper 200 m, the surface layer, the deep chlorophyll

maximum (DCM), which corresponds to a halocline formed by Pacific Summer Water, and the

Pacific Winter Water (PWW) layer [20]. These three water masses were previously found to

have distinct microbial communities [21] and we hypothesised that different SAR11 ecotypes

would be favored within them.

Methods

Sampling and metagenomic data generation

Samples were collected aboard the Canadian Coast Guard Icebreaker CCGS Louis S.

St-Laurent from the Western Arctic Ocean from latitudes 73° to 79° N in October 2015, during

the Joint Ocean Ice Study cruise in the Canada Basin (Table 2). Sample collection and

preservation, DNA extraction, and metagenomic data generation were as described previously

[22], and further details given in the Supplementary Information. The metagenomic data is

deposited in the Integrated Microbial Genomes database at the Joint Genome Institute at

https://img.jgi.doe.gov, GOLD project ID Ga0133547.

ITS phylogenetic analysis

SAR11 ITS sequences were retrieved from twelve assembled metagenomes, clustered

and filtered (Supplementary information). We combined the Arctic ITS sequences with reference

sequences from SAR11 genomes and ITS sequences from two previous biogeographic studies

[2, 5] and assigned Arctic ITS sequences to phylotypes. We determined phylotype distribution

across the samples with PCoA ordination of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity as described in the

Supplementary Information.

Metagenome-assembled genomes

We conducted metagenomic binning using the Metabat2 pipeline [23] on a 12 sample

coassembly [22, 24]. Further SAR11 bin filtering and cleaning was conducted as described in

the Supplementary Information. Seven SAR11 MAGs with low contamination values (<4%) and

relatively high completeness values estimated using CheckM [25] (36 % to 47%) were selected

for further analysis (Table 3) (Genbank accession numbers XXX). The distribution of orthologs

across SAR11 MAGs and reference genomes was analyzed with ProteinOrtho [26]. A set of 39

single copy ortholog genes were concatenated and used for phylogenetic analysis using MEGA-

cc with a JTT substitution model [27], as further described in the Supplementary Information.

Comparative genome content, average nucleotide identity and signatures of selection of

Arctic MAGs

To identify Arctic-specific SAR11 genes, we compared all genes within the Arctic MAGs

to those found within 41 SAR11 reference genomes using ProteinOrtho [26]. The protein

functions of genes only found in Arctic MAGs were retrieved following the IMG annotation [28]

or the SwissProt database [29]. We calculated average nucleotide identity (ANI) between Arctic

MAGs and reference genomes representing the different subgroups following the method

implemented within IMG [28].

Fragment recruitment and SAR11 biogeography.

To determine the prevalence of Arctic MAGs across global marine biomes, we

performed reciprocal best hit analysis [22, 30] for 168 metagenomic samples from a range of

marine biomes. Metagenomic datasets included 134 TARA ocean datasets [31] which were

randomly sub-sampled to a size of approximately 1 GB of reads each to facilitate analysis.

These were added to the Arctic metagenomes and 22 Antarctic datasets that included 20

marine and 2 ACE lake samples [2]. We examined the distribution of the seven Arctic MAGs, 48

representative SAR11 reference genomes, and 38 TARA ocean MAGs previously described as

SAR11 [32] as described in the Supplemental Information. Best hits from the reciprocal blast

were filtered to a minimum length of 100 bp and a minimum identity of 98% and the number of

recorded hits per reference genome and metagenomic sample were used to calculate the

number of reads recruited per megabase genome per gigabase metagenome (RPMG). See

Supplemental Table 1 for all metagenomic datasets and reference genomes.

We utilized the RPMG matrix for PCoA ordination of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of the

RPMG matrix. The envdist function as implemented in vegan with 999 permutations was used

for *Post-Hoc* tests of environmental variables. [33].

Results

Environmental setting

The stratified upper waters of the Canada Basin in the Western Arctic Ocean sampled

during the late summer–autumn of 2015 were typical for the region, with warmer and fresher

summer waters above colder slightly saltier winter Pacific-origin water (Table 2). Salinity at the

surface ranged from 25.6-27.3 and nitrate concentrations were below the detection limit (0.5

μM). Below the surface water, relative chlorophyll *a* fluorescence at the DCM was calculated to

range from 0.23 to 0.33 mg m^{-3}. The DCM depth varied from 25-79 m, with the shallowest value

at CB11, the most northerly station along the western edge of the Canada Basin (Figure 1A-B).

Nitrate concentrations increased with depth to up to 16 mg m^{-3} in the PWW, where chlorophyll *a*

was low (0.05 μmol m^{-3}).

SAR11 ITS sequence diversity

No SAR11 16S rRNA sequences were present in the metagenomes. Within the

metagenomic assemblies, we identified 140 high quality SAR11 ITS sequences which were

clustered into 111 unique ITS sequence variants (SVs) and combined these SVs with previously

published sequences for phylogenetic analysis. Sixty Arctic ITS SVs did not cover the full ITS

region and were assigned to phylotypes using their best BLAST hit against full-length SAR11

ITS SVs. In total, 6 distinct phylotypes were evident from ITS SVs (Figure 1C), from all major

clades S1, S2, and S3 (Figure 1C, Supplemental Figure 1A-D).

Clade S1. Within S1, we identified the S1a and S1b subclades. The Arctic ITS S1a SVs

mostly clustered apart from previously published P1a SVs (Supplemental Figure 1A). These

P1a-related SVs were common in samples from the PWW and DCM layer, but nearly absent

from the surface layer (Supplemental Figure 1A, Figure 2A). Within subclade S1b

(Supplemental Figure 1B), Arctic Ocean ITS SVs were found in two clusters. One cluster

corresponded to a previously described P1b.a group [2], while the other grouped within a

previously designated non-monophyletic tropical P1b cluster [2], hereafter termed P1b.b

(Supplemental Figure 1B), but we were unable to connect these groupings to the three

previously described P1b.1-3 phylotypes [5]. P1b.a contained three full-length Arctic SVs and

was found nearly exclusively in the PWW (Supplemental Figure 1B, Figure 2A).

Clade S2. The majority of ITS SVs were assigned to phylotypes within subclade S2

(Supplemental Figure 1C). In our phylogenetic analysis, we recovered a monophyletic group

within the P2.3 phylotype, with Arctic SVs clustering with two deep water Red Sea SVs, forming

a novel cluster P2.3s1 (Figure 1C, Supplemental Figure 1C). Apart from a single DCM sample,

which contained a high number of P1a sequences (coverage of ~670, compared to an average

coverage of ~40, Fig. 2A), SVs within the P2.3s1 phylotype were the most frequently detected in

Arctic waters, specifically in DCM and PWW samples (Supplemental Figure 1C, Figure 2A). The

published ITS SVs previously assigned to P2.1 and P2.2 were interspersed with one another,

and we therefore refer to this subgroup as P2.1–2.2. P2.1–2.2 was distributed relatively evenly

across sampling depths and locations (Supplemental Figure 1C, Figure 2A).

Clade S3. We recovered two ITS SVs belonging to the brackish Arctic phylotype P3.2

(Supplemental Figure 1D). P3.2 was common in the less saline surface water samples and

absent below the DCM (Supplemental Figure 1D**,** Figure 2A).

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Phylotype abundance and biogeography

PCoA ordination of samples based on the relative abundance of phylotypes showed that

SAR11 assemblages were structured along the first axis in relation to the water layer sampled

(Figure 2B). The second axis had less explanatory power and assemblage structuring was

mostly driven by the highly abundant P1a SV in the DCM sample of station CB8. PWW samples

contained a high contribution of diverse phylotypes including P1a, P1b.a, P1b, P2.1–P2.2 and

P2.3 and P2.3s1, while P3.2 was most frequent in surface layer samples. P2.1–P2.2, was not

associated with contributions to a specific depth class of samples likely because multiple poorly

resolved ecotypes are contained within this group (Figure 2A, B). Secondary fitting of

environmental variables onto the ordination did not yield significant results.

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Characteristics of Arctic Ocean SAR11 MAGs

We binned SAR11 scaffolds from the Arctic Ocean metagenome co-assembly based on

tetranucleotide frequency and coverage across samples. After automated binning and manual

curation, we selected seven high quality SAR11 MAGs for further analysis (Table 3). Quality

was based on high N50 values (19-100Kb), a low number of scaffolds (5-26), relatively high

completeness (35-47%), and low contamination (0-4%) values (except for 'completeness'

following [34]).

While SAR11 ITS sequences were abundant in the metagenomic dataset, none were

present in the SAR11 MAGs. Moreover, SAR11 MAGs did not contain rRNA genes and thus

their placement into 16S rRNA or ITS-based phylogenies was not possible. Instead we

investigated their phylogeny using a concatenated gene tree of Arctic MAGs, reference

genomes, and SAGs from the Red Sea and the Eastern Tropical North Pacific oxygen minimum

zone (ETNP OMZ) [7] (Figure 3A). The Arctic MAG SAR11–312 belonged to subclade S1a and

was prevalent at and below the DCM layer, but not at the surface (Figure 3B). This MAG was

more closely related to phylotype P1a.1 than to P1a.3; a placement supported by its maximum

ANI value in comparison to a P1a.1 reference genome (80%). Its phylotype could not be

determined, as no closely related reference genome contained ITS sequences.

The remaining six MAGs were members of the S2 clade of SAR11. Four of the MAGs

(SAR11–112, SAR11–272, SAR11–410, and SAR11-484) were members of the S2a subclade,

while two (SAR11–144 and SAR11–196) were most closely related to two SAGs from the S2b

subclade that originated from the ETNP OMZ (Figure 3A). The S2a MAGs exhibited differential

distributions in the stratified waters of the Arctic Ocean. Three closely related MAGs (SAR11–

112, SAR11–272, SAR11–410) were detected at all depths, while a more distantly related S2a

MAG (SAR11–484) was only detected in the surface and DCM samples (Figure 3B). The

phylogenetic placement of these MAGs was supported by their maximum ANI values in

comparison to the S2a reference genome HIMB058 (>75%). In contrast, MAGs SAR11–144

and SAR11–196 were detected in DCM and PWW samples (Figure 3B), and are the most likely

MAGs to represent the novel P2.3s1 phylotype defined in this study. However, as S2b reference

genomes lack ITS sequences, we were unable to directly confirm that subclade S2b MAGs

belong to the P2.3 phylotype. Due to the absence of any S2b reference genomes with high

completeness, we were unable to calculate ANI of SAR11−144 and SAR11−196 with S2b.

Comparison of gene content

To investigate the potential of local adaptation through variation in gene content we

identified SAR11 genes specific to the Arctic Ocean by comparing the distribution of orthologs

between Arctic MAGs and 60 reference genomes representing the known phylogenetic diversity

of SAR11. Of the 2 648 orthologs we identified across SAR11 genomes, 233 were only found in

Arctic MAGs and four of these were present in more than one MAG. The majority of these

orthologs were poorly characterized proteins (58%, 136 orthologs: COG categories S and R). A

further 24% (55 orthologs) were involved in metabolism, 3% (7 orthologs) in cellular processes

and signaling and 7% (16 orthologs) in information storage and processing (Supp. Table 3).

Global biogeography of SAR11 genomes

We investigated the biogeographic distribution of Arctic SAR11 populations using Arctic

MAGs and available SAR11 genomes. In addition to being present in Arctic DCM and PWW

samples, MAG SAR11−312, belonging to subclade S1a, was also detected in the mesopelagic

zone of colder oceans (Figure 4A). Arctic S2a MAGs were present in metagenomic datasets

that were mostly from polar regions, with the exception of SAR11−112 and SAR11−272, which

were present in Mediterranean samples. The Arctic MAGs most closely related to the S2b

subclade were even more narrowly distributed. Outside of Arctic samples, SAR11−144 was only

detected in South Atlantic DCM layer and North Atlantic mesopelagic samples. In contrast, MAG

SAR11−196 was only found in Arctic DCM and PWW samples (Figure 4A).

Other than the Arctic MAGs, most SAR11 genomes recruited poorly across both Arctic

and Antarctic metagenomic samples, suggesting they are not significant members of Arctic

SAR11 assemblages. However, there were some exceptions: S1a genome HTCC1062, which

was the most widely distributed genome, was prevalent in the Antarctic and to a lesser degree

the Arctic. The generalist S2a genome HIMB058, which is prevalent in most marine biomes,

was present in Arctic and Antarctic samples (Figure 4A). Lastly, S3 genome IMCC9063,

characterized as a fresher, arctic phylotype [9], was found across surface samples of several

marine biomes, but was most prevalent in Arctic surface waters, followed by Antarctic samples.

To further explore SAR11 biogeography in relation to environmental conditions of ocean

biomes, we performed PCoA ordination of the Bray-Curtis distance matrix of the RPMG-values

(Figure 4B). Overall, metagenomic samples clustered according to their biome and sampling

depth. Along the first axis, samples separated according to a temperature and salinity gradient,

with colder, fresher samples such as the Arctic and Antarctic environments investigated here

distinguished from warmer, saltier environments. Along the second axis, metagenomic samples

were separated according to their depth. Deep samples were characterized by high nitrate

concentrations while more shallow samples had higher oxygen and Chl *a* concentrations.

Notably, Arctic and Antarctic surface and Arctic PWW samples clustered together (Figure 4B, as

polar biome samples in lower left quadrant) while Arctic DCM samples were clearly distinct in

their compositions (Figure 4B, blue circles). S1a MAG SAR11–312 had a vastly different

distribution compared to most other S1a genomes, which were found largely in warmer coastal

and trades biomes (e.g. RS39, HIMB5, HIMB083). Arctic S2a MAGs were associated with Arctic

PWW and polar surface samples. MAGs SAR11–144 and 196 were differentially distributed

from all other genomes investigated here, including the most closely related North Pacific A6S6

and B3S13. These results were robust to expanding the analysis to MAGs assembled from the

initial TARA Oceans project, which did not include Arctic samples (Supp. Figure 2).

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Discussion

Ribosomal RNA amplicon surveys of the marine environment have documented the

occurrence of SAR11 in Arctic marine systems [35–37], but the diversity and biogeography of

the different lineages has not been investigated in detail. Here we found evidence for the

presence of at least six SAR11 phylotypes in the Arctic. The global success of the SAR11 group

across marine environments points to a capacity to adapt to a wide array of environmental

conditions. While Arctic and Antarctic Oceans are superficially similar environments with respect

to solar radiation, the presence of sea ice and algae blooms following ice melt in spring [17], the

Arctic Ocean is surrounded by land and freshwater input from large rivers makes the Arctic

Ocean a more estuary-like marine biome compared to the Antarctic. The rivers also bring in

terrestrial-derived organic matter which represents a potential substrate and selective force on

the bacterial communities [22]. Increasing evidence suggests microbial Arctic endemism in

other bacterial groups [22], but this is the first genome-level study to our knowledge within the

SAR11 group.

The biogeography of ITS phylotypes offers a hint that local selective forces are at work

but the relatively coarse nature of the marker masks potential differentiation at the genome

level, such that ITS-based phylotypes may not necessarily discern discrete bacterial populations

that are locally adapted. Recent advances in sequencing techniques and genome assembly

algorithms have resulted in the utilization of MAGs and SAGs to extend the biogeographies of

bacteria beyond the phylogenetic marker level and infer patterns of local adaptation at the

genome level [7, 23, 38]. Utilizing this approach, gene content of individual SAR11 genomes

has been linked to niche partitioning based on nutrients [39], metabolic adaptation to

environmental productivity [40] and oxygen minimum zones [7]. However, this approach may

have limitations since assembling SAR11 genomes from metagenomes is notoriously difficult

due to their high levels of polymorphism [41]. Moreover, recent work suggests that gene content

differences alone may not be sufficient to explain SAR11 biogeographic patterns [42].

Nonetheless, our combined MAG-based and marker gene-based results converged, providing

support for the existence of novel arctic ecotypes.

Structure of Arctic Ocean SAR11 assemblages

Arctic phylotypes belonging to S1a, S2 and S3 showed preferences linked to different

water masses [5]. The fresher Arctic surface waters were dominated by a P3.2 phylotype that

had been previously associated with Arctic and brackish waters [9, 10]. In contrast, PWW

depths were dominated by the cold [2] and deep [5] phylotype P2.3. The majority of all

recovered ITS phylotypes from the Arctic Ocean belonged to the P2.3 phylotype, with one highly

abundant phylotype (P2.3s1, Figure 1C) that was previously only represented by a few

sequences from deep in the Red Sea [5]. The Arctic Ocean may constitute the centre of the

P2.3s1 range distribution [43] and its potential for local adaptation as well as its niche

requirements needs further exploration. In contrast to P3.2 and P2.3, the P2.1–P2.2 phylotype

showed a broader distribution across depths and samples. However, our phylogenetic analyses

failed to recover the two distinct previously published phylotypes P2.1 (tropical) and P2.2 (cold)

[2].

To further investigate the link between SAR11 diversity and the environment we utilized

metagenomic binning to assemble seven Arctic Ocean SAR11 MAGs that belonged to or were

closely related to subclades S1a and S2a and S2b, and investigated their biogeographic

distribution and transcriptional activity in the Arctic Ocean. Three of the four S2a MAGs

recovered here were widely distributed across depth classes and most stringently corresponded

to the distribution of the P2.1–P2.2 phylotype. The two MAGs most closely related to S2b

reference genomes were mostly present in DCM and PWW waters, mirroring the distribution of

the P2.3 and P2.3s1 phylotypes. However, in the absence of direct ITS evidence we were

unable to test directly that S2b-related Arctic MAGs correspond to the extremely common

P2.3s1 ITS phylotype. Surprisingly, we failed to assemble a S3 MAG, which based on the

abundance of corresponding ITS sequences, the high fragment recruitment of the S3 reference

genome IMCC9063, should have been recoverable. Moreover, we were unable to detect any

long (>10 kb) SAR11 scaffolds mapping to S3. The absence of any other strong S3 signal, apart

from the presence of ITS sequences, is intriguing and warrants further investigation.

Placing Arctic SAR11 into the global biogeography

To determine the biogeography of Arctic MAGs, in comparison to reference genomes

representing SAR11 diversity, we performed fragment recruitment analysis across 168

metagenomic datasets from different marine biomes, including the Arctic and two Antarctic

habitats: the Southern Ocean and Ace Lake, a saline Antarctic lake. While Arctic MAGs

belonging to clade S1 and subclade S2a were also detected in other metagenomic samples,

one MAG, which was most closely related to subclade S2b, SAR11–196, was found only in

samples from the Arctic Ocean, providing support for the presence of endemic arctic SAR11.

However, due to the low genome completeness of this MAG and the lack of closely related

reference genomes it was not feasible to link this potential endemism to gene content [7, 40] or

selection acting on genes responsible for the apparent local adaptation to the Arctic, as was

recently done for a different and wide-spread SAR11 population [42].

Arctic S2a MAGs were sparsely distributed across global metagenomes but were

consistently found in Arctic, Antarctic and South Atlantic biomes, indicating a bi-polar distribution

of this subclade. However, two of the three MAGs showed recruitment to the warm and salty

Mediterranean Sea in both the surface and the DCM layer. Other reference genomes within the

subclade were isolated from warm and oxygen-poor environments (e.g. A6S6 and A10S10 [7]),

indicating that cross-binning across closely related genomes during the fragment recruitment is

theoretically possible. Lastly, in contrast to the majority of other S1a reference genomes

investigated, the Arctic S1a MAG SAR11–312 was found across the mesopelagic layer of most

Oceans.

It has been discussed whether SAR11 diversity is shaped by neutral evolution [44], or

whether the multitude of subclades found within SAR11 represent ecotypes adapted to local

environmental conditions (e.g. [45]). Hellweger and colleagues [44] found that distinct

populations characterized by up to 0.5% diversity (roughly corresponding, for example, to the

rRNA gene diversity between phylotypes P1a.1 and P1a.3 [45]) can arise neutrally. However, a

range of other studies [1, 4, 46] have described seasonal and spatial patterning consistent with

adaptation to environmental conditions and colonization of environmental niches. Consistent

with ecotype adaptations to local conditions, we found that SAR11 assemblages within the

metagenomic datasets to be structured by both their biomes and environmental features. This

finding, in correspondence with the fact that diversity between most SAR11 subclades and

phylotypes is higher than 0.5% [2, 5], indicates that the majority of diversity within the clade is

likely to be shaped by adaptation to environmental niches.

The majority of SAR11 reference genomes (including most S1a and S1b genomes), as

well as MAGs assembled from the global TARA ocean metagenomes [31], are associated with

metagenomic datasets from warmer, more shallow environments from the Trades, Coastal and

Westerlies Biomes. A second group of reference genomes (mostly S1c) were most common in

deeper water metagenomic datasets with lower oxygen and higher nitrate concentrations, as

previously reported for S1c genotypes found in nitrate replete oceanic OMZs [7]. Polar biome

metagenomic datasets formed a distinct third environmental group. Within the polar datasets,

those from the DCM clustered away from all other environments, providing support for the

hypothesis that distinct SAR11 assemblages in the samples are selected by environmental

conditions, specifically with respect to the Arctic S2a MAGs, which were most frequent here. In

contrast to DCM metagenomic datasets, other Arctic datasets clustered closely with those from

the Southern Ocean, pointing towards the bi-polar distribution for several of the Arctic S2 MAGs

found in these datasets.

Seasonal variability of SAR11 phylotypes in association with mixing and phytoplankton

bloom events has been extensively described at the Bermuda Atlantic Time-series Study

(BATS) site in the Sargasso Sea [4, 46] as well as at coastal environments [45]. The absence of

seasonal data in our study makes a direct inference of Arctic phylotype seasonality impossible, but Arctic summer/fall patterns can be compared to those described in other marine biomes. In contrast to summer samples from the BATS, phylotypes belonging to S1a and S1b were relatively scarce in the Arctic surface layer [4, 46], though P1a was abundant in most Arctic DCM samples., Brackish phylotype P3.2 was abundant in most Arctic surface water samples, which is an analogous distribution to phylotype P3.1 that blooms in BATS surface waters in the fall [46]. Whether the apparently more cold-tolerating P3.2 phylotype fills the same seasonal niche as P3.1 in tropical and temperate waters remains to be investigated. S2 phylotypes have been found year-round in deeper waters, but bloom specifically in the spring within the upper mesopelagic at BATS [4, 46], where they are likely involved in DOM remineralization following winter deep mixing [4]. In accordance with these findings, Arctic S2a MAGs were found to be abundant in the euphotic zones of several marine biomes, indicating that the MAGs' niche may be temporally, rather than spatially, defined. In agreement with previous work, we found the S2b reference genomes A6S6 and B3S13 to be highly abundant in the DCM and mesopelagic layer in the North Pacific, but absent in the Arctic Ocean. The absence of any S2b reference genome hits in the Arctic Ocean could point towards Arctic S2b-like MAGs (and the putatively corresponding P2.3s1 phylotype) replacing them as endemic Arctic specialists in the DCM and PWW, but, in the absence of seasonal samples, further work is needed to elucidate the seasonal patterns of Arctic ecotypes.

Different degrees of endemism within bacterial communities in the Arctic Ocean have been reported. Patterns vary for different groups of bacteria, but in general Arctic bacterial communities are complex assemblages of bacteria with cosmopolitan, bi-polar, and Arctic-specific distributions, indicating varying degrees of adaptation to local conditions. [6, 16, 17, 47–49]. In the present study, we set out to describe and place Arctic Ocean SAR11 into the global SAR11 biogeography using both marker gene and MAG-based approaches. Assembly of the highly genome-streamlined SAR11 clade, which shows high rates of recombination, from

metagenomes is difficult, complicating comparisons with 16S rRNA-based approaches.

Nevertheless, we detected a previously nearly undescribed ITS phylotype, P2.3s1, which was

the most common phylotype in most Arctic PWW and DCM samples. Moving from phylotypes to

MAGs, we detected Arctic SAR11 genomes with restricted biogeographic distributions indicating

the potential for bi-polar and endemic ecotypes. The selective forces shaping these

biogeographic distributions as well as the resulting adaptive responses on the genome level

merit future investigation.

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Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Tables

Table 1: SAR11 clades, subclades and phylotypes, as well as their environmental associations

as described in the literature.

Table 2: Western Arctic Ocean metagenome sampling sites, their environmental feature and

environmental parameters including sampling depth (Depth), water temperature (Temp.),

Salinity, Chl a Fluorescence, CDOM, Oxygen and Nitrate (NO_3).

Table 3: Summary statistics of MAGs from the Western Arctic Ocean.

Figure legends

Figure 1: Study metadata and overview of SAR11 ITS phylogeny. A) Sampling locations of the

Western Arctic Ocean metagenomes. B) Environmental profiles of sampling locations showing

temperature (˚C), salinity, chlorophyll *a* fluorescence (mg m^{-3}) and nitrate (mmol m^{-3}). C)

Maximum likelihood ITS phylogeny including Arctic and reference sequences. Only subclades

which contain Arctic ITS sequence types are labeled.

Figure 2: Distribution of SAR11 phylotypes in the Arctic Ocean. A) ITS region coverage of Arctic

SAR11 phylotypes across samples. B) Principal coordinate analysis ordination of Bray-Curtis

dissimilarities of Arctic samples based on the coverage of different ITS phylotypes. Scaling 2 is

shown. Dark blue diamonds: PWW samples, blue diamonds: SCM samples, light blue samples:

surface samples. Asterisks show phylotypes' weighted average frequency.

Figure 3: Phylogenetic context and distribution of Arctic SAR11 MAGs. A) Maximum likelihood

phylogeny based on 39 concatenated orthologous loci. Only bootstrap values higher than 0.6

are shown on the tree. Colored squares and circles at the tips indicate the environment and

temperature of origin (if known), matching phylotypes if known are indicated. Colored squares

indicate reference genomes with known ITS phylotypes. Grey labeling indicates inferred

phylotypes based on phylogenetic placement and distribution of the genomes. B) Coverage of

Arctic MAG scaffolds across Western Arctic ocean metagenomes.

Figure 4: Global biogeography of SAR11 genomes. A) RPMG table of Arctic MAGs and

reference genomes by ocean layer and ocean region. Abbreviations for oceans are Arctic (AO),

Southern (SO), South Pacific (SP), North Pacific (NP), South Atlantic (SA), North Atlantic (NA),

Indian Ocean (IO), Mediterranean (MS) and Red (RS) Seas. For clarity only RPMG values > 3

are shown in the figure. We also performed fragment recruitment for five LD12 genomes, but

observed no recruitment across all metagenomic datasets. B) Principal coordinate analysis

ordination of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities of metagenome samples based on RPMG values of

arctic MAGs and reference genomes. Scaling 2 is shown. Arrows indicate significant

environmental variables after *Post-Hoc* testing. Asterisks show the weighted average of each

genomes' frequency.

Supplementary Information: Supplementary methods description (docx).

Supplemental Figure 1: ITS phylogeny of SAR11 subclades. The longest sequence type per

Arctic cluster was used in the phylogeny and only sequence types containing complete ITS

regions are included. Arctic samples are indicated by coloured squares; Surface (green), DCM

(orange) and PWW (blue), Subclades from Table 1: A) S1a, B) S1b, C) S2 and D) S3 (pdf).

Supplemental Figure 2: Principal coordinate analysis ordination of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities of

metagenome samples based on RPMG values of arctic MAGs and reference genomes,

including SAR11 MAGs from the TARA ocean circumnavigation expedition [50]. Scaling 2 is

shown. Arrows indicate significant environmental variables after *Post-Hoc* testing. Asterisks

show the weighted average of each genomes' frequency (pdf).

Table 1: SAR11 clades, subclades and phylotypes, as well as their environmental associations as described in the literature (SS: Sargasso Sea).

Clade (16S rRNA)	Subclade (16S rRNA)	Phylotype (ITS)	Reference genome available?	Environmental description		
				Clade	Subclade	Phylotype
S1	S1a	P1a.1	Y	-Freshwater Lake Baikal [51] -Blooms in summer in surface SS [46]	-Summer SS bloom in surface [46] -Bloom in summer mixed layer of SS (high UV, low nutrients) [4, 52] -SS euphotic zone, blooms after mixing [4]	-Cold [2] -Blooms December to June in coastal NA [45]
		P1a.2	N			-Temperate [2]
		P1a.3	Y			-Tropical [2] -Tropical, depth generalist [5] -Blooms July to November in coastal NA [45]
	S1b	P1b.1	Y		-Tropical, oxygen generalist [7] -SS spring bloom [46] -Tropical, epi- and bathypelagic [53] -Tropical [2]	
		P1b.2	Y			
		P1b.3	Y			-Tropical, upper euphotic layer [5]
	S1c	NA2	Y		-Deep, tropical [5, 7] -Deep SS [46]	
S2	S2a.a	-	Y	-Blooms in mesopelagic NA after deep mixing [4]	-SS spring bloom [46]	-OMZ specialist, tropical [7]
	S2a.b	P2.1	Y			-Tropical [2]
		P2.2	N			-Cold [2] -Antarctic [8]
	S2b	P2.3	Y		-Deep SS [46]	-Cold [2] -Deep, tropical [5] -Tropical, OMZ [7] -P2.3s1: Arctic SCM and PWW (this study)
S3		P3.1	Y			-SS surface in autumn [46] -Coastal, mesohaline,

							surface [9] -Tropical [2]
		P3.2	Y				-Arctic [10] -Brackish [9] -Temperate [2]
		LD12	Y				-Freshwater [11]

Table 2: Western Arctic Ocean metagenome sampling sites, their environmental feature and environmental parameters including sampling depth (Depth), water temperature (Temp.), Salinity, Chl a Fluorescence, CDOM, Oxygen and Nitrate (NO_3) limit of detection 0.02 (nd)

Station	Lat.	Long.	Feature	Depth [m]	Temp. [˚C]	Salinity	Fluorescence [mg m^{-3}]	CDOM [mg m^{-3}]	Oxygen [mmol m^{-3}]	NO_3 [mmol m^{-3}]
CB2_154	73.22	-150.22	SUR	7	-1.26	25.70	0.15	2.54	391.85	nd
CB2_152	73.22	-150.22	DCM	67	-0.86	31.48	0.33	3.9	351.56	4.45
CB2_150	73.22	-150.22	PWW	177	-1.45	33.18	0.05	4.21	281.85	15.98
CB4_138	75.26	-150.07	SUR	5	-1.39	26.14	0.12	2.58	394.08	nd
CB4_136	75.26	-150.07	DCM	79	-0.02	31.16	0.23	3.9	329.14	4.65
CB4_134	75.26	-150.07	PWW	208	-1.47	33.14	0.05	4.36	282.39	16.13
CB8_130	77.1	-150.23	SUR	5	-1.46	27.2	0.19	2.78	395.60	nd
CB8_128	77.1	-150.23	DCM	58	-0.15	30.97	0.30	3.89	383.72	0.35
CB8_126	77.1	-150.23	PWW	213	-1.45	33.14	0.05	4.42	281.09	16.24
CB11_90	79.25	-150.06	SUR	5	-1.48	27.31	0.24	2.67	394.88	nd
CB11_88	79.25	-150.06	DCM	25	-1.04	29.69	0.25	3.22	401.18	nd
CB11_86	79.25	-150.06	PWW	190	-1.46	33.15	0.05	4.35	281.89	15.82

Table 3: Summary statistics of MAGs from the Western Arctic Ocean.

Subclade	MAG	Size (mb)	Cov (x)	GC (%)	Completeness (%)	Contamination (%)	N50 (kb)	# of scaffolds	# of genes	# of unique genes
S1a	312	0.42	27.83	27.3	47.17	1.89	21.23	20	462	33
S2a	112	0.41	8.66	28.31	38.68	1.89	18.76	20	462	49
S2a	272	0.3	17.96	29.52	35.85	0	98.98	5	320	10
S2a	410	0.42	16.77	30.68	24.53	1.89	18.96	26	462	36
S2a	484	0.44	38.18	28.54	35.09	0	38.17	14	481	35
S2	144	0.63	27.78	29.21	41.51	3.77	30.34	23	672	47
S2	196	0.39	23.43	28.5	46.99	0	93.24	8	430	29

A

		SURF	DCM	PWW	SURF	SURF	DCM	MES	SURF	MIX	DCM	MES	SURF	DCM	MES	SURF	DCM	MES	SURF	MIX	DCM	MES	SURF	DCM	MES	SURF	DCM	SURF	DCM
		AO			ACE	SO			SP				NP			SA			NA				IO			MS		RS	

Figure: Heatmap of RPMG values across oceanic regions (AO, ACE, SO, SP, NP, SA, NA, IO, MS, RS) and depths (SURF, DCM, PWW, MIX, MES) for SAR11 genomes grouped into clades S1a, S1b, S1c, S2a, S2b, P3.1, P3.2.

Row labels (top to bottom):

S1a: HTCC1062, HTCC1013, SAR11-312, AAA795A20, HIMB083, AAA795O19, AAA795I19, HTCC8051, HTCC7211, HTCC7214, HTCC7217, HTCC9022, RS39, AAA795D22, AAA795O20, HIMB1321, HIMB5

S1b: RS40, AAA795E22, AAA795M22

S1c: AAA240E13, AAA288E13, AAA288G21, AAA288N07

S2a: A10S10, SAR11-272, SAR11-410, SAR11-112, AAA795E07, HIMB058, SAR11-484

S2b: A6S6, B3S13

(ungrouped): SAR11-144, SAR11-196

P3.1: HIMB114

P3.2: IMCC9063

RPMG legend: 0, 50, 1000, 2000, 3000, 4000

B

Axes: 27.78% (x), 14.03% (y)

Vectors: Depth, Nitrate, Salinity, Temperature, Oxygen, Chl a

Marine Biome
- Coastal Biome
- Polar Biome
- Trades Biome
- Westerlies Biome

Feature
- SRF
- MIX
- DCM
- PWW
- MES

Point labels: AAA288E13, AAA288N07, AAA023L09, AAA288G21, AAA240E13, A10S10, SAR11-312, A6S6, B3S13, SAR11-144, SAR11-196, IMCC9063, SAR11-272, HTCC1013, SAR11-410, SAR11-112, HTCC1062, SAR11-484

Box label: HTCC8051 HIMB1321 AAA280B11 HTCC7217 HTCC7211 HTCC9022 RS40 HTCC7214 HIMB058 AAA795D22 AAA795M22 RS39 AAA795E22 HIMB5 HIMB083 HIMB114 AAA795O20 AAA795A20 AAA795O19 AAA795I19 AAA795E07