

Size fractionation informs microbial community composition and interactions in the eastern tropical North Pacific Ocean

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 Marine microorganisms are drivers of biogeochemical cycles in the world’s oceans, including
28 oxygen minimum zones (OMZs). Using a metabarcoding survey of the 16S rRNA gene, we
29 investigated prokaryotic communities, as well as their potential interactions with fungi, at the
30 coastal, offshore, and peripheral OMZ of the eastern tropical North Pacific. Water samples were
31 collected along a vertical oxygen gradient, and large volumes were filtered through three size
32 fractions, 0.22 µm, 2 µm, and 22 µm. The changes in community composition along the oxygen
33 gradient were driven by Planctomycetota, Bacteroidota, Verrucomicrobiota, and
34 Gammaproteobacteria; most are known degraders of marine polysaccharides and usually
35 associated with the large particle-associated community. The relative abundance of
36 Nitrososphaerota, Alphaproteobacteria, Actinomycetota, and Nitrospinota were high in free-
37 living and small particle-associated communities. Network analyses identified putative
38 interactions between fungi and prokaryotes in the particle-associated fractions, which have been
39 largely overlooked in the ocean. In the small particle-associated network analysis, fungal ASVs
40 had exclusively negative connections with SAR11 nodes. In the large particle-associated network
41 analysis, fungal ASVs displayed both negative and positive connections with Pseudomonadota,
42 SAR324, and Thermoplasmata. Our findings demonstrate the utility of three-stage size-
43 fractionated filtration in providing novel insights into marine microbial ecology.

44
45 **Keywords:** Oxygen Minimum Zone, metabarcoding, community composition, network analysis,
46 fungi-bacteria interactions, size fractionation

Introduction

Microorganisms influence biodiversity and productivity in diverse marine environments. Oceanic oxygen minimum zones (OMZs), defined by oxygen concentration $< 62.5 \mu\text{M}$ at intermediate depths (Stramma *et al.* 2008), form as a result of excess oxygen consumption by respiration and sluggish oxygen resupply via physical processes (Karstensen, Stramma and Visbeck 2008). The minimum oxygen concentration in certain OMZs, including the Arabian Sea and the eastern tropical North and South Pacific, is below detection (1 - 10 nM), and these OMZs are referred to as anoxic marine zones (AMZs) or anoxic OMZs (A-OMZs) (Ulloa *et al.* 2012; Canfield and Kraft 2022). Marine OMZs have expanded during the past 50 years, mainly due to anthropogenic influences, with continued expansion predicted for the coming century (Breitburg *et al.* 2018). Rising ocean temperatures, which decrease the solubility of oxygen in the water and can cause microbial blooms, are the leading cause of deoxygenation in marine ecosystems (Paerl and Otten 2013; Bertagnolli and Stewart 2018; Breitburg *et al.* 2018). Oceanic oxygen decline has reshaped the community composition of marine organisms, specifically prokaryotes (Bertagnolli and Stewart 2018).

The sharp vertical oxygen gradient found in OMZs provides an environment for ecological shifts between aerobic metabolisms (e.g., heterotrophic respiration, ammonium oxidation, and nitrite oxidation) and anaerobic metabolisms (e.g., denitrification and anaerobic ammonia oxidation (anammox)) (Canfield and Kraft 2022). Microorganisms have enzymatic and metabolic mechanisms for low-oxygen environments, for example, by deploying a higher ratio of high-affinity to low-affinity cytochrome oxidases (Kalvelage *et al.* 2015), allowing them to catalyze reactions that require oxygen under low oxygen levels (Peng *et al.* 2015, 2016, 2024) and

70 alternate substrates as terminal electron acceptors, such as nitrate (Bueno *et al.* 2012). Oxygen is
71 the main driver of microbial community structure in oxygen minimum zones, influencing aerobic
72 and anaerobic metabolic processes and biogeochemical cycling (Ulloa *et al.* 2012; Canfield and
73 Kraft 2022). Additionally, temperature, salinity, and organic matter availability have been shown
74 to determine the microbial community assembly in OMZs (Bryant *et al.* 2012; Beman and
75 Carolan 2013; Peng, Jayakumar and Ward 2013; Rajpathak *et al.* 2018).

76
77 Organic matter is produced by different groups of phytoplankton in coastal oceans when
78 compared to the open ocean, with larger eukaryotic primary producers contributing to a large
79 proportion of primary productivity nearshore and Cyanobacteriota contributing to most of the
80 primary production offshore (James *et al.* 2022). Coastal waters can contain more than double
81 the chlorophyll a concentrations compared to offshore waters (Fuchsman *et al.* 2019). In certain
82 regions of the open ocean, including OMZs, a deep chlorophyll a maximum (DCM) comprised
83 of Cyanobacteriota with greater light-harvesting abilities (primarily *Prochlorococcus* and
84 *Synechococcus*) is frequently observed (Lavin *et al.* 2010; Fuchsman *et al.* 2019; Callbeck *et al.*
85 2021). These differences in phytoplankton communities between nearshore and offshore
86 seawater lead to differences in the vertical flux of organic matter (Fuchsman *et al.*, 2019) and the
87 formation of particulate organic matter, which influences the microbial community composition.
88 Previous studies have found size fraction to be one of the strongest predictors of community
89 composition (Ganesh *et al.* 2014; Suter *et al.* 2018). Particle-associated microorganisms attach to
90 aggregates of organic matter and can create microhabitats enriched in nutrients and organic
91 carbon (Ganesh *et al.* 2014). This allows a spectrum of aerobic and anaerobic metabolisms to
92 occur in close proximity (Klawonn *et al.* 2015). Despite a wide range in the size of particles in

seawater (Davies *et al.* 2014), most studies in the ETSP and ETNP OMZs so far have used only two size fractions, including one $\sim 0.2 \mu\text{m}$ filter for the free-living size fraction and one filter with a larger pore size for the particle-associated size fraction (Table 1). The selection of a small pore size (e.g., $2 \mu\text{m}$) for the particle-associated size fraction would result in the lumping of small and large particles, while the use of only a $0.2 \mu\text{m}$ filter would result in the inclusion of all particles on the $0.2 \mu\text{m}$ filter with the free-living size fraction, obfuscating the distinction between free-living and particle-associated microbes.

In this study, we filtered large volumes (23 - 69 L, Supplementary Table S1) through three size fractions ($0.22 - 2.0 \mu\text{m}$, $2.0 - 22 \mu\text{m}$, and $>22 \mu\text{m}$) to separate both small ($2.0 - 22 \mu\text{m}$) and large ($>22 \mu\text{m}$) particle-associated microbes from free-living ($0.2 - 2.0 \mu\text{m}$) microbial communities from the eastern tropical North Pacific (ETNP) OMZ. By sequencing and analyzing the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene from all three size fractions, we revealed previously overlooked lineages that drive the differences in community composition between different size fractions and under different oxygen levels. We also used network analyses that included previously published fungal community composition data from the same samples to identify putative keystone species that likely play an important role in OMZ biogeochemistry. We hypothesized that a sharp redoxcline, consisting of the transitional zones between oxygenated and anoxic waters, would have a selective effect on the microbial community composition and diversity. We expected that all size fractions would exhibit strong community variations along redox gradients. We hypothesized that these differences would be more pronounced at large particle-associated size fractions compared with the small particle-associated and free-living size fractions because

of the variation in particle composition throughout the OMZ (Mestre *et al.* 2017; Maerz *et al.* 2020).

Materials and Methods

Sample Collection

Seawater samples (total of 16) were collected from the ETNP OMZ in surface/oxic ($> 125 \mu\text{M}$ of O_2 ; 40 m at Station 1, 30 m at Station 2, and 10 m at Station 3), upper oxycline (above anoxic zone; 70 m and 83 m at Station 1, 90 m at Station 2, and 33 m at Station 3), anoxic ($< 10 \text{ nM}$ of O_2 ; 110 m and 120 m at Station 1, 113 m and 120 m at Station 2, and 40 m, 45 m, 70 m at Station 3), and lower oxycline (below anoxic zone; 900 m at Station 2 and 1000 m at Station 3) (Figure 1) from March 22 to April 11, 2018, on *R/V Sally Ride* at three stations using 30-liter Niskin bottles (Figure 1) (Peng and Valentine 2021). When more than 30 L were filtered, water was collected in multiple Niskin bottles at the same depth on the same cast.

The dissolved oxygen concentrations and fluorescence in the water column were determined using a SBE 43 dissolved oxygen sensor (detection limit of $1 \mu\text{M}$) (Sea-Bird Scientific, Bellevue, WA, USA) and a Seapoint chlorophyll fluorometer (Seapoint et al., USA) attached to a conductivity, temperature, and depth (CTD) rosette. The mixed layer depth (MLD) was determined from vertical profiles of sigma-theta (σ_θ) calculated from temperature and salinity measured *in situ* during the CTD casts. The MLD criterion used was a threshold value of $\Delta\sigma_\theta = 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ from the value at 10 m (De Boyer Montégut 2004). Sulfanilamide and N(1-Naphthyl)ethylenediamine (NED) colorimetric spectrophotometer technique was used to measure ambient nitrite (Strickland and Parsons 1970). Nitrate profiles were measured using the

chemiluminescence method (Braman and Hendrix 1989). Lastly, the ortho-phthalaldehyde (OPA) method was used to measure ambient ammonium (Holmes et al., 1999; Taylor et al., 2007). For more details on nutrient concentration measurement methodology, refer to Tracey et al. (2022). To investigate microbial communities at different size fractions, the sampled seawater was sequentially filtered through a 47-mm diameter Whatman Grade 541 acid-hardened cellulose filter paper (22 μm nominal particle retention rating, GE Healthcare 1541–047, Marlborough, MA, USA), a 47-mm diameter polycarbonate filter (2.0 μm nominal pore size, Millipore Isopore TTP-04700, Burlington, MA, USA), and a Sterivex filter (0.22 μm nominal pore size, Millipore SVGP01050, Burlington, MA, USA), using a peristaltic pump at a flow rate < 40 mL/min in a cold room (4°C) upon collection. For each sample set, 23 to 69 L of seawater was filtered (Supplementary Table S1). Microorganisms collected on the 22 μm filters were considered to represent the large particle-associated fraction (> 22 μm), microorganisms collected on the 2 μm filters were considered to represent the small particle-associated fraction (2 - 22 μm), and the microorganisms collected on the 0.22 μm filters represented the free-living fraction (0.22 - 2 μm). The filters were flash-frozen using liquid nitrogen before being stored at -80°C .

DNA Extraction

In the laboratory, DNA was extracted from the filters using the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen Cat. No. 69106), following the kit protocol except for the first step (cell lysis). The filter papers were cut into 2 mm squares using sterilized scissors. The filters were placed into 2 mL tubes containing 1 mL of 0.5 mm zirconia/silica beads (Biospec products #11079105z, Bartlesville, OK, USA), 600 μL of AP1 buffer, and 6 μL of RNase A. These tubes were placed in a Biospec

Mini-BeadBeater-16 for 90 seconds and incubated at 65 °C for 10 minutes. After incubation, the tubes were centrifuged at 20,000 g for 5 minutes, and the supernatant was transferred into new 2 mL tubes and neutralized with 195 µL of Buffer P3. The remaining extraction steps followed the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit protocols without further modification. The DNA quantity was determined using a Broad Range (BR) DNA Qubit fluorometer kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), and the extracted samples were stored at -80 °C until amplicon library construction.

16S Amplicon Sequencing

The V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified using uniquely barcoded PCR primers 515F (5' - AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACAC <i5> TATGGTAATT GT GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA - 3') and 806R (5' - CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGAT <i7> AGTCAGTCAG CC GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT - 3'), where the <i5> and <i7> sequences are the 8-nt Illumina index sequences previously described (Kozich *et al.* 2013). Amplicon PCR reactions contained 1 µL of template DNA, 2 µL of 10 µM forward primer, 2 µL of 10 µM reverse primer, and 17 µL of AccuPrime Pfx SuperMix (ThermoFisher Scientific by Invitrogen). The thermal cycle settings started at 95°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95 °C for 20 s, 55 °C for 15 s, and 72 °C for 5 min, and final elongation at 72 °C for 10 min. The concentrations of PCR products were normalized using the SequelPrep Normalization Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific by Invitrogen), cleaned using the DNA Clean and Concentrator kit (Zymo Research), visualized on an Agilent Tapestation, and quantified using a Qubit fluorometer. Samples were sequenced and demultiplexed at the University of California Davis Genome Center on the Illumina MiSeq platform with 250-nucleotide paired-end reads. A PCR-

grade water sample was included in extraction, amplification, and sequencing as a negative control to assess DNA contamination.

Sequence Analysis

Raw sequencing reads were analyzed with USEARCH (v11) to calculate the expected error starting from 50 base pairs (bp) to 250 bp at 10 bp intervals (Edgar, 2010). This guided our decision to trim the forward, and reverse reads to 150 bp. A total of 2,374,826 forward and reverse reads were sequenced from 48 samples, 2,287,897 reads were merged, and 1,849,854 merged reads passed quality filtering, removing all sequences with a maximum expected error greater than 1.0. The mean merged length was 254 bp (Supplementary Table S2). Removing the low-quality tail of raw reads improved the quality and percentage of merged reads. Trimmed forward and reverse reads were merged using USEARCH with the options “-fastq_maxdiffs 10”. Merged reads were quality filtered (with a maximum expected error of 1.0), dereplicated, and denoised (using the command “usearch -unoise3”) using USEARCH to obtain Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs). 93.4% of merged reads were mapped to the ASVs to construct an abundance table. The nucleotide sequences of ASVs were imported to QIIME2 v2022-11 (Caporaso *et al.* 2010) and classified by a Naïve Bayesian Classifier using the SILVA v138.1 99% identity OTUs from the 515F/806R region as the reference database (Quast *et al.* 2012).

Statistical and Network Analyses

Environmental parameters, including salinity, temperature, the concentration of dissolved oxygen, nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, and chlorophyll a at each station, were investigated using a redundancy analysis (RDA) to determine their roles in shaping the microbial community

207 composition using the vegan package in R (Oksanen *et al.* 2022). Prior to RDA, a Chord
208 transformation (decostand function in the vegan package) (Borcard, Gillet and Legendre 2011;
209 Legendre and Borcard 2018) was performed for both the ASV abundance table and the
210 environmental data table because they do not follow normality (determined by Shapiro-Wilk's
211 tests in R) and homoskedasticity (determined by Breusch-Pagan tests in R). Variance inflation
212 factors (VIF) were calculated, and co-varying environmental parameters with VIF values above
213 five were removed from the RDA. A permutation test for RDA under a reduced model was run
214 to determine the significance of the following environmental variables: temperature, the
215 concentration of dissolved oxygen, nitrite, ammonium, and chlorophyll a. A permutational
216 multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) and Hutchenson t-tests were run to determine
217 the community variation across the oxygen gradient (surface/oxic, upper oxycline, anoxic, and
218 lower oxycline).

219
220 Using the phyloseq package in R (McMurdie and Holmes 2013), the relative abundance of each
221 ASV was calculated and combined with its taxonomic classification. The 1100 most abundant
222 taxa across all samples were selected to generate stacked bar charts. The full ASV abundance
223 table was rarefied to the same sequencing depth in each sample (12,135 sequences per sample,
224 range of 569 – 76,742 reads per library) (Cameron *et al.* 2021). Using R, the rarefied ASV table
225 was used to calculate the Shannon diversity (diversity function in vegan package), richness
226 (specnumber function in vegan package), and evenness (Shannon diversity divided by the log of
227 richness) of each sample. Using the ecolTest package in R, Hutchenson t-tests were completed to
228 determine the significance of the diversity between the free-living, small particle-associated, and
229 large particle-associated community at each station.

Differential abundance analysis of the ASVs was performed using the relative abundance of each ASV, which was normalized for composition bias using the Trimmed Mean of M-values (TMM) method in R (calcNormFactors function in edgeR package). The estimated dispersion was run on the normalized ASVs (estimateDisp function in edgeR package), and a differential abundance analysis was performed between oxic, upper oxycline/anoxic, and lower oxycline regions (makeContrasts function in limma package). A Quasi-Likelihood F Test was performed on the output of the differential abundance analysis (glmQLFTest function in edgeR package), and then the counts per million (output from the expression analysis) for each 12 ASVs that are differentially regulated were counted (decideTestsDGE function in edgeR package). The counts per million for the top 48 ASVs were merged with the taxonomy. The 48 most abundant ASVs that were differentially abundant across conditions were visualized using ggplot2.

Network analyses of the prokaryotic and fungal (Peng and Valentine 2021) microbial communities at each size fraction were performed using the Molecular Ecological Network Analyses Pipeline (MENAP) (Zhou *et al.* 2010, 2011; Deng *et al.* 2012; Xiao *et al.* 2022). Peng and Valentine (2021) used an ITS2 primer set on the same samples in this study to identify fungal ASVs in the ETNP OMZ. The rarefied ASV table was used to construct the network using the random matrix theory-based network approach (Chavda, Deota and Kota 2014). For all size fractions, only ASVs observed in more than 68.75% of all samples (11 samples out of 16 samples) were included in each network analysis. This percentage was chosen to include enough ASVs to form the network while being stringent to target the predominant ASVs. The relative abundance of ASVs sequences was transformed using a centered log ratio and a Pearson

correlation coefficient (Zhou *et al.* 2010). The correlation and significance were determined using a Chi-square test on Poisson distribution. Network global properties, individual nodes' centrality, and module separation and modularity calculations (greedy modularity optimization) were calculated as part of the MENAP pipeline. The completed network was visualized in Cytoscape v3.9.1 (Shannon *et al.* 2003). Putative keystone species were identified using the criteria $P_i < 0.6$ and $Z_i > 1.5$ for module hubs and $P_i > 0.6$ and $Z_i > 1.5$ for network hubs. Z_i represents how well a node is connected to other nodes in the same module. P_i represents how well a node is connected to different modules, calculated using equations from Guimerà & Amaral (2005) (Xiao *et al.* 2022). The keystone identification was putative because these ASVs have not been experimentally verified as keystone species. The MENAP used included a recently added module, iDIRECT, which removes indirect connections between nodes by eliminating self-looping and the values of the total interaction strengths outside their natural range (Xiao *et al.* 2022). Chloroplast DNA identified in the network analysis was further classified using NCBI blastn.

Results

Environmental context

At station 1 (the peripheral OMZ), oxygen concentrations were approximately 200 μM in the mixed layer (down to 50 meters, Figure 2A). Then, oxygen sharply decreased in the oxycline (between 50 and 80 meters) and remained below detection starting at $\sim 120\text{m}$ (Figure 2A). In the surface, chlorophyll a concentrations ranged between 0.4 and 0.8 mg m^{-3} , and displayed a subsurface maximum (4 mg m^{-3}) at the bottom of the mixed layer (Figure 2A). Below a local chlorophyll a concentration minimum at about 2 mg m^{-3} between 60 and 70 meters, there was a

276 deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM, 2.5 mg m^{-3}) near the oxic-anoxic interface ($\sim 85 \text{ m}$).
277 Ammonium concentrations displayed a subsurface maximum of 90 nM in the oxycline and
278 another peak at 90 m (55 nM ; Figure 2D). A large primary nitrite maximum reaching $1.5 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$
279 was observed in the oxycline, and the nitrite buildup in the anoxic depths was $\sim 0.1 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$. Lastly,
280 nitrate was depleted in the surface and increased in the oxycline and anoxic zone and remained at
281 approximately $29 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$ for the remaining sampling depths (Figure 2D).

282
283 At Station 2 (the offshore OMZ), the overall trend of the oxygen and chlorophyll a concentration
284 depth profiles resembled those at Station 1, while both the shallow and deep chlorophyll maxima
285 were positioned slightly deeper at Station 2 than at Station 1 (Figure 2B). A defining feature of
286 permanent OMZs, the secondary nitrite maximum (SNM) (Codispoti *et al.* 1986; Peng *et al.*
287 2015; Kelly *et al.* 2021; Travis *et al.* 2023), was observed at around 250 m at the offshore OMZ,
288 reaching $1.6 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$ of nitrite (Figure 2E). In contrast, the SNM was absent in the peripheral OMZ.
289 Ammonium concentration at Station 2 peaked twice above the oxycline (first peak of 52.0 nM
290 and second peak of 50.0 nM). At this station, one sample was collected from the lower oxycline
291 at 900 m , where oxygen concentration was approximately $3 \text{ }\mu\text{M}$ (Figure 2B).

292
293 At Station 3 (the coastal OMZ), there was a sharp oxycline between the surface and 40 m (Figure
294 2C). Oxygen remained below detection (10 nM) from $\sim 40 \text{ m}$ to 840 m . Oxygen increased to 12
295 μM at 1000 m in the lower oxycline. In the mixed layer (from surface to 11 m), chlorophyll a
296 concentrations were about three times as high as those at Stations 1 and 2, reaching a shallow
297 maximum of 11.7 mg m^{-3} . The chlorophyll a concentration remained above 2 mg m^{-3} down to 70
298 m , which intersected with the upper part of the anoxic depths (Figure 2C). The surface maximum

of ammonium concentration reached 525.6 nM at 10 m; below 25 m the ammonium concentrations remained low (< 15 nM). The primary nitrite maximum ($0.7 \mu\text{M}$) was positioned below the subsurface ammonium peak at 20 m, and the SNM ($2.8 \mu\text{M}$) was observed at 160 m (Figure 2F).

Prokaryotic community composition and diversity

Sequences of the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene from the ETNP OMZ comprised 5,050 ASVs, with 4,646 ASVs affiliated with Bacteria and 404 ASVs affiliated with Archaea (Figure 3). 93.4% of reads were mapped to all ASVs (Supplementary Table S2). Across all samples, bacteria accounted for 78.5% of the total microbial community. Archaea accounted for 21.5% of the total microbial community (Supplementary Table S3). The dominant bacterial phyla included Pseudomonadota (including the classes Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria), Cyanobacteriota, and Bacteroidota, comprising 28.5% (18.1% are Alphaproteobacteria and 10.4% are Gammaproteobacteria), 13.4%, and 12.1% of the prokaryotic community, respectively. The dominant archaeal phyla consisted of Nitrososphaerota, Thermoplasmatota, and Nanoarchaeota, comprising 11.2%, 9.7%, and 0.6% of the prokaryotic community, respectively (Supplementary Table S3). The 1100 most abundant ASVs included in Figure 3 accounted for approximately 90.5% of all merged reads (2,287,897 in total).

The prokaryotic community composition and diversity were distinct between different size fractions (Supplementary Table S4). Large particle-associated communities were enriched with Planctomycetota (up to 27%), Bacteroidota (up to 53%), Verrucomicrobiota (up to 16%), and Gammaproteobacteria (up to 24%) (Figure 3, Supplementary Figures S1 – S4, Supplementary

Table S4). In contrast, the relative abundance of Nitrososphaerota (up to 51%), Alphaproteobacteria (up to 43%) (Supplementary Figure S5), Actinomycetota (up to 14%), and Nitrospinota (up to 14%) were high in free-living and small particle-associated size fractions (Figure 3, Supplementary Table S4). The relative abundance of the NB1-j group (formerly a member of Deltaproteobacteria) was high (up to 3.8%, Supplementary Table S4) in the small particle-associated and large particle-associated communities at the oxycline and anoxic depths (83 to 1000 m).

Alpha diversity

The Shannon diversity and evenness were similar between the free-living and small particle-associated communities at the peripheral OMZ (mean of 0.43 and 0.35, respectively). In contrast, the prokaryotic diversity of the large particle-associated community was low (mean of 0.23) (Supplementary Figure S6). In the offshore OMZ, the Shannon diversity of the small particle-associated and large particle-associated size fractions (mean of 0.14 and 0.20, respectively) was low compared to the free-living community (mean of 0.46) (Supplementary Figure S6). There was a significant difference (Hutcheson's t-test, $p < 0.05$) in diversity between large particle-associated and free-living microbial communities at Stations 1 and 2 (Supplementary Table S5). There was a significant difference (Hutcheson's t-test, $p < 0.05$) in diversity between the small particle-associated and large particle-associated microbial communities at all stations sampled (Supplementary Table S5). There was also a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the free-living and small particle-associated at the offshore and coastal OMZ stations (Supplementary Table S5). Overall, the diversity of the free-living communities (mean of 1.30) was the highest

compared to that of small particle-associated and large particle-associated communities (mean of 0.90 and 1.01, respectively).

Microbial community composition along the vertical oxycline

The community composition of bacteria and archaea was significantly different between the different oxygen regimes (surface/oxic ($O_2 > 150 \mu M$), upper oxycline (detection limit $< O_2 < 150 \mu M$), anoxic ($O_2 < \text{detection limit}$), and lower oxycline ($O_2 < \text{detection limit}$ and below anoxic depths), PERMANOVA p-value = 0.0001, Supplementary Table S6). Temperature, the concentration of dissolved O_2 , nitrite (NO_2^-), and chlorophyll a significantly correlated with the prokaryotic community composition (Figure 4, Supplementary Table S7, Supplementary Figure S7, Supplementary Figure S8).

ASVs from Flavobacteriales, Planctomycetota, and Verrucomicrobiota were the key members that drove the differences in microbial community composition between different oxygen regimes (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S9). The NS4 and NS5 marine groups (Flavobacteriales), *Formosa* (Flavobacteriales), *Pirellula* (Planctomycetota), *Lentimonas* (Verrucomicrobiota), Kiritimatiellaceae (Verrucomicrobiota), and Marine Group II Archaea were enriched (up to 3.7%, 1.6%, 2.2%, 2.7%, 1.7%, 0.2%, and 10.9%, respectively) in the surface/oxic communities. In contrast, *Crocinitomix* (Flavobacteriales), Rhodobacteraceae (Alphaproteobacteria), NB1-j, Desulfobacterota, and Woeseearchaeales (Nanoarchaeota) were enriched (up to 1.1%, 1.9%, 2.0%, 2.3%, and 2.2%, respectively) in the upper oxycline and anoxic depth communities. Three lineages, including NS9 marine group (Flavobacteriales), Phycisphaeraceae (Planctomycetota) and *Roseibacillus* (Verrucomicrobiota) included ASVs

enriched in the surface/oxic communities and ASVs enriched at low-oxygen ($< 10 \mu\text{M}$) depths. One Methylomondaceae (Gammaproteobacteria) ASV and one OM190 Group (Planctomycetota) ASV were only detected in the lower oxycline (900 or 1000 m depth). In the coastal OMZ, where the depths of the oxycline (10 - 35 m) and the anoxic layer were shallow (starting at ~35 m, Figure 2), the prokaryotic community at the oxycline and anoxic depths included many ASVs also abundant at surface depths (Figure 5). Most of the lineages (34 out of 46) driving the difference in community composition between depths were higher in abundance in large and/or small particle-associated communities (Supplementary Figure S9).

Co-occurrence network analyses

MENAP constructed co-occurrence networks for each of the three size classes: free-living, small particle-associated, and large particle-associated, consisting of various nodes (ASVs), edges (links), and the percentage of positive edges (Table 2).

There are 13 modules present in the free-living network, which consists of ASVs from 12 different taxa (Figure 6, Supplementary Table S8). Alphaproteobacteria accounted for 41% of all ASVs in the free-living network, with SAR11 accounting for approximately 1/3 of all ASVs in the network. Eight ASVs were identified as putative keystone species ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$), including SAR11 clade I (Alphaproteobacteria, ASV6), SAR11 clade II (Alphaproteobacteria, ASV315 and ASV488), SAR86 clade (Gammaproteobacteria, ASV43 and ASV194), *Prochlorococcus* (Cyanobacteriota, ASV3), *Nitrospina* (Nitrospinota, ASV221), and MB11C04 marine group (Verrucomicrobiota, ASV857).

Seven modules were identified in the small particle-associated network, which included ten prokaryotic taxa and two fungal phyla (Ascomycota and Basidiomycota) (Figure 7, Supplementary Table S8). Alphaproteobacteria accounted for 1/3 of all ASVs in the small particle-associated network, with SAR11 accounting for approximately 31% of all ASVs present in the network, with the remaining Alphaproteobacteria belonging to Rhodospirillales. *Rhodotorula* (Basidiomycota, ASV-F1) and *Cladosporium* (Ascomycota, ASV-F74) had exclusively negative connections with prokaryotic nodes but were positively connected to each other (Figure 7). Five ASVs were identified as putative keystone species ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$), including SAR11 clade II (Alphaproteobacteria, ASV18 and ASV460), *Synechococcus* (Cyanobacteriota, ASV13), Chloroplast DNA (phototrophic eukaryotes, ASV74), and *Cladosporium* (Ascomycota, ASV-F74).

Two modules were identified in the large particle-associated network, which included ten prokaryotic taxa and one fungal phylum (Basidiomycota) (Figure 8, Supplementary Table S8). Gammaproteobacteria accounted for 24% of all ASVs in the large particle-associated network, with both Vibrionales and Alteromonadales each accounting for approximately 9% of all ASVs present in the network, with the remaining 6% Gammaproteobacteria belonging to Enterobacterales, Oceanospirillales, and Cellvibrionales. Five ASVs were identified as putative keystone species ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$), including Vibrionaceae (Gammaproteobacteria, ASV130), SAR11 clade I (Alphaproteobacteria, ASV10), *Winogradskyella* (Bacteroidota, ASV675), and Phycisphaeraceae (Planctomycetota, ASV468 and ASV388).

Discussion

Experimental biases

The large volume seawater filtration in this study (23 - 69 L, Supplementary Table S1) is typically not adopted by conventional methods without any size fractionation because the 0.22 μm filters would be clogged. The large volume of seawater filtered raised the probability for free-living microorganisms to be trapped with large particle-associated communities due to effective filter pore size reduction. However, the low relative abundance of known free-living taxa such as Nitrososphaerota in the large particle-associated communities (Figure 3, Supplementary Figure S10) indicates that there was minimal “cross-talking” or interference/mixing between filter sizes. On the other hand, the low relative abundance of known particle-associated taxa, such as Planctomycetota and Verrucomicrobiota in the free-living communities (Figure 3), suggests that the gentle filtration method we used minimized particle disintegration.

While the slow flow rate we used during sequential filtration was intended to keep the integrity of the particles, it resulted in long filtration duration for large volumes. At a flow rate of ~ 40 mL/min, it took between 10 and 29 hours to filter 23 – 69 L of seawater (Supplementary Table S1). Although the microbes were caught on one of the filters undergoing filtration at 4°C , which is an environment very different from *in situ* conditions, they could still grow in population size. While microbial growth rates vary depending on the lineage, most of them displayed a maximum growth rate less than 1 d^{-1} at temperatures more than 10°C higher than the filtration temperature we used in the field (Long *et al.* 2021). If the growth rate of microbes captured on filters scale with their maximum observed growth rate, then the community composition from our sequencing analysis may overrepresent fast-growing lineages such as Gammaproteobacteria (e.g.

Vibrionaceae). In the four samples collected from anoxic depths, obligate anaerobes, such as *Candidatus Methyloirabilis oxyfera* NC10, were not expected to grow as the filtration was conducted in air, and therefore they might be slightly underrepresented compared to facultative organisms.

Additionally, PCR protocols are known to introduce bias in metabarcoding studies (Silverman *et al.* 2021). Primers introduce some bias during the amplification step of PCR due to mismatches between the primer and the corresponding binding site (Read and Pietersen 2016). The primers used in this study (515F/806R) were from the Earth Microbiome Project (EMP) (Caporaso *et al.* 2012, 2018). However, a recent study found that the ubiquitous and abundant SAR11 clade and Marine Group I Nitrososphaerota were typically underestimated by the EMP primer pair (Parada *et al.* 2016). Therefore, we are aware that our results may underestimate the relative abundance of the SAR11 clade and Marine Group I Nitrososphaerota. Despite this caveat, both the SAR11 clade and Marine Group I Nitrososphaerota were one of the most abundant taxa in all samples, accounting for up to 30% of the total prokaryotic community.

Large volume filtration reveals previously overlooked large particle-associated communities

Most of the 46 most abundant ASVs that displayed significant variation in relative abundance along the oxycline were enriched in the large particle-associated communities (Figure 5). Many of these 46 ASVs, such as Verrucomicrobiota, Bacteroidota, and Planctomycetota, although previously reported in OMZs (Ganesh *et al.*, 2015; Suter *et al.*, 2018; Torres-Beltrán *et al.*, 2019), were not recognized as important drivers of community composition. We attribute these novel

insights in part to the application of the three-stage filtration we used to separate large particle-associated from small particle-associated and free-living communities.

In a previous study conducted at a coastal ETNP OMZ station near our coastal OMZ station that also used three size fractions (0.2, 1.6, and 30 μm) and the same EMP primer set (Ganesh et al., 2015), the relative abundance of Verrucomicrobiota, Bacteroidota, and Planctomycetota were lower than that in our coastal OMZ station while the relative abundance of Marinimicrobia (SAR406) were higher than that in our study. This difference was likely due to the difference in particle concentration in the water column, as the chlorophyll a concentration sampled by Ganesh and colleagues in June was an order of magnitude lower than that at the coastal OMZ in our study, which took place in April. The greater chlorophyll a concentration in our study likely resulted in much higher abundance of particles that supported the particle-associated lineages. Similarly, Station 2 in another study in the ETNP by Beman and colleagues (2021) was very close to our offshore OMZ Station, which were both sampled in April, but the maximum chlorophyll a concentration at our station was about three times as high as that in Beman et al. (2021). Typical particle-associated taxa such as Verrucomicrobiota and Planctomycetota were not even detected by Beman and colleagues (2021). This was unexpected because the maximum chlorophyll a concentration at Station 2 of the Beman et al. (2021) study was twice as high as what was reported for the coastal OMZ by Ganesh et al. (2015), so it is likely that the concentration of particulate organic matter was higher in the Beman et al. (2021) study than in the Ganesh et al. (2015) study. We interpret the lack of Verrucomicrobiota and Planctomycetota representation in the Beman et al. (2021) study as a result of “dilution effect” when particle-associated microbial communities were sampled along with free-living communities. The

application of three size fractions during filtration is necessary to reveal lineages associated with particles, which are hotspots for chemical transformations (Wright et al. 2012), and large phytoplankton such as diatoms that are known to host bacterial epibionts (Crenn, Duffieux and Jeanthon 2018).

The prokaryotic community composition in the water column redoxcline of the Cariaco Basin (8 or 12 L of seawater) partitioned into $> 2.7 \mu\text{m}$ and $0.2 - 2.7 \mu\text{m}$ fractions found Verrucomicrobiota, Planctomycetota, Bacteroidota, and Alteromonadales to be enriched in the $> 2.7 \mu\text{m}$ communities (Suter *et al.* 2018). Our study found the same lineages to be particle-associated, but particularly in the large particle-associated ($> 22 \mu\text{m}$) communities and less abundant in the small particle-associated ($2 - 22 \mu\text{m}$) communities (Figure 5, Supplementary Figures S1 – S4). Moreover, we found that the relative abundance of Verrucomicrobiota can reach 5 – 15% in large particle-associated and small particle-associated communities, whereas in the Cariaco Basin, Verrucomicrobiota was only 1 – 5% of the particle-associated ($> 2.7 \mu\text{m}$) community (Suter *et al.* 2018). Previous studies have found that Verrucomicrobiota, specifically MB11C04 marine group and Puniceicoccaceae, both of which are also found in our study, are specialist consumers of sulfated methyl pentose during diatom blooms (Orellana *et al.* 2022). This suggests that Verrucomicrobiota were particularly enriched on large ($> 22 \mu\text{m}$) particles, and filtration methods without including a large filter may underestimate their importance on large particles.

Prokaryotic community composition shifts along the redoxcline

The redoxcline in oceanic OMZs is known to shape microbial community assembly (Ulloa *et al.* 2012; Bertagnolli and Stewart 2018). This has been reported for the ETNP OMZ (Faull *et al.* 2020; Beman *et al.* 2021), and a recurring microbial community shift was observed across the transitional layers among all major oceanic OMZs, including the ETNP, the eastern tropical South Pacific (ETSP) (Ganesh *et al.* 2014), and the Arabian Sea (Fernandes, Shenoy and Damare 2020). Not only are our findings consistent with these previous reports, but we also identified the most abundant members that contributed to the distinction between the prokaryotic communities along the redoxcline (Figure 5). In this section, we highlight three taxa (Flavobacteriales, Verrucomicrobiota, and Planctomycetota) that demonstrated the strongest shift in their relative abundance along the redoxcline.

Flavobacteriales

Different lineages of Flavobacteriales were dominant along the ETNP redoxcline. *Formosa*, NS4, NS5, NS2b, and NS9 marine groups were primarily present and abundant in the mixed layer and largely absent in the oxycline and anoxic depths (Supplementary Figure S2) consistent with previous studies of the ETNP OMZ (Faull *et al.* 2020; Beman *et al.* 2021; Pajares 2021). Although uncultivated, *Formosa* and the NS4, NS5, NS2b, and NS9 marine groups of the Flavobacteriales are known degraders of large phytoplankton-derived biomass in the ocean (Teeling *et al.* 2016; Unfried *et al.* 2018). In all stations sampled, Flavobacteriales (except for NS5 marine group) were enriched in the large particle-associated size fraction, suggesting that the increased prevalence of these Flavobacteriales might correspond with the accessibility to a

source of larger phytoplankton biomass or zooplankton fecal pellets they typically degrade (Turner 2002), which were typically associated with the primary chlorophyll maximum.

Conversely, *Crocinitomix* was found nearly exclusively at oxycline/anoxic depths (Supplementary Figure S2). *Crocinitomix* has not been reported in previous studies conducted at the ETNP, ETSP, and the Arabian Sea OMZs. *Crocinitomix* cultivars are strict aerobes with restricted catabolic repertoire (Bowman 2015), so it was surprising to observe their apparent niche in the upper oxycline depths of the ETNP water column, as well as anoxic depths at the coastal station (Supplementary Figure S2). A recent study in the Namibian OMZ using DNA stable isotope probing found that *Crocinitomix* assimilated ^{13}C -labeled diatom exopolysaccharides at low-oxygen depths (down to $\sim 20 \mu\text{M O}_2$) and even in the anoxic sediments (Vuillemin, Coskun and Orsi 2022). These findings indicate a Flavobacteriales lineage previously overlooked in algal polysaccharide degradation in the absence of oxygen.

Verrucomicrobiota

Like Flavobacteriales, most lineages of Verrucomicrobiota were present and abundant in the surface ocean. However, three ASVs from the genus *Roseibacillus* were largely absent in the mixed layer and displayed a subsurface maximum near the oxic-anoxic interface (Supplementary Figure S3), which was near the maximum concentrations of N_2O (Supplementary Figure S8; Kelly et al. 2021). *Roseibacillus* was the most abundant and prevalent among the four Verrucomicrobiota genera found in the ETNP (Supplementary Figure S3). The *Roseibacillus* ASV7 was found in the top ten most abundant ASVs in all large particle-associated communities in the ETNP OMZ (Supplementary Table S9). In the large particle-associated communities,

network analysis identified many positive correlations between ASV7 and Cyanobacteriota (e.g. *Prochlorococcus* ASV5 and *Synechococcus* ASV13 and ASV59) and negative correlations between ASV7 and SAR11 (e.g. ASV12 and ASV40). This suggests *Roseibacillus* may benefit from carbon fixed by Cyanobacteriota while they may be competing for substrates with free-living heterotrophic bacteria such as SAR11. This is consistent with a prior hypothesis from a study using stable isotope probing that *Roseibacillus* acquire C and N by transporting the oligopeptides released through protein hydrolysis from extracellular enzymes manufactured by other bacteria (Orsi *et al.* 2016).

The coincidence of the subsurface maximum in the relative abundance of *Roseibacillus* and the maximum concentrations of N₂O (Kelly *et al.* 2021, Supplementary Figure S8) suggests a potential contribution by *Roseibacillus* to the formation of the subsurface N₂O maximum. The metagenome-assembled genomes of *Roseibacillus* from the ocean all possess the nitric oxide reductase gene (*norB*) (Tully, Graham and Heidelberg 2018; Chen *et al.* 2023; Mukherjee *et al.* 2023). We postulate that *Roseibacillus* contributes to N₂O production in the ETNP OMZ, fueled by carbon produced by Cyanobacteriota in the DCM and nitric oxide produced by nitrite-reducing bacteria such as Rhodospirillales and *Marinobacter* (Bandekar *et al.*, 2018). Future studies could test this hypothesis by measuring the abundance of *Roseibacillus norB* transcript and protein abundance using metatranscriptomics and metaproteomics.

Planctomycetota

In the ETNP OMZ, Planctomycetota were primarily associated with large particles, consistent with previous reports from low-oxygen regions of the ocean (Suter *et al.* 2018; Torres-Beltrán *et*

570 *al.* 2019). The two most abundant Planctomycetota taxa, OM190 group and Phycisphaerales
571 (Supplementary Figure S1), are known to be associated with macroalgae and capable of
572 degrading algal sulfated polysaccharides (Lage and Bondoso 2014). Algal sulfated
573 polysaccharides were also found in some microalgae, including diatoms and dinoflagellates
574 (Raposo, De Morais and Bernardo De Morais 2013). *Gyrodinium*, a dinoflagellate that produces
575 algal sulfated polysaccharides (Raposo, De Morais and Bernardo De Morais 2013), was found to
576 be enriched (between 30 – 40%) in the upper oxycline of the ETNP OMZ in the small (1.6 – 30
577 μm) and large particle-associated ($> 30 \mu\text{m}$) size fraction (Duret *et al.* 2015). The high relative
578 abundance of OM190 group and Phycisphaerales in the ETNP where macroalgae abundance is
579 low suggests that these Planctomycetota lineages may feed on biopolymers synthesized by
580 microalgae, such as *Gyrodinium*. Brocadiales, which includes anammox bacteria (e.g. *Scalindua*
581 and *Brocadia*), were the only Planctomycetota lineage that was primarily free-living
582 (Supplementary Figure S1). While the vertical sampling resolution in our study did not cover the
583 core of the anoxic layer, the maxima in the relative abundance of Brocadiales near the oxic-
584 anoxic interface at Stations 1 and 2 corresponded to elevated anammox rates measured during
585 the same cruise (Tracey *et al.* 2022). On the other hand, the relative abundance of Brocadiales
586 was very low at the coastal Station 3, corresponding to lower anammox rates than the offshore
587 stations, potentially because the high surface primary production favored denitrification over
588 anammox (Figure 2) (Tracey *et al.* 2022).

589

590 In addition to Flavobacteriales, Verrucomicrobiota, and Planctomycetota, other lineages that
591 marked a distinct shift along the redoxcline included Desulfobacterota (formerly under
592 Deltaproteobacteria), Marinimicrobia (formerly known as SAR406), and Gammaproteobacteria

(*Aquabacterium*, *Curvibacter*, and *Woeseia*) (Figure 5). These lineages potentially mediate key biogeochemical processes in the oxycline and the anoxic depths. For example, *Desulfobacterota* may be mediating sulfate reduction, nitrogen fixation, and dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia (DNRA) (Langwig *et al.* 2022), *Marinimicrobia* may be mediating partial denitrification (Bertagnolli *et al.* 2017; Hawley *et al.* 2017), and *Gammaproteobacteria* may be mediating denitrification (Patureau *et al.* 1994; Zielińska *et al.* 2016; Mußmann *et al.* 2017; Xu *et al.* 2022).

Insights from microbial co-occurrence network analyses

Microbial co-occurrence networks have become a staple tool among microbial ecologists to infer potential interactions between community members and aid in hypothesis generation (Banerjee, Schlaeppli and Van Der Heijden 2018; Röttgers and Faust 2018). Many tools have been developed and used broadly, such as SparCC (Friedman and Alm 2012), SpiecEasi (Kurtz *et al.* 2015), MENAP (Deng *et al.* 2012), and WGCNA (Langfelder and Horvath 2008). We selected MENAP for our analyses because it is robust to noise and it has been updated with the iDIRECT module that excels at detecting indirect interactions from networks (Xiao *et al.* 2022). The removal of indirect interactions between prokaryotic community members resulted in three networks with a smaller number of nodes and edges compared to many previously reported planktonic networks (Milici *et al.* 2016; Beman *et al.* 2021; Guo *et al.* 2022; Wu *et al.* 2022). Nevertheless, the microbial co-occurrence networks we reconstructed revealed previously overlooked potential interactions between prokaryotic members that potentially impact key biogeochemical processes in the ETNP OMZ.

616 The microbial communities from three size fractions formed networks distinct from each other,
617 with the largest number of nodes and the largest number of modules identified in the free-living
618 community and the largest number of potential interactions and smallest number of modules in
619 the large particle-associated community (Figure 6). This result is intuitive as the average physical
620 distance between any two free-living prokaryotic cells (464 μm in 1 ml of seawater containing
621 10^5 cells) is at least one order of magnitude higher than that between two prokaryotic cells
622 attached to large particles ($< 22 \mu\text{m}$), which translates to lower probability for two cells to
623 encounter in the free-living than the large particle-associated community. Most of the
624 correlations (57%) in the free-living community were positive, whereas a smaller percentage of
625 correlations in the small particle-associated (48%) and large particle-associated (46%)
626 communities were positive. We interpret this as greater competition for substrates among
627 prokaryotic community members on large and small particles than their free-living counterparts.
628

629 In all three networks, putative keystone species included SAR11 (both Clades I and II),
630 consistent with their role as the most abundant heterotrophic prokaryotes in the world's oceans
631 (Vaulot *et al.* 1995; Partensky, Hess and Vaulot 1999; Giovannoni 2017). Most of the SAR11
632 subclades (i.e. clade Ia, Ib, and II) are present in all depths sampled. However, SAR11 subclades
633 showed distinct depth distribution patterns in the majority of samples throughout the ETNP
634 OMZ, with clades Ia and II dominating in the surface, oxic environment, and clade Ib increasing
635 in relative abundance at the oxycline and anoxic depths (Supplementary Figure S11). The
636 distribution of these different SAR11 ecotypes is consistent with previous studies of the ETSP
637 (Wright, Konwar and Hallam 2012; Aldunate *et al.* 2018). *Prochlorococcus*, *Synechococcus*, and
638 chloroplast DNA (classified as uncultured marine eukaryotes) were identified as putative

keystone species in the free-living and small particle-associated networks, consistent with their role as the most abundant photoautotrophic prokaryotes in the world's oceans (Vaulot *et al.* 1995; Partensky, Hess and Vaulot 1999; Giovannoni 2017). Both *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* were a significant part of the prokaryotic communities at all size fractions, each accounting for up to ~20% by relative abundance (Supplementary Figure S12). As the primary photoautotroph in the ETNP OMZ, the high connectedness of Cyanobacteriotal ASVs underscores their essential role in the food web as well as their contribution to oxygen production in the DCM, which fuels microaerophilic processes, including nitrification and denitrification (Garcia-Robledo *et al.* 2017).

In free-living communities, many positive correlations are between Cyanobacteriota (i.e. *Synechococcus* and chloroplast DNA) and SAR11 clade I (Figure 6). SAR86 (identified as a putative keystone species, ASV43) also had positive correlations with Cyanobacteriota (i.e. *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus*). SAR86 are prevalent in oxic waters above the ETNP OMZ and positively correlated with oxygen concentration (Guo *et al.* 2022), similar to the distribution of Cyanobacteriota (Figure 3). These positive correlations suggest that SAR86 and SAR11 may have a shared niche with Cyanobacteriota or benefit from the carbon fixed and released by Cyanobacteriota. On the other hand, negative correlations between chloroplast DNA (potentially unclassified photosynthetic picoeukaryotes) and a few heterotrophic ASVs, such as SAR324 and the AEGEAN-169 marine group (Rhodospirillales), suggest varying niches or potential competition for nutrients such as fixed nitrogen used for denitrification or fermentation of organic matter (Mulla *et al.* 2018; Bandekar *et al.*, 2018; Lüke *et al.*, 2016). These inferred

interactions between phytoplankton and heterotrophic bacteria require further experimentation to be verified.

The small particle-associated (2 – 22 μm) network included seven modules with the fewest identified nodes and connections. Two fungal ASVs (*Rhodotorula sp.* (Basidiomycota, ASV-F1) and *Cladosporium sp.* (Ascomycota, ASV-F74) from the same filters (Peng and Valentine 2021) were included in the small particle-associated network (Figure 7). The *Cladosporium sp.* ASV (ASV-F74) was identified as a putative keystone species (Supplementary Table S10), with a positive correlation with *Rhodotorula sp.* and a negative correlation with SAR11. *Cladosporium sp.* is a cosmopolitan and diverse hyphomycete genus found commonly in all environments (Bensch *et al.* 2012; Peng *et al.* 2021). *Cladosporium sp.* was found predominantly in the large particle-associated size fraction in the ETNP OMZ (Peng and Valentine 2021). *Cladosporium* can degrade a wide range of substrates including polymeric organic matter, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, and polyurethane (Birolli *et al.* 2018; Masigol *et al.* 2019; Zhang *et al.* 2022). Marine *Cladosporium* has been found to produce secondary metabolites (Lee *et al.* 2023), which can be deployed in interspecies competition. *Rhodotorula sp.* is prevalent and abundant in the ETNP, specifically in the free-living size fraction (Peng and Valentine 2021) and Arabian Sea OMZ (Fell 1967). The positive connection between *Rhodotorula sp.* and *Cladosporium sp.* suggests that they have a shared niche in the ocean.

The large particle-associated (> 22 μm) network consisted of the largest number of edges connecting them, but only three modules were identified by our network analysis, and the average path distance was the lowest (Supplementary Table S8), suggesting either bacteria/fungi

684 being attached to the same particle or close interactions between microbes in large particle-
685 associated communities. In contrast to free-living and small particle-associated networks,
686 alphaproteobacterial ASVs were no longer the dominant taxa, as there were more ASVs from
687 Gammaproteobacteria and Bacteroidota included in the large particle-associated network than
688 Alphaproteobacterial ASVs (Figure 8). This shift in the network community composition is
689 consistent with the shift in the overall microbial community composition from free-living to
690 particle-associated size fractions discussed above (Figure 5). The two most abundant
691 Gammaproteobacterial taxa in the large particle-associated network were Alteromonadales and
692 Vibrionales (Figure 8), which included one putative keystone species (Supplementary Table
693 S10), ASV130 (*Vibrionaceae*). Alteromonadales are known to use phytoplankton-derived
694 polysaccharide microgels (Taylor & Cunliffe, 2017), and they contribute to carbon cycling in
695 both free-living and particle-associated fractions at suboxic ($[O_2] < 5 \mu M$) depths of OMZs
696 (Henríquez-Castillo *et al.* 2022). *Vibrionaceae* (Order: Vibrionales, Class:
697 Gammaproteobacteria) is ubiquitous in coastal and open oceans (Moi *et al.* 2017). We
698 hypothesize that in the ETNP OMZ, the putative keystone *Vibrionaceae* (ASV130,
699 Supplementary Table S10) contributes to nitrogen fixation, as isolated strains of Vibrionales are
700 known nitrogen fixers (Tibbles and Rawlings 1994; Cheung *et al.* 2016), and the nitrogenase
701 gene from *Vibrio* is prevalent and abundant in both the oligotrophic and coastal oceans (Zehr,
702 Mellon and Zani 1998). *Rhodotorula sp.* (ASV-F1) was positively connected with other
703 *Rhodotorula sp.* (ASV-F4) and Rhodospirillales (Alphaproteobacteria), suggesting these
704 organisms are growing on the same particle or shared niche between the same fungal genus and
705 some Alphaproteobacteria. *Rhodotorula sp.* negatively connected with SAR11, Vibrionales, and

SAR324, suggesting that marine fungi and these bacteria may compete for substrates on large particles or have varying niches (Supplementary Figures S13 – 14).

Conclusions

In this study, large volumes (23 - 69 L, Supplementary Table S1) were filtered through three size fractions (0.22 μm , 2.0 μm , and 22 μm) to separate both small and large particle-associated microbes from free-living microbial communities from the eastern tropical North Pacific (ETNP) OMZ. By sequencing and analyzing the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene from all three size fractions, we revealed previously overlooked lineages that drive the differences in community composition between different size fractions and under different oxygen levels. ASVs from Flavobacteriales, Planctomycetota, and Verrucomicrobiota were the key members that drove the differences in microbial community composition between different oxygen regimes. As these lineages have been reported as particle-associated microbes, we found Flavobacteriales, Planctomycetota, and Verrucomicrobiota to have a higher relative abundance than previously reported in the ETNP OMZ. By including previously published fungal community composition data in network analyses, we identified both prokaryotic and fungal (*Cladosporium* (Ascomycota)) putative keystone species that likely play an important role in OMZ biogeochemistry. The network analyses at these three size fractions suggest that potential interactions between fungi and prokaryotes in the ocean take place primarily on particles. Our findings provide a rich resource for generating hypotheses regarding microbial interactions in oceanic OMZs.

727

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1022

1023 **Data availability**

1024 The code, including a metadata sample, is available in the following repository:
1025 https://github.com/mthompson19/ETNP2018_16s. Raw reads generated in this study are
1026 available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under BioProject
1027 PRJNA911303.

1028

1029 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure captions For Figures 1-8

Figure 1: Location of Station 1 (the peripheral OMZ, 247°E, 10°N), Station 2 (the offshore OMZ, 255°E, 15.76°N), and Station 3 (the coastal OMZ, 257.65°E, 17.68°N), and oxygen concentrations at 150 m in the Eastern tropical north pacific (ETNP) oxygen minimum zone (OMZ).

Figure 2: Oxygen Concentrations, Chlorophyll a, and sigma-theta at Station 1 (the peripheral OMZ; A), Station 2 (the offshore OMZ; B), and Station 3 (the coastal OMZ; C) in the eastern tropical North Pacific (ETNP) oxygen minimum zone (OMZ). Nitrite (NO_2^-), nitrate (NO_3^-), and ammonium (NH_4^+) at the sampling depths at Station 1 (the peripheral OMZ, D), Station 2 (the offshore OMZ), E), and Station 3 (the coastal OMZ, F). NH_4^+ and NO_2^- concentration profiles were adapted from Travis et al. (2022). Red diamonds represent the sampling depth at each station. The dashed line indicates the mixed layer depth.

Figure 3: The relative abundance of the 1100 most abundant prokaryotic amplicon sequence variant (ASV) in A) Station 1 free-living, B) Station 1 small particle-associated, C) Station 1 filter large particle-associated, D) Station 2 free-living, E) Station 2 small particle-associated, F) Station 2 large particle-associated, G) Station 3 free-living, H) Station 3 small particle-associated, I) Station 3 large particle-associated in the ETNP OMZ. The large particle-associated sample from 70 m at Station 3 (marked as “NA”) yielded < 20 raw sequencing reads and was excluded from the analysis.

Figure 4: Distance triplot of redundancy analysis (RDA) on prokaryotic community composition in free-living, small particle-associated, and large particle-associated communities from the ETNP OMZ, using dissolved oxygen (O_2), ammonium concentration (NH_4^+), nitrite concentration (NO_2^-), temperature, and chlorophyll a concentration (approximated by fluorescence measured by a Seapoint chlorophyll fluorometer) as explanatory variables. Concentrations of each physicochemical variable at each depth are described in Supplementary Table S11. The blue arrows are the vectors of the explanatory variables. Circles represent samples from the coastal OMZ, triangles represent samples from the offshore OMZ, and squares represent samples from the peripheral OMZ. Each symbol was color shaded by the different oxygen regimes (surface/oxic ($O_2 > 150 \mu M$), upper oxycline (detection limit $< O_2 < 150 \mu M$), anoxic ($O_2 < \text{detection limit}$), and lower oxycline ($O_2 < \text{detection limit}$ and below anoxic depths)). The size of each symbol is dependent on the size fraction.

Figure 5. The normalized (by trimmed mean of M values) abundance (counts per million calculated by EdgeR) of 46 most abundant amplicon sequence variants (rows) that were differentially abundant between surface, upper oxycline and anoxic depths, and lower oxycline (L.O.) depths in all samples (columns) collected from the ETNP OMZ in the free-living (FL), small particle-associated (SPA), and large particle-associated (LPA) size fractions.

Figure 6: Co-occurrence network interactions of free-living microbes in the ETNP OMZ. Each node is labeled with an ASV code. The area of each node, which represents an amplicon sequence variant (ASV), is proportional to the non-transformed relative abundance of that ASV (the smallest node (ASV2049) has a relative abundance of 0.0000309%, and the largest node (ASV2) has a relative abundance of 0.0233%). Positive interactions are shown in red and

negative ones in blue. A teal outline around the symbol highlights ASVs identified as putative keystone species ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$).

Figure 7: Co-occurrence network interactions of small particle-associated microbes in the ETNP OMZ. Each node is labeled with an ASV code. The area of each node, which represents a prokaryotic or fungal amplicon sequence variant (ASV), is proportional to the non-transformed relative abundance of that ASV (the smallest node (ASV370) has a relative abundance of 0.000348%, and the largest node (ASV2) has a relative abundance of 0.023%). Positive interactions are shown in red and negative ones in blue. A teal outline around the symbol highlights ASVs identified as putative network hubs ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$).

Figure 8: Co-occurrence network interactions of large particle-associated microbes in the ETNP OMZ. Each node is labeled with an ASV code. The area of each node, which represents a prokaryotic or fungal amplicon sequence variant (ASV), is proportional to the non-transformed relative abundance of that ASV (the smallest node (ASV1040) has a relative abundance of 0.0000956%, and the largest node (ASV4) has a relative abundance of 0.0148%). Positive interactions are shown in red and negative ones in blue. A teal outline around the symbol highlights ASVs identified as putative network hubs ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$).

Table 1: Filtration volumes, size fractions, and their respective study from the three main OMZs (ETNP, ETSP, and the Arabian Sea).

Site	Filtration volume (L)	Size fractions used	Reference
Eastern tropical North Pacific (ETNP)	23 - 69	0.22 µm, 2 µm, and 22 µm	This study
	23 - 55	0.22 µm, 2 µm, and 22 µm	Peng & Valentine, 2021
	10	0.2 µm	Beman & Carolan, 2013
	2	0.2 µm	Beman et al., 2021
	2.5	0.2 µm	Carolan et al., 2015
	2 – 5	0.2 µm and 2.7 µm	Faull et al., 2020
	10 – 15	0.2 µm and 1.6 µm	Ganesh et al., 2015
Eastern tropical South Pacific (ETSP)	1.2	0.2 µm	Pajares et al., 2020
	10	0.2 µm and 3 µm	Galán et al., 2009
	10	0.2 µm, 5 µm, and 20 µm	Molina et al., 2007
	10	0.2 µm and 1.6 µm	Ganesh et al., 2014
Arabian Sea	10	0.2 µm and 3 µm	Stevens & Ulloa, 2008
	2.5	0.2 µm	Bandekar et al., 2016
	2.5	0.2 µm	Bandekar et al., 2018
	5	0.2 µm	Fernandes et al. 2019
	10	0.2 µm	Fernandes et al., 2020
	2	0.2 µm	Rajpathak et al., 2018
	2.5	0.2 µm	Rangamaran et al., 2023

1103 **Table 2:** Free-living, small particle-associated, and large particle-associated networks and their
1104 respective number of nodes (ASVs), edges (links), and positive edges (%).

Co-occurrence network size fraction	Number of ASVs (nodes)	Number of edges	Positive edges (%)
Free-living	132	232	56.5
Small particle- associated	51	79	48.1
Large particle- associated	68	687	46.0

1105

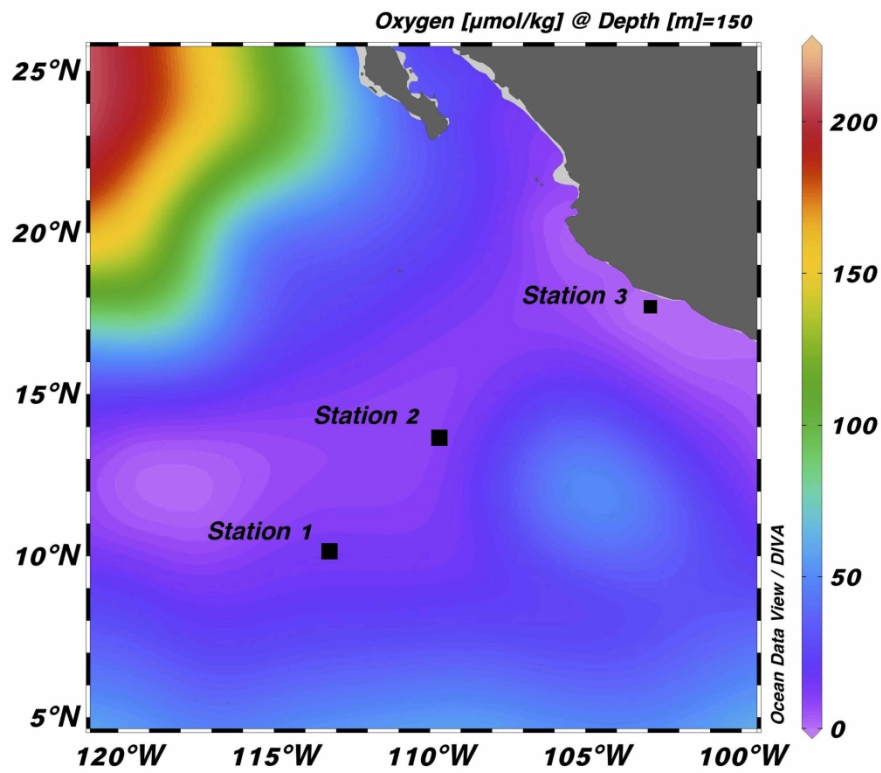


Figure 1: Location of Station 1 (the peripheral OMZ, 247°E, 10°N), Station 2 (the offshore OMZ, 255°E, 15.76°N), and Station 3 (the coastal OMZ, 257.65°E, 17.68°N), and oxygen concentrations at 150 m in the Eastern tropical north pacific (ETNP) oxygen minimum zone (OMZ).

279x215mm (300 x 300 DPI)

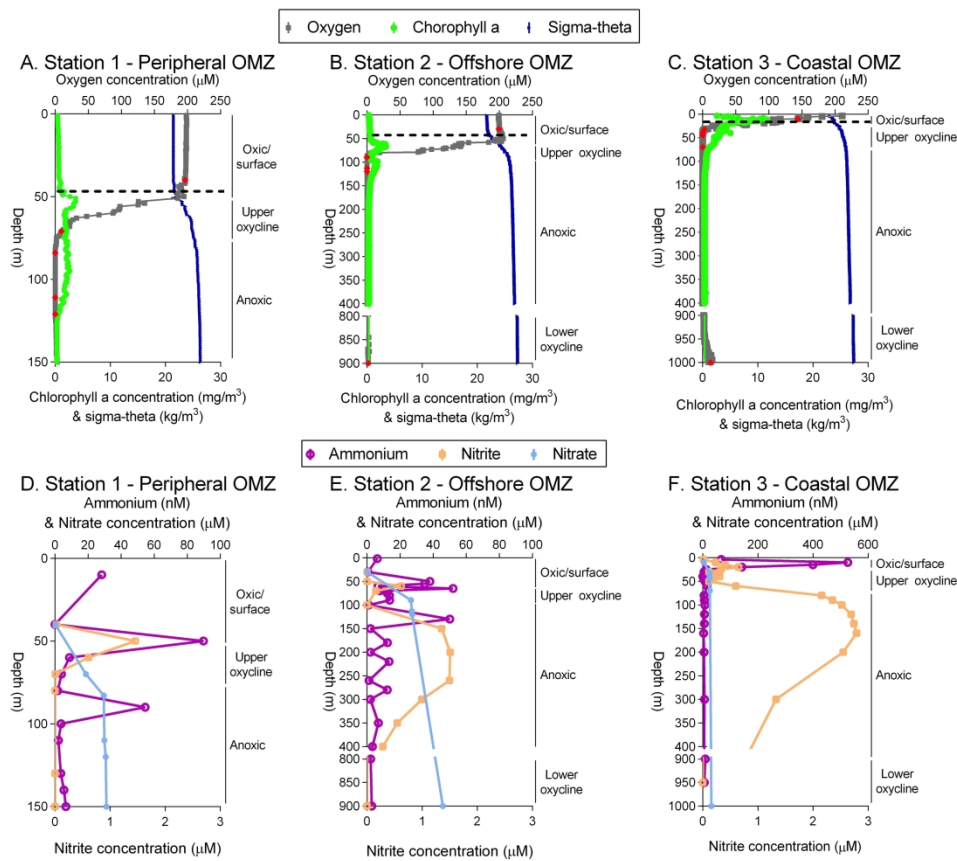


Figure 2: Oxygen Concentrations, Chlorophyll a, and sigma-theta at Station 1 (the peripheral OMZ; A), Station 2 (the offshore OMZ; B), and Station 3 (the coastal OMZ; C) in the eastern tropical North Pacific (ETNP) oxygen minimum zone (OMZ). Nitrite (NO_2^-), nitrate (NO_3^-), and ammonium (NH_4^+) at the sampling depths at Station 1 (the peripheral OMZ, D), Station 2 (the offshore OMZ, E), and Station 3 (the coastal OMZ, F). NH_4^+ and NO_2^- concentration profiles were adapted from Travis et al. (2022). Red diamonds represent the sampling depth at each station. The dashed line indicates the mixed layer depth.

245x219mm (300 x 300 DPI)

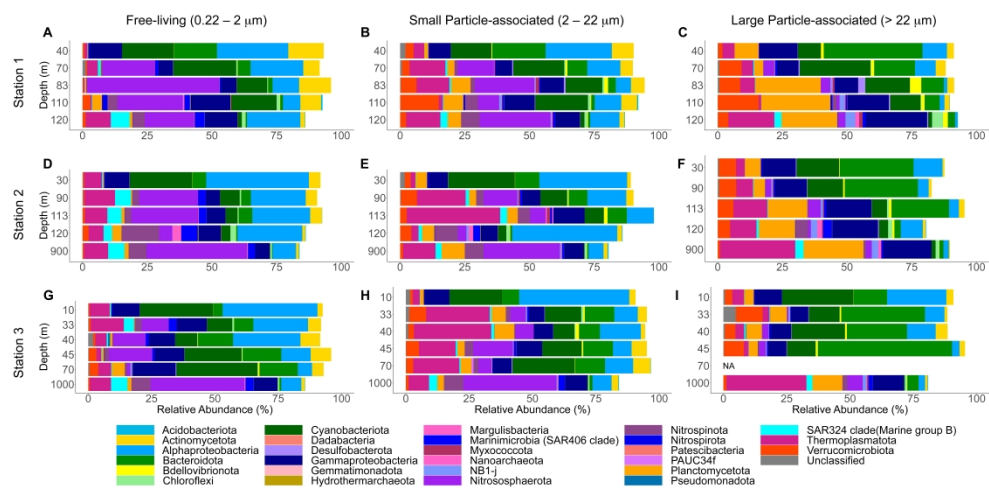


Figure 3: The relative abundance of the 1100 most abundant prokaryotic amplicon sequence variant (ASV) in A) Station 1 free-living, B) Station 1 small particle-associated, C) Station 1 filter large particle-associated, D) Station 2 free-living, E) Station 2 small particle-associated, F) Station 2 large particle-associated, G) Station 3 free-living, H) Station 3 small particle-associated, I) Station 3 large particle-associated in the ETNP OMZ. The large particle-associated sample from 70 m at Station 3 (marked as "NA") yielded < 20 raw sequencing reads and was excluded from the analysis.

1311x650mm (600 x 600 DPI)

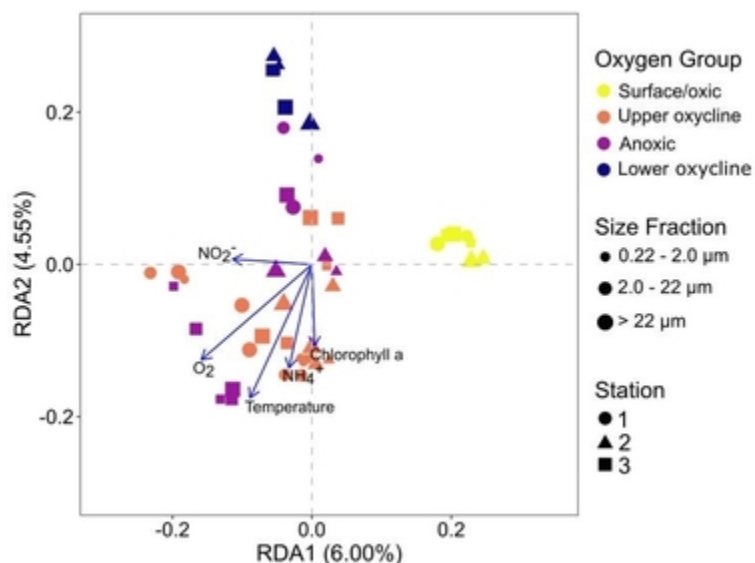


Figure 4: Distance triplot of redundancy analysis (RDA) on prokaryotic community composition in free-living, small particle-associated, and large particle-associated communities from the ETNP OMZ, using dissolved oxygen (O_2), ammonium concentration (NH_4^+), nitrite concentration (NO_2^-), temperature, and chlorophyll a concentration (approximated by fluorescence measured by a Seapoint chlorophyll fluorometer) as explanatory variables. Concentrations of each physicochemical variable at each depth are described in Supplementary Table S11. The blue arrows are the vectors of the explanatory variables. Circles represent samples from the coastal OMZ, triangles represent samples from the offshore OMZ, and squares represent samples from the peripheral OMZ. Each symbol was color shaded by the different oxygen regimes (surface/oxic ($\text{O}_2 > 150 \mu\text{M}$), upper oxycline (detection limit $< \text{O}_2 < 150 \mu\text{M}$), anoxic ($\text{O}_2 < \text{detection limit}$), and lower oxycline ($\text{O}_2 < \text{detection limit}$ and below anoxic depths)). The size of each symbol is dependent on the size fraction.

32x23mm (300 x 300 DPI)

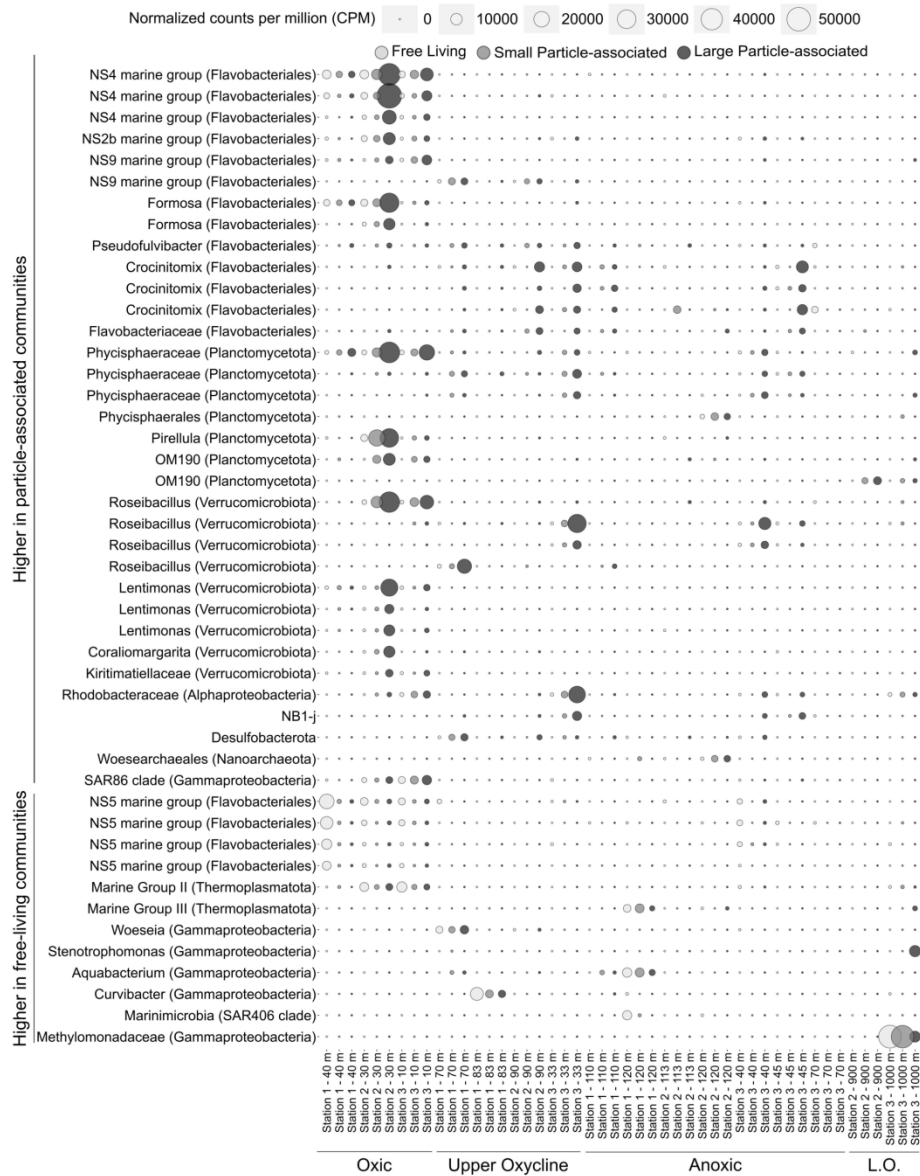


Figure 5. The normalized (by trimmed mean of M values) abundance (counts per million calculated by EdgeR) of 46 most abundant amplicon sequence variants (rows) that were differentially abundant between surface, upper oxycline and anoxic depths, and lower oxycline (L.O.) depths in all samples (columns) collected from the ETNP OMZ in the free-living (FL), small particle-associated (SPA), and large particle-associated (LPA) size fractions.

174x223mm (300 x 300 DPI)

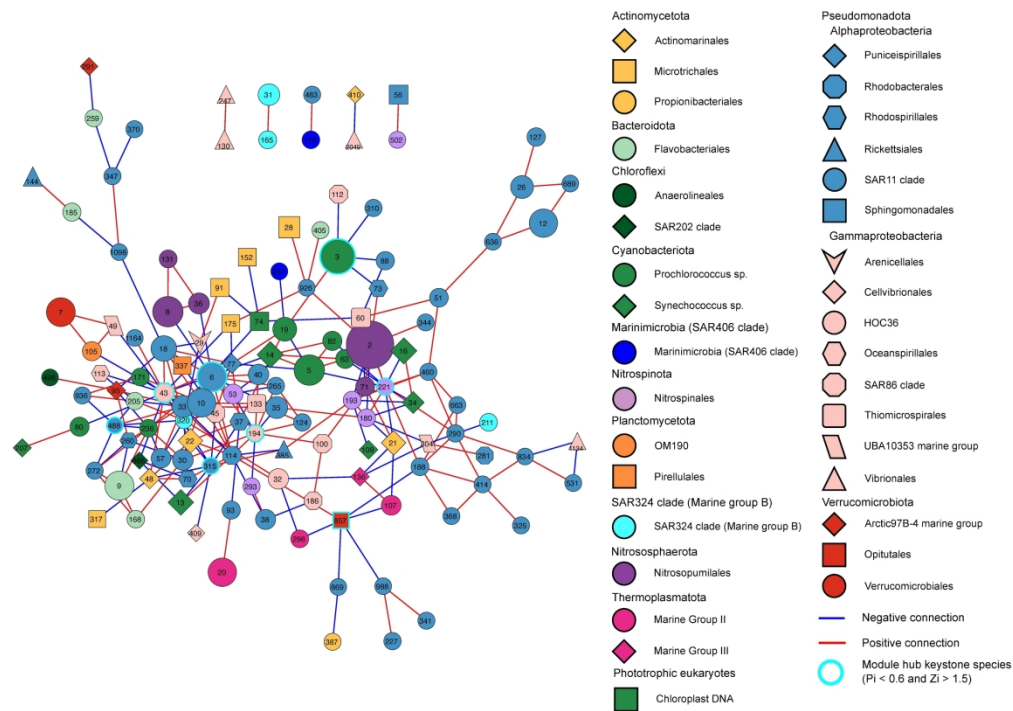


Figure 6: Co-occurrence network interactions of free-living microbes in the ETNP OMZ. Each node is labeled with an ASV code. The area of each node, which represents an amplicon sequence variant (ASV), is proportional to the non-transformed relative abundance of that ASV (the smallest node (ASV2049) has a relative abundance of 0.0000309%, and the largest node (ASV2) has a relative abundance of 0.0233%). Positive interactions are shown in red and negative ones in blue. A teal outline around the symbol highlights ASVs identified as putative keystone species ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$).

256x179mm (300 x 300 DPI)

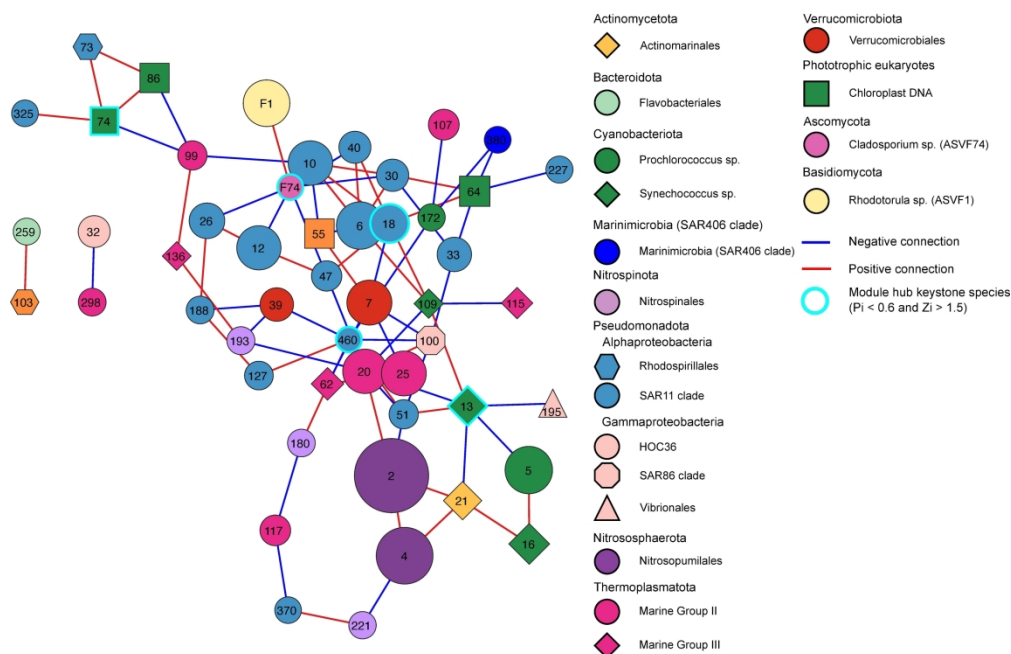


Figure 7: Co-occurrence network interactions of small particle-associated microbes in the ETNP OMZ. Each node is labeled with an ASV code. The area of each node, which represents a prokaryotic or fungal amplicon sequence variant (ASV), is proportional to the non-transformed relative abundance of that ASV (the smallest node (ASV370) has a relative abundance of 0.000348%, and the largest node (ASV2) has a relative abundance of 0.023%). Positive interactions are shown in red and negative ones in blue. A teal outline around the symbol highlights ASVs identified as putative network hubs ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$).

265x171mm (300 x 300 DPI)

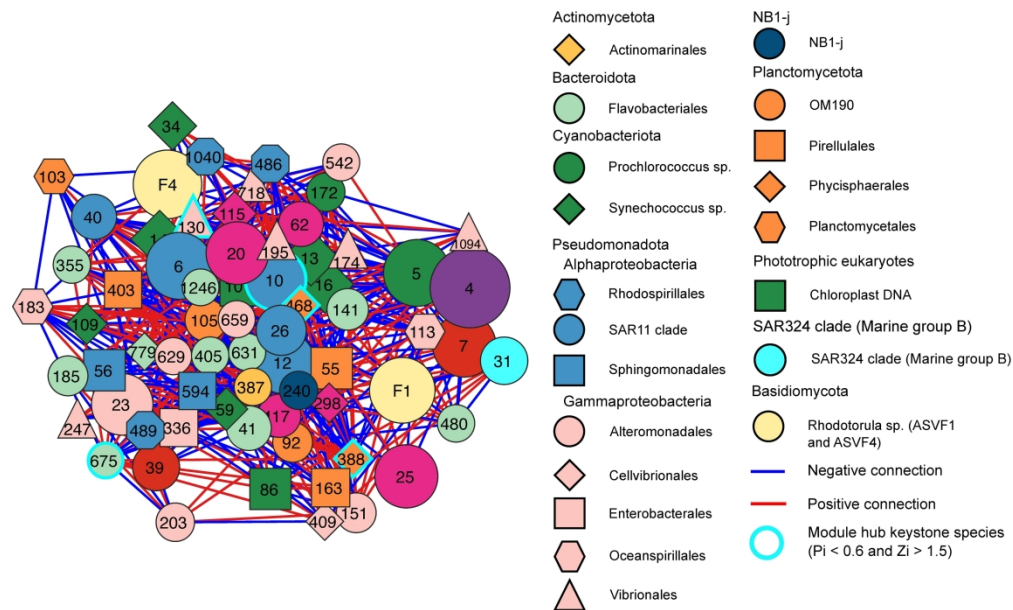


Figure 8: Co-occurrence network interactions of large particle-associated microbes in the ETNP OMZ. Each node is labeled with an ASV code. The area of each node, which represents a prokaryotic or fungal amplicon sequence variant (ASV), is proportional to the non-transformed relative abundance of that ASV (the smallest node (ASV1040) has a relative abundance of 0.0000956%, and the largest node (ASV4) has a relative abundance of 0.0148%). Positive interactions are shown in red and negative ones in blue. A teal outline around the symbol highlights ASVs identified as putative network hubs ($Z_i > 1.5$ and $P_i < 0.6$).

298x178mm (300 x 300 DPI)