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Disentangling microbial networks across pelagic zones in the global ocean

Ina M. Deutschmann^{1*}, Erwan Delage^{2,3}, Caterina R. Giner¹, Marta Sebastián¹, Julie Poulain⁴,
Javier Arístegui⁵, Carlos M. Duarte⁶, Silvia G. Acinas¹, Ramon Massana¹, Josep M. Gasol¹,
Damien Eveillard^{2,3}, Samuel Chaffron^{2,3} and Ramiro Logares^{1*}

¹Institute of Marine Sciences (ICM), CSIC, Passeig Marítim de la Barceloneta, 37-49, 08003, Barcelona, Spain.

²Nantes Université, CNRS UMR 6004, LS2N, F-44000, 2 rue de la Houssinière, 44322, Nantes, France.

³Research Federation for the study of Global Ocean Systems Ecology and Evolution, FR2022 / Tara Oceans GOSEE, 3 rue Michel-Ange, 75016 Paris, France.

⁴Génomique Métabolique, Genoscope, Institut François Jacob, CEA, CNRS, Univ Evry, Université Paris-Saclay, Evry, France.

⁵Instituto de Oceanografía y Cambio Global, IOCAG, Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, ULPGC, Gran Canaria, Spain.

⁶King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST), Red Sea Research Center (RSRC), Thuwal, Saudi Arabia.

*Corresponding authors: Ina Maria Deutschmann (ina.m.deutschmann@gmail.com) and Ramiro Logares (ramiro.logares@icm.csic.es)

Short title: Marine microbial networks across space

34 **Abstract**

35 Microbial interactions underpin ocean ecosystem function, but they remain barely known. Multiple
36 studies have analyzed microbial interactions using static association networks based on omics data,
37 yet microbial interactions are dynamic and can change across spatiotemporal scales. Understanding
38 the dynamics of microbial interactions is needed for a better comprehension of ocean ecosystems.
39 Here, we explored associations between archaea, bacteria, and picoeukaryotes along the water
40 column, from the surface to the deep ocean, across the northern subtropical to the southern
41 temperate ocean and the Mediterranean Sea by defining sample-specific subnetworks, which
42 allowed us to examine changes in microbial associations across space. We found that associations
43 tend to change with depth as well as with geographical scale, with a few associations being global
44 (i.e., present across regions within the same depth layer) and 11-36% being regional within specific
45 water layers. The lowest fraction of global associations was found in the bathypelagic zone, while
46 associations restricted to certain regions increased with depth. The majority of associations
47 observed in surface waters disappeared with depth, suggesting that surface ocean associations are
48 not transferred to the deep sea, despite microbial sinking. Altogether, our results suggest that
49 microbial associations have highly heterogeneous distributions in the horizontal and vertical
50 dimensions of the ocean and that such distributions do not mirror taxonomic distributions. Our work
51 contributes to better understand the dynamics of microbial interactions in the global ocean, which
52 is urgently needed in a context of global change.

53 INTRODUCTION

54 Microorganisms play fundamental roles in ocean ecosystem functioning and global biogeochemical
55 cycles (1–3). The main processes shaping microbial community composition are selection,
56 dispersal, and drift (4). Selection exerted via environmental heterogeneity and biotic interactions is
57 essential in structuring the ocean microbiome (5), leading to heterogeneities in community
58 composition that can reflect those found in the ocean, normally related with temperature, light,
59 pressure, nutrients, and salinity. Global-scale studies of the surface ocean reported strong
60 associations between microbial community composition and temperature (5–8). Marked changes
61 in microbial communities with depth have also been reported (9–14), reflecting the steep vertical
62 gradients in light, temperature, nutrients and pressure.

63 Prokaryotes (bacteria and archaea) and unicellular eukaryotes are fundamentally different
64 in terms of ecological roles, functional versatility, and evolutionary history (15) and are connected
65 through biogeochemical and food web interaction networks (16,17). Still, our knowledge about
66 their ecological interactions remains limited, even though these interactions sustain marine food
67 webs and contribute to nutrient recycling in the oceans (3,18). Microbial interactions are very
68 difficult to resolve experimentally, mainly because most microorganisms are hard to cultivate
69 (19,20) and synthetic laboratory communities are unlikely to mirror the complexity of wild
70 communities. However, association networks inferred from omics data have the potential to unravel
71 microbial interactions.

72 Microbial association networks are normally based on abundance data, representing
73 putative ecological interactions that need to be confirmed via laboratory experiments. Yet,
74 association networks are one of the best available tools to start addressing the huge complexity of
75 microbial interactions. Association networks can provide a general overview of the potential
76 microbial interactions in the ocean aggregated over a given period of time (9,10,21–25) or through
77 space (26–28). Previous work investigated marine microbial associations within and across depths.

78 For example, prokaryotic associations were investigated in the San Pedro Channel, off the coast of
79 Los Angeles, California, covering the water column from the surface (5 m) to the seafloor (890 m)
80 (9,10). Furthermore, a global survey from the TARA Oceans expedition investigated planktonic
81 associations between a range of organismal size fractions in the epipelagic zone (26), from pole to
82 pole (28). However, these studies did not include the bathypelagic realm below 1000 m depth,
83 which represents the largest microbial habitat in the biosphere (29).

84 Most studies so far have investigated microbial associations in the ocean using static
85 networks determined from spatially distributed samples, which capture global, regional and local
86 associations in a single network. Furthermore, given that global-ocean expeditions collect samples
87 over several months, networks must include some temporal associations, yet disentangling them
88 from spatial associations is challenging. Spatially widespread or global associations may be part of
89 the core microbiome defined as the set of interacting microbes essential for the functioning of the
90 ocean ecosystem (30). Core associations may be detected by constructing a single network from
91 numerous locations and identifying the most significant and strongest associations (31). In turn,
92 regional or local associations may reflect interactions occurring in specific locations due to taxa
93 distributions resulting from abiotic or biotic environmental selection, or dispersal limitation.
94 Regional networks could also contribute to determine associations that are stable (i.e., two partners
95 always together) or variable (one partner able to interact with multiple partners across locations).
96 The fraction of regional associations may be determined by excluding all samples belonging to one
97 region, recomputing network inference with the reduced dataset, and examining which associations
98 are missing (26). Alternatively, regional networks are computed considering samples belonging to
99 the regions, allowing to determine both global and regional associations (32) by investigating which
100 edges are common and which are unique.

101 Regional networks, however, require a high number of samples per delineated zone and
102 these may not be available due to logistic or budgetary limitations. Recent approaches circumvent

103 this limitation by deriving sample-specific subnetworks from a single static, i.e., all-sample
104 network, which allows quantifying association recurrence over spatiotemporal scales (28,33). Here,
105 we adjusted the approach to determine global and regional associations along vertical and
106 horizontal pelagic ocean scales, which allowed us determining a biogeography of marine microbial
107 associations. We analyzed associations between archaea, bacteria, and picoeukaryotes using a
108 unique dataset including 397 samples covering the water column, from surface to deep waters, in
109 the Mediterranean Sea (hereafter MS) and five ocean basins: North and South Atlantic Ocean, North
110 and South Pacific Ocean, and Indian Ocean (hereafter NAO, SAO, NPO, SPO, and IO) (Figure 1).
111 Our exploration of the variation of subnetworks across regions and depths allowed us to determine
112 widespread associations as well as local associations that seem to be only present in specific
113 locations or depths.

114 **RESULTS**

115 *Network architecture changed along the water column*

116 Microbial dispersal as well as vertical and horizontal environmental heterogeneity are expected to
117 affect network topologies. Yet, we have a limited understanding on how much marine microbial
118 networks change due to these processes, and analyzing the topology of subnetworks from specific
119 ocean regions and depths is a first step to address this issue. We generated 397 sample-specific
120 subnetworks and compared them across the regions and depth layers using eight network metrics
121 (see Methods). We found that network metrics change along the water column (Supplementary
122 Figure 1). As a general trend, subnetworks from deeper zones were more clustered (transitivity),
123 had higher average path length, featured stronger associations (average positive association scores),
124 and lower assortativity (based on degree) compared to those in surface waters. Most subnetworks
125 from the Deep Chlorophyll Maximum (DCM) and bathypelagic zones had the highest edge density,
126 i.e., highest node connectivity. In contrast, in the MS, the surface subnetworks had the highest node
127 connectivity (Supplementary Figure 1).

128

129 *Only a few global associations*

130 We computed the spatial recurrence, i.e., prevalence, of each association as the fraction of
131 subnetworks in which a given association was present across all 397 subnetworks (Figure 2A) and
132 within each region-depth-layer combination (Figure 2B). The global ocean surface layer
133 (contributing 40% of the samples) had more associations compared to the other depths (Figure 2B).
134 Remarkably, 14,971 out of 18,234 (82.1%) surface ocean associations detected in the basins were
135 absent in the MS. In turn, the number of surface associations was similar across the five ocean
136 basins (Figure 2B).

137 Highly prevalent associations present across all regions are candidates to represent putative
138 core interactions in the global ocean, likely performing processes crucial for ecosystem function.

139 We defined global associations as those appearing in more than 70% of the subnetworks in each
140 region. In addition, we resolved prevalent ($\leq 70\%$ and $> 50\%$) and low-frequency ($\leq 50\%$ and $> 20\%$)
141 associations. The MS is a distinct region compared with the ocean basins. For instance, the
142 bathypelagic is warmer (median temperature of 13.8°C) than the ocean basins' bathypelagic zone
143 (median temperature between 1.4°C in SPO and 4.4°C in NAO). Thus, we characterized
144 associations for all six regions, and for the ocean basins only. We found slightly to moderately more
145 global, prevalent, and low-frequency associations when not considering the MS (Table 1,
146 Supplementary Figure 2). The fraction of global, prevalent, and low-frequency associations was
147 highest in the DCM layer and lowest in the bathypelagic zone (Table 1). Specifically, while we
148 found several (28-86 without MS, and 21-26 with MS) global associations in the epi- and
149 mesopelagic zones, only few or none (9 without MS, and none with MS) global associations were
150 identified in the bathypelagic zone. While the epipelagic global associations were dominated by
151 *Alphaproteobacteria*, a majority of associations from deeper zones included *Thaumarchaeota*
152 (Supplementary Figure 2).

153

154 *High-rank taxonomy of associations was consistent across regions*

155 Next, we considered the most prevalent associations within a specific region and depth, i.e., those
156 found in over 70% of the subnetworks of one region and depth layer. Despite the few global
157 associations determined before, here, we found that high-rank taxonomic patterns of associated taxa
158 were consistent across the water column in different regions (Figure 3). The epipelagic layers
159 (surface and DCM) and the two lower layers (meso- and bathypelagic zones) were more similar to
160 each other, respectively (Figure 3). The fraction of associations including *Alphaproteobacteria* was
161 moderate to high in all zones in contrast to *Cyanobacteria* appearing mainly, as expected, in the
162 epipelagic zone (Figure 3, Supplementary Material 1). The fraction of associations including
163 *Dinoflagellata* was moderate to high in the epipelagic zone and lower in the meso- and bathypelagic

164 zones (Figure 3, Supplementary Material 1). While *Dinoflagellata* associations dominated most
165 epipelagic layers, fewer were found in the MS and SAO surface waters as well as in the DCM of
166 the NAO (Figure 3, Supplementary Material 1). *Thaumarchaeota* associations were moderate to
167 high especially in the mesopelagic (dominant in the MS), moderate in the bathypelagic, and low in
168 the epipelagic zone (Figure 3, Supplementary Material 1). Associations including
169 *Gammaproteobacteria* increased with depth, being higher in the meso- and bathypelagic than in the
170 epipelagic, especially in the SAO, SPO, NPO and IO (Figure 3, Supplementary Material 1).

171

172 *The proportion of regional associations increased with depth*

173 We determined regional associations within each depth layer. Regional associations were defined
174 as those detected in at least one sample-specific subnetwork from one region and being absent from
175 all subnetworks of the other five regions. Results indicated an increasing proportion of regional
176 associations with depth (Table 1, Figure 4A-B, Supplementary Figure 3). We found substantially
177 more associations in the DCM and mesopelagic layers of the MS than in corresponding layers of
178 the ocean basins. This may reflect the different characteristics of these layers in the MS vs. the
179 ocean basins or the massive differences in spatial dimensions between the ocean basins and the MS.
180 More surface and bathypelagic regional associations were found in the MS and NAO than in other
181 regions (Table 1). Most regional associations had low prevalence, i.e., they were present in a few
182 sample-specific subnetworks within the region (Figure 4C). We found 235 highly prevalent (>70%)
183 regional associations among prokaryotes, 89 among eukaryotes and 24 between domains
184 (Supplementary Material 2).

185

186 *Few associations were present throughout the water column*

187 Previous studies have found a substantial vertical connectivity in the ocean microbiota, with surface
188 microorganisms having an impact in deep sea counterparts (11,34). Thus, here, we analyzed the

189 vertical connectivity of potential microbial interactions, aiming to determine what surface
190 associations could be detected along the water column. Few associations were present throughout
191 the water column within a region, including 327 among prokaryotes, 119 among eukaryotes, and
192 13 between domains (Supplementary Material 3). In general, most associations from the meso- and
193 bathypelagic did not appear in the upper layers except for the MS and NAO, where most and about
194 half, respectively, of the bathypelagic associations already appeared in the mesopelagic (Figure 5).
195 Specifically, 81.8 – 90.9% of the mesopelagic and 43.5-72.7% of the bathypelagic associations
196 appeared for the first time in these layers when the five ocean basins were considered
197 (Supplementary Table 1). In the MS, 71.2% of the mesopelagic and 22.4% of the bathypelagic
198 associations appeared for the first time in these layers. We found that 69.7% of the associations
199 appearing in the bathypelagic zone already appeared in the mesopelagic zone (Supplementary Table
200 1). This points to specific microbial interactions occurring in the deep ocean that do not occur in
201 upper layers. In addition, most surface associations disappeared with depth in the five ocean basins
202 and MS (Figure 5), suggesting that most surface ocean interactions are not transferred to the deep
203 sea, despite microbial sinking (11). In fact, most deep ocean ASVs already appeared in the upper
204 layers (Supplementary Figure 4), in agreement with previous work that has shown that a large
205 proportion of deep sea microbial taxa are also found in surface waters, and that their presence in
206 the deep sea is related to sinking particles (11).

207

208 *Environmental gradients seem to shape microbial network topology*

209 Above we grouped the sample-specific subnetworks based on regions and depth layers. However,
210 such predefined groupings may introduce a bias to our analysis. Thus, we grouped subnetworks
211 based on similar topology (see Methods) and identified 36 clusters of 5 to 28 subnetworks
212 (Supplementary Table 2). We found 13 (36.1%) clusters that were dominated by surface
213 subnetworks: six clusters (100% surface subnetworks) from three to five ocean regions but not the

214 MS, and seven clusters including 55-86% surface networks from two to five ocean regions. In turn,
215 11 clusters were dominated by other layers: two DCM (64-90%), five mesopelagic (62-83%) and
216 four bathypelagic-dominated clusters (60-69%). Nine of these 11 clusters combined different
217 regions except for one mesopelagic and one bathypelagic-dominated cluster representing
218 exclusively the MS (Supplementary Table 2). Furthermore, we found 11 clusters containing
219 exclusively or mainly MS subnetworks in contrast to only one cluster dominated by an ocean basin
220 (NAO).

221 Next, we built a more comprehensive representation of network similarities between
222 subnetworks via a minimal spanning tree (MST, see Methods). The depth layers, ocean regions,
223 location of clusters, and environmental factors were projected onto the MST (Figure 6). Most
224 surface subnetworks were centrally located, while subnetworks from other depths appeared in
225 different MST areas (Figure 6A). Most MS subnetworks were located in a specific branch of the
226 MST, while the five ocean basins were mixed (Figure 6B), indicating homogeneity and connectivity
227 within oceans but network-based differences between the oceans and the MS subnetworks. As
228 expected, networks of the same cluster appear mostly connected in the MST (Figure 6C). Moreover,
229 subnetworks in the MST tended to connect to subnetworks from the same depth layer or similar
230 environmental conditions (Figure 6A, D). All in all, our results suggest a strong influence of
231 environmental gradients, and to some extent geography, in shaping microbial network topology in
232 the ocean (Figure 6A,B,D), as previously observed in epipelagic communities at the global scale
233 (28).

234 DISCUSSION

235 We analyzed global and regional pelagic microbial associations across the oceans' vertical and
236 horizontal dimensions. We found a low number of global associations indicating a potentially small
237 global core interactome within each depth layer across the six oceanic regions. In contrast, within
238 each region, we found less highly prevalent associations in the bathypelagic zone of the global
239 ocean (pointing to a smaller regional core) than in the upper layers, except from the NPO, which
240 had less highly prevalent associations in the meso- than in the bathypelagic. In turn, we found more
241 regional associations in the bathypelagic than in upper layers. This may reflect the heterogeneity
242 and isolation of deep ocean regions due to deep currents, water masses, or the topography of the
243 seafloor that may prevent microbial dispersal. Moreover, the higher complexity of the deep ocean
244 ecosystem may provide a higher number of ecological niches potentially resulting in more regional
245 associations. Niche diversification may be associated to the quality and types (labile, recalcitrant,
246 etc.) of organic matter reaching the deep ocean from the epipelagic zone (29), which is significantly
247 different across oceanic regions (35). In an exploration of generalists versus specialist prokaryotic
248 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) in the arctic Ocean, most of the specialists were linked
249 to mesopelagic samples indicating that their distribution was uneven across depth layers (36). This
250 is in agreement with putatively more niches in the deep ocean than in upper ocean layers leading to
251 more specialist taxa and subsequently more regional associations in deep ocean waters.

252 Vertical connectivity in the ocean microbiome is partially modulated by surface
253 productivity through sinking particles (11,34,37). An analysis of eight stations, distributed across
254 the Atlantic, Pacific and Indian oceans (including 4 depths: Surface, DCM, meso- and
255 bathypelagic), indicated that bathypelagic communities comprise both endemic taxa as well as
256 surface-related taxa arriving via sinking particles (11). Another work (34) identified for both
257 components (i.e. surface-related and deep-endemic) the dominating phylogenetic groups: while
258 *Thaumarchaeota*, *Deltaproteobacteria*, *OM190* (*Planctomycetes*) and *Planctomycetacia*

259 (*Planctomycetes*) dominated the endemic bathypelagic communities, *Actinobacteria*,
260 *Alphaproteobacteria*, *Gammaproteobacteria* and *Flavobacteriia* (*Bacteroidetes*) dominated the
261 surface-related taxa in the bathypelagic zone. We found association partners for each dominating
262 phylogenetic group within each investigated type of association, i.e., highly prevalent, regional,
263 global, prevalent, and low-frequency associations. While ASVs belonging to these taxonomic
264 groups were present throughout the water column, specific associations were observed especially
265 in the mesopelagic and bathypelagic zones, which suggests specific interactions between endemic
266 deep-sea taxa, in agreement with the hypothesis indicating high niche partitioning and more
267 specialist taxa in the deep ocean (38,39). This is in agreement with a recent study that found a
268 remarkable taxonomic novelty in the deep ocean after analyzing 58 microbial metagenomes from
269 a global deep-sea survey, unveiling ~68% archaeal and ~58% bacterial novel species (40).

270 Little is known about the distribution of microbial interactions across the water column.
271 Associations found along the entire water column could point to microbes interacting across all
272 water layers or interacting microbes that sink together (41). We found that associations present
273 across all layers were limited, pointing to a heterogeneous distribution of interactions in the water
274 column. Given that we targeted the picoplankton, the associated taxa found in the entire water
275 column may represent non-physical interactions occurring in all water layers, instead of interactions
276 occurring in sinking particles (41). A fraction of the associations observed only in the deep ocean
277 may correspond to microbial consortia degrading sinking particles, or taxa that might have detached
278 from sinking particles, i.e., dual life-style taxa as observed in (42). Altogether, our results suggest
279 that most microbial interactions change across the water column, while a few are maintained.
280 Furthermore, some microorganisms may change their interaction partners across the water column.
281 Changes of microbial interactions with depth could also be linked to ecological successions in
282 sinking particles (43), yet our spatial sampling precludes us from investigating this possibility.

283 In our study, mesopelagic subnetworks displayed the lowest network connectivity
284 (determined via edge density) across most regions on average, and we found the strongest
285 associations among both meso- and bathypelagic subnetworks. Moreover, we found the highest
286 clustering (transitivity) in the meso- and bathypelagic zones (relatively colder waters) compared to
287 the epipelagic zone (warmer waters). Similarly, a previous global-scale study (28) concentrating on
288 the epipelagic zone and including polar waters, found higher edge density, association strength and
289 clustering in polar waters compared to warmer waters. These results suggest that either
290 microorganisms interact more in colder environments or that their recurrence is higher due to a
291 higher environmental selection exerted by low temperatures. Alternatively, limited resources
292 (primarily nutrients) in the surface versus the deep tropical and subtropical ocean may prevent the
293 establishment of specific microbial interactions in surface waters. Furthermore, environmental
294 stability in the deep sea may have led to high niche partitioning (38,39), which could have promoted
295 the establishment of interactions in the meso- and bathypelagic.

296 Through quantifying regional associations, our results indicated distinct associations in the
297 MS, where most regional associations were observed compared to the ocean basins, as previously
298 shown in an epipelagic network (26). The Mediterranean Sea is a hotspot of multicellular
299 biodiversity and endemic species (44,45), and despite being less studied than animals and plants,
300 there are also reports of putatively endemic microorganisms, such as specific SAR11 (46). Thus,
301 part of the recovered associations could be reflecting endemic interactions derived from endemic
302 as well as non-endemic taxa. Potentially endemic taxa should be investigated at the genome level,
303 given that the 16S or 18S may not reflect fine-grained differences (47,48). Furthermore, we found
304 a substantial number of regional associations in the NAO compared to other ocean basins,
305 contrasting with the NAO having the lowest number of regional associations in a previous
306 epipelagic network (26). Given that the previous studies used different samples, these results are
307 not surprising.

308 To conclude, we have disentangled the spatial distribution of associations in the global
309 ocean microbiome, from surface to bottom water layers, finding both global and regional microbial
310 associations. Our analysis captured network topology changes across vertical (water column) and
311 horizontal (different regions) pelagic zones of the ocean. Furthermore, our results indicate that
312 associations have specific biogeographies that do not necessarily mirror taxonomic biogeographies.

313 **METHODS**

314 *Dataset*

315 Samples originated from two expeditions, Malaspina-2010 (49) and Hotmix (50). The former was
316 onboard the R/V Hespérides and most ocean basins were sampled between December 2010 and
317 July 2011. Malaspina samples included i) *MalaSurf*, surface samples (5,51), ii) *MalaVP*, vertical
318 profiles (14), and iii) *MalaDeep*, deep-sea samples, (52–54). In the Hotmix expedition, sampling
319 took place onboard the R/V Sarmiento de Gamboa between 27th April and 29th May 2014 and
320 represented a quasi-synoptic transect across the MS and the adjacent North-East of the NAO. See
321 details in Table 2.

322 DNA extractions are indicated in the publications associated with each dataset (Table 2).
323 The 16S and 18S rRNA genes were amplified and sequenced. PCR amplification and sequencing
324 of *MalaSurf*, *MalaVP* (18S), and *Hotmix* (16S) are indicated in the publications associated with
325 each dataset in Table 2. *MalaVP* (16S) and *Hotmix* (18S) were PCR-amplified and sequenced
326 following the same approach as in (5). The DNA from *MalaDeep* samples was extracted as
327 indicated in (52,53) and re-sequenced at Genoscope (France) with the primers indicated below.
328 *MalaSurf*, *MalaVP* and *Hotmix* datasets were sequenced at RTL Genomics (Texas, USA).

329 We used the same amplification primers for all samples. For the 16S, we amplified the V4-
330 V5 hypervariable region using the primers 515F-Y and 926R (55). For the 18S, we amplified the
331 V4 hypervariable region with the primers TAREukFWD1 and TAREukREV3 (56). See more details
332 in (5). Amplicons were sequenced in *Illumina* MiSeq or HiSeq2500 platforms (2x250 or 2x300 bp
333 reads). Operational Taxonomic Units were delineated as Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs)
334 using DADA2 (57), running each dataset separately before merging the results. ASVs were
335 assigned taxonomy using SILVA (58), v132, for prokaryotes, and PR2 (59), v4.11.1, for
336 eukaryotes. ASVs corresponding to Plastids, Mitochondria, Metazoa, and Plantae, were removed.
337 Only samples with at least 2000 reads were kept. The dataset contained *MalaDeep* replicates, which

338 were merged, and two filter size fractions: given the cell sizes of prokaryotes versus
339 microeukaryotes, we used the smallest size-fraction (0.2-0.8 μm) for prokaryotes and the larger one
340 (0.8-20 μm) for microbial eukaryotes. The other three datasets considered the 0.2-3 μm size
341 fraction. Additionally, we required that samples had eukaryotic and prokaryotic data, resulting in
342 397 samples for downstream analysis: 122 *MalaSurf*, 83 *MalaVP*, 13 *MalaDeep*, and 179 *Hotmix*
343 (Table 2). We separated the samples into epipelagic, mesopelagic and bathypelagic zone (Figure
344 1). Furthermore, we separated most epipelagic zone samples into surface layer and deep-
345 chlorophyll maximum (DCM) layer, but 18 MS and 4 NAO samples belonged to neither. We also
346 considered environmental variables: Temperature (2 missing values = mv), salinity (2 mv),
347 fluorescence (3 mv), and inorganic nutrients NO_3^- (36 mv), PO_4^{3-} (38 mv), and SiO_2 (37 mv), which
348 were measured as indicated elsewhere (5,14,60). In specific samples, missing data on nutrient
349 concentrations were estimated from the World Ocean Database (61).

350

351 *Single static network*

352 We constructed the single static network in four steps. First, we prepared the data for network
353 construction. We excluded rare microorganisms by keeping ASVs with a sequence abundance sum
354 above 100 reads across all samples and appearing in at least 20 samples (>5% of the dataset). The
355 latter condition removed larger eukaryotes only appearing in the 13 *MalaDeep* eukaryotic samples
356 of the 0.8-20 μm size fraction. To control for data compositionality (62), we applied a centered-
357 log-ratio transformation separately to the prokaryotic and eukaryotic tables before merging them.

358 Second, we inferred a (preliminary) network using FlashWeave (63), selecting the options
359 “heterogeneous” and “sensitive”. FlashWeave was chosen as it can handle sparse datasets like ours,
360 taking zeros into account and avoiding spurious correlations between ASVs that share many zeros.
361 This initial network had 5457 nodes and 31,966 edges, 30,657 (95.9%) positive and 1309 (4.1%)
362 negative.

363 Third, we aimed at removing environmentally-driven edges. FlashWeave can detect indirect
364 edges and can also consider metadata such as environmental variables, but currently does not
365 support missing data. Thus, we applied EnDED (64), combining the methods Interaction
366 Information (with 0.05 significance threshold and 10,000 iterations) and Data Processing Inequality
367 as done previously via artificially-inserted edges to connect all microbial nodes to the six
368 environmental parameters (33). Although EnDED can handle missing environmental data when
369 calculating intermediate values relating ASV and environmental factors, it would compute
370 intermediate values for microbial edges using all samples. Thus, to avoid a possible bias and speed
371 up the calculation process, we applied EnDED individually for each environmental factor, using
372 only the samples containing values for the specific environmental factor. We detected and removed
373 potential environmentally-driven edges due to nutrients (4.9% NO_3^- , 4.2% PO_4^{3-} , 2.0% SiO_2),
374 temperature (1.9%), salinity (0.2%), and Fluorescence (0.01%) (Supplementary Table 3).

375 Fourth, we removed isolated nodes, i.e., nodes without any edge. The resulting network
376 represented the single static network in our study. It contained 5448 nodes and 29,118 edges; 28,178
377 (96.8%) positive and 940 (3.2%) negative.

378

379 *Sample-specific subnetwork*

380 We constructed 397 sample-specific subnetworks. Each subnetwork represented one sample and
381 was derived from the single static network, i.e., a subnetwork contained nodes and edges present in
382 the single static network but not vice versa. First, we required that an edge must be present in the
383 single static network. Second, an edge can only be present within a subnetwork if both
384 microorganisms associated with the edge have a sequence abundance above zero in the
385 corresponding sample. Third, microorganisms associated need to appear together (intersection) in
386 more than 20% of the samples, in which one or both appear (union) for a specific region and depth.

387 Formally, consider sample s_{RL} with R being the marine region, and L the sample's depth layer.

388 Let e be an association between microorganisms A and B . Then, association e is present in the
389 sample-specific subnetwork N_s , if

- 390 i. e is an association in the single static network,
- 391 ii. the microorganisms A and B are present within sample s , i.e., the abundances are above
392 zero within that particular sample, and
- 393 iii. the association has a region and depth specific Jaccard index, J_{RL} , above 20% (see below).

394 In addition to these three conditions, a node is present in a sample-specific subnetwork when
395 connected to at least one edge, i.e., we removed isolated nodes.

396 Regarding the third condition, we determined J_{RL} for each association pair by computing
397 within each region and depth layer, the fraction of samples two microorganisms appeared together
398 (intersection) from the total samples at least one microorganism appears (union). Supplementary
399 Table 4 shows the number of edges using different thresholds. Given the heterogeneity of the
400 dataset within regions and depth layers, we decided to use a low threshold, keeping edges with a
401 Jaccard index above 20% and removed edges below or equal to 20%. The third condition was robust
402 (Supplementary Figure 5). We tested robustness by randomly drawing a subset of samples from
403 each region and depth combination. The subset contained between 10% and 90% of the original
404 samples. We rounded up decimal numbers to avoid zero sample subsets, e.g., 10% of 7 samples
405 results in a subset of 1 sample. We excluded the DCM of the SPO because it contained only one
406 sample. Next, we recomputed the Jaccard index for the random subset. Lastly, requiring $J > 20\%$,
407 we evaluated robustness determining i) how many edges were kept in the random subsamples
408 compared to all samples, and ii) how many edges were kept in the random subset that were also
409 kept when all samples were used. We repeated the procedure for each region-depth combination
410 1000 times.

411

412 *Spatial recurrence*

413 To determine an association's spatial recurrence, we calculated its prevalence as the fraction of
414 subnetworks in which the association was present. We determined association prevalence across
415 the 397 samples and each region-layer combination. We mapped the scores onto the single static
416 network, visualized in Gephi (65) v.0.9.2, using the Fruchterman Reingold Layout (66) with a low
417 gravity score of 0.5. We used the region-layer prevalence to determine global and regional
418 associations. We considered an association to be global within a specific depth layer if its
419 prevalence was above 70% in all regions. In turn, a regional association had an association
420 prevalence above 0% within a particular region-layer (present, appearing in at least one
421 subnetwork) and 0% within other regions of the same layer (absent, appearing in no subnetwork).
422 We further characterized associations that were neither global nor local. We considered an
423 association to be prevalent within a specific depth layer if its prevalence was above 50% in all
424 regions. Similarly, associations that appear in a specific depth layer in all regions over 20% are
425 considered low-frequency. Thus, an association can be classified as i) global, ii) regional, iii)
426 prevalent, iv) low-frequency, and v) "other", i.e., associations that have not been classified into the
427 previous categories.

428

429 *Network metrics*

430 We considered the *number of nodes* and *edges* and six other network metrics of which most were
431 computed with functions of the igraph R-package (67). *Edge density* indicating connectivity is
432 computed through the number of actual edges divided by the number of possible edges. The *average*
433 *path length* is the average length of all shortest paths between nodes in a network. *Transitivity*,
434 indicating how well a network is clustered, is the probability that the nodes' neighbors are
435 connected. *Assortativity* measures if similar nodes tend to be connected, i.e., *assortativity (degree)*
436 is positive if high degree nodes tend to connect to other high degree nodes and negative otherwise.

437 Similarly, *assortativity (Euk-Prok)* is positive if eukaryotes tend to connect to other eukaryotes
438 while prokaryotes tend to connect to other prokaryotes. Lastly, we computed the *average positive*
439 *association strength* as the mean of all positive association scores provided by FlashWeave.

440

441 *Similar networks based on network topology*

442 The previous metrics (so-called global network metrics) disregard local structures' complexity, and
443 topological analyses should include local metrics (68), e.g., graphlets (69). Here, we determined
444 network-dissimilarity between each pair of sample-specific subnetworks as proposed in (70),
445 comparing network topology without considering specific ASVs. The network-dissimilarity is a
446 distance measurement that is always positive: 0 if networks are identical and greater numbers
447 indicate greater dissimilarity.

448 Next, we constructed a Network Similarity Network (NSN), where each node is a
449 subnetwork and each node connects with all other nodes, i.e., the NSN was a complete graph. We
450 assigned the network-dissimilarity score as edge weight within the NSN. To simplify the NSN
451 while preserving its main patterns, we determined the minimal spanning tree (MST) of the NSN.
452 The MST had 397 nodes and 396 edges. The MST is a backbone, with no circular path, in which
453 the edges are chosen so that the edge weights sum is minimal and all nodes are connected, i.e., a
454 path exists between any two nodes. We determined the MST using the function *mst* in the *igraph*
455 package in R (67,71).

456 Using the network-dissimilarity (distance) matrix, we determined clusters of similar
457 subnetworks using Python scripts. First, we reduced the matrix to ten dimension using *umap* (72)
458 with the following parameter settings: *n_neighbors*=3, *min_dist*=0, *n_components*=10,
459 *random_state*=123, and *metric*='precomputed'. Second, we clustered the subnetworks (represented
460 via ten dimensions) with *hdbscan* (73) setting the parameters to *min_samples*=3 and
461 *min_clusters*=5.

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478

479 **Author’s contributions:**

480 The overall project was conceived and designed by RL. JMG, CMD, SGA, RM, JA were
481 responsible for the sampling and acquisition of contextual data. CRG, JP and MS processed specific
482 samples in the laboratory. RL processed the amplicon data generating the two ASV tables. They
483 were the starting point of the present study, which is part of the overall project. IMD developed the
484 conceptual approach and DE, SC, and RL contributed to its finalization. IMD performed the data
485 analysis. ED, MS, CMD, SGA, RM, JMG, DE, SC, and RL contributed with interpretation of the
486 results. IMD wrote the original draft. All authors contributed to manuscript revisions and approved
487 the final version of the manuscript.

488

489 **Competing interests:**

490 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

491

492 **Data availability and Reproducibility:**

493 Sequence data is publicly available at the European Nucleotide Archive (see accession
494 numbers in Table 2). The code for data analysis including commands to run FlashWeave and
495 EnDED (environmentally-driven-edge-detection and computing Jaccard index) are publicly
496 available: <https://github.com/InaMariaDeutschmann/GlobalNetworkMalaspinaHotmix>.

497

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- 668

669 FIGURES AND TABLES

670
671 **Figure 1: Sampling scheme.** Location, number, and depth range of samples from the epipelagic
672 zone including surface and DCM layers, the mesopelagic zone, and the bathypelagic zone from the
673 global tropical and subtropical ocean, and the Mediterranean Sea.

674
675 **Figure 2: Spatial recurrence.** (A) Association prevalence showing the fraction of subnetworks in
676 which an association appeared considering all depth layers across the global tropical and subtropical
677 ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. Associations that occurred more often (black) appeared in the
678 middle of the single static network visualization. Most edges had a low prevalence (blue) $<20\%$.
679 (B) The sample-specific subnetworks of the four depth layers (rows): surface (SRF), DCM,
680 mesopelagic (MES), and bathypelagic (BAT), in the five oceanic basins and the Mediterranean Sea
681 (columns). The histograms show the association prevalence within each depth layer and region
682 (excluding absent associations, i.e., 0% prevalence). The number of samples appears in the upper
683 left corner, the number of edges with a prevalence $>0\%$ in the upper right corner, and the depth
684 range in the lower right corner (in m below surface). Note that the prevalence goes up to 100% in
685 (B) vs. 66.5% in (A).

686
687 **Figure 3: Highly prevalent associations for each region and depth layer.** If an association
688 appears in more than 70% of the subnetworks it is classified as highly prevalent. Rows indicate the
689 four depth layers: surface (SRF), DCM, mesopelagic (MES), and bathypelagic (BAT). The number
690 of samples appears in the upper left corner, the number of edges in the upper right corner, and the
691 depth range in the lower right corner (in m below surface).

692
693 **Figure 4: Classification of associations.** We classified association into global ($>70\%$ prevalence,
694 not considering the MS), prevalent ($\leq 70\%$ and $>50\%$, not considering the MS), low-frequency
695 ($\leq 50\%$ and $>20\%$, not considering the MS), regional, and other. Regional associations are assigned
696 to one of six ocean regions (five ocean basins and the Mediterranean Sea). The number (A) and
697 fraction (B) of each type of association are shown for each depth layer: surface (SRF) and DCM
698 (epipelagic), mesopelagic (MES) and bathypelagic (BAT). Color indicates the type of
699 classification. The associations have been classified into the five types based on their prevalence in
700 each region. The prevalence of associations is shown in (C). For instance, global associations have
701 a prevalence above 70% in each region (not considering the MS). Regional associations are present

in one region (indicated with yellow with mainly low prevalence >0%) and absent in all other regions (0% prevalence not shown in graph).

Figure 5: Microbial associations across depth layers. For each region and taxonomic domain, we color associations based on when they first appeared: surface (S, yellow), DCM (D, orange), mesopelagic (M, red), and bathypelagic (B, black). The SRF bar contains the associations that appeared in the surface. If they also appeared in the DCM, they are listed on the left box of the DCM bar. However, if they were not found in the DCM layer, i.e., they were absent, they appear on the right transparent box of the bar. That is, absent ASVs are grouped in the transparent box at the end of the DCM, MES, and BAT bars. Columns show associations between archaea (Arc), bacteria (Bac), and eukaryotes (Euk).

Figure 6: Minimal Spanning Tree. Each subnetwork is a node in the MST and represents a sample. Nodes are colored according to (A) the sample's depth layer, (B) the sample's ocean region, (C) the subnetworks cluster, and (D) selected environmental factors. In (C), the barplots indicate the different layers within each cluster colored as in (A).

Table 1: Number of classified associations per depth layer. The sum of classified associations (including Other) is the number of present associations. Absent associations appear in other layers but in no subnetwork of a given layer. Global, prevalent, and low-frequency associations have been computed with and without considering the MS. The proportion of regional associations increased with depth (gray row).

Depth layer	Epipelagic (Surface)	Epipelagic (DCM)	Mesopelagic	Bathypelagic
Global	26 (0.14%)	23 (0.31%)	21 (0.20%)	-
Prevalent	22 (0.12%)	47 (0.64%)	10 (0.10%)	7 (0.07%)
Low-frequency	105 (0.58%)	160 (2.17%)	212 (2.05%)	51 (0.51%)
Global (no MS)	86 (0.47%)	52 (0.70%)	28 (0.27%)	9 (0.09%)
Prevalent (no MS)	207 (1.14%)	76 (1.03%)	27 (0.26%)	28 (0.28%)
Low-frequency (no MS)	1361 (7.46%)	219 (2.97%)	342 (3.30%)	489 (4.84%)
Regional	2014 (11.05%)	2290 (31.03%)	3420 (33.00%)	3669 (36.33%)
MS	596 (3.27%)	1295 (17.55%)	2254 (21.75%)	1217 (12.05%)
NAO	577 (3.16%)	306 (4.15%)	422 (4.07%)	1522 (15.07%)
SAO	162 (0.89%)	304 (4.12%)	301 (2.90%)	143 (1.42%)
SPO	152 (0.83%)	105 (1.42%)	40 (0.39%)	109 (1.08%)
NPO	298 (1.63%)	133 (1.80%)	204 (1.97%)	516 (5.11%)
IO	229 (1.26%)	147 (1.99%)	199 (1.92%)	162 (1.60%)
Other*	16067 (88.12%)	4860 (65.85%)	6701 (64.66%)	6372 (63.10%)
Other (no MS)*	14566 (79.88%)	4743 (64.27%)	6547 (62.17%)	55904 (58.46%)
Present	18234 (100%)	7380 (100%)	10364 (100%)	10099 (100%)
Absent	10884	21738	18754	19019

*The number of unclassified (Other) associations is computed from present, regional, global, prevalent, and low-frequency associations. The last three classifications have been done with and without the MS, and subsequently the number of unclassified (other) associations varies.

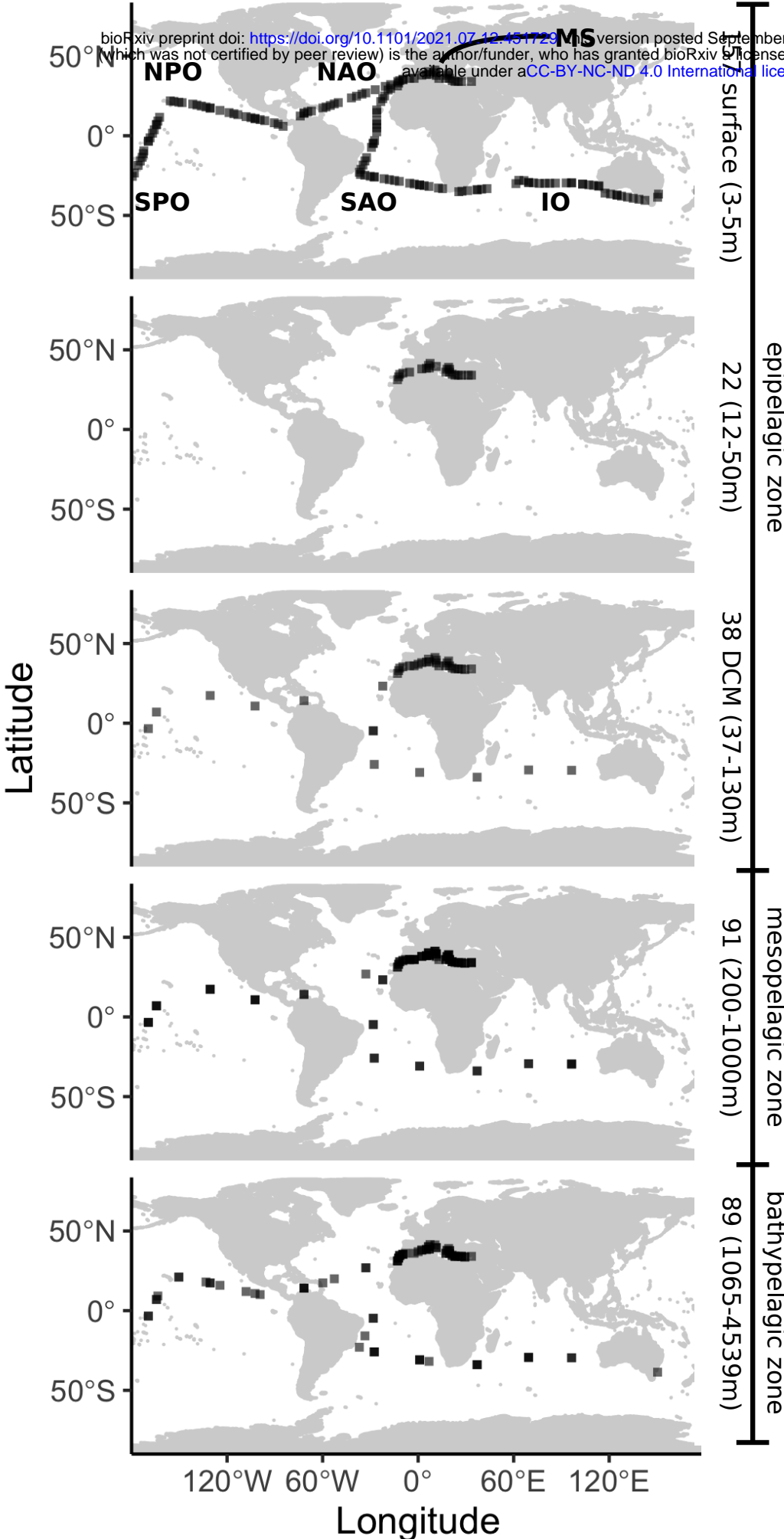
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Table 2: Used datasets. We required that each sample had to provide data for both eukaryotes and prokaryotes, which resulted in 397 samples. This condition allowed only 13 MalaDeep samples. 16S and 18S refer to sequenced samples.

Dataset	Samples used for analysis	Stations	Depth range (m)	Water samples	Size Fraction (μm)	16S	18S	Reference	ENA accession number
<i>Malaspina</i>								(5,51)	
<i>MalaSurf</i>	122	120	3	122	0.2-3	122	124	(5,51)	PRJEB23913 [18S rRNA genes], PRJEB25224 [16S rRNA genes]
<i>MalaVP</i>	83	13	3-4000	91	0.2-3	91	83	(14) & This study	PRJEB23771 [18S rRNA genes], PRJEB45015 [16S rRNA genes]
<i>MalaDeep (Prok*)</i>	13	30	~4000	60	0.2-0.8	41	-	(54)	PRJEB45011
<i>MalaDeep (Euk*)</i>	13	27	2400-4000	27	0.8-20	-	82	This study	PRJEB45014
Hotmix	179	29	3-4539	188	0.2-3	188	179	(60)	PRJEB44683 [18S rRNA genes], PRJEB44474 [16S rRNA genes]

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*Prok - prokaryotes; Euk - eukaryotes



MS - Mediterranean Sea

IO - Indian Ocean

NAO - North Atlantic Ocean

NPO - North Pacific Ocean

SAO - South Atlantic Ocean

SPO - South Pacific Ocean

