

Seasonal shifts in Fe-acquisition strategies in Southern Ocean microbial communities revealed by metagenomics and autonomous sampling

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Rui Zhang, Pavla Debeljak, Stephane Blain, Ingrid Obernosterer. Seasonal shifts in Fe-acquisition strategies in Southern Ocean microbial communities revealed by metagenomics and autonomous sampling. Environmental Microbiology, In press, 10.1111/1462-2920.16397. hal-04093948

HAL Id: hal-04093948

https://hal.science/hal-04093948

Submitted on 10 May 2023

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1	Seasonal shifts in Fe-acquisition strategies in Southern Ocean microbial communities
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14	Key words: marine prokaryotes, iron and organic carbon acquisition, metagenomics, MAGs,
15	Southern Ocean, autonomous sampler
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17	Competing of interests
18	The authors declare no competing interests.

Originality Significance statement

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The trace element iron is key for microbial metabolism, as a large number of enzymes 20 involved in carbon-related pathways require iron as a co-factor. The acquisition of both elements is therefore essential for a cell to thrive in a given environment. Despite this key 22 role of iron, the pathways used by diverse prokaryotes to access the different chemical forms 24 of iron remains poorly understood. Understanding the iron acquisition strategies is of 25 particular importance in marine environments where this trace element is present in growthlimiting concentrations. We report here high-resolution seasonal observations from a 26 naturally iron-fertilized region in the Southern Ocean. Applying environmental metagenomics we identified different iron uptake strategies in marine prokaryotic 28 communities and pronounced seasonal changes as an acclimation to varying iron and organic 29 carbon regimes. Using metagenome-assembled genomes we further deciphered the Fe-related 30 gene repertoire of individual taxa assigned to abundant prokaryotic groups. Our 32 study provides novel insights to iron-related ecological strategies of diverse marine prokaryotes and how the acquisition of this element is linked to organic carbon. 33

Abstract

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Iron (Fe) governs the cycling of organic carbon in large parts of the Southern Ocean. The strategies of diverse microbes to acquire the different chemical forms of Fe under seasonally changing organic carbon regimes remain, however, poorly understood. Here, we report highresolution seasonal metagenomic observations from the region off Kerguelen Island (Indian Sector of the Southern Ocean) where natural Fe-fertilization induces consecutive spring and summer phytoplankton blooms. Our data illustrate pronounced, but distinct seasonal patterns in the abundance of genes implicated in the transport of different forms of Fe and organic substrates, of siderophore biosynthesis and carbohydrate active enzymes (CAZymes). The seasonal dynamics suggest a temporal decoupling in the prokaryotic requirements of Fe and organic carbon during the spring phytoplankton bloom and a concerted access to these resources after the summer bloom. Taxonomic assignments revealed differences in the prokaryotic groups harboring genes of a given Fe-related category and pronounced seasonal successions were observed. Using MAGs we could decipher the respective Fe- and organic substrate-related genes of individual taxa assigned to abundant groups. The ecological strategies related to Fe-acquisition provide insights on how this element could shape microbial community composition with potential implications on organic matter transformations in the Southern Ocean.

Introduction

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Organic carbon and iron (Fe) are essential elements for heterotrophic prokaryotes and from a 53 54 metabolic point of view the two elements are intimately linked. Organic substrates provide building units for the cell and carbon metabolism is a source of energy, but a large number of 55 enzymes involved in carbon-related pathways require Fe as a cofactor. The acquisition of 56 57 both elements is therefore essential for a cell to thrive in a given environment. The concentration of marine organic matter varies on spatial and temporal scales and a large 58 diversity of substrates with highly variable degrees of bioavailability make up this pool 59 (Moran et al., 2016). The concentration of inorganic nutrients can regulate the utilization of 60 labile forms of organic matter, and Fe could be a rate-limiting micro-nutrient in High 61 Nutrient Low Chlorophyll (HNLC) regions (Obernosterer et al., 2015). 62 The marine Fe pool is made up by various dissolved and particulate forms originating from 63 biological, lithogenic or authigenic sources (Tagliabue et al., 2017), but the availability of 64 65 these different forms of Fe to prokaryotes remains poorly investigated (Debeljak et al., 2021; Hogle et al., 2022; Manck et al., 2022). The presence of multiple chemical forms of Fe is 66 both a challenge and an opportunity for prokaryotes which have evolved a large panel of 67 68 uptake strategies. Fe requirements and resource acquisition mechanisms vary among taxa (Hopkinson and Barbeau, 2012). Roseobacter genomes contain genes for multiple Fe uptake 69 70 mechanisms, while SAR11 has a reduced set of transporters (Roe et al., 2013; Hogle et al., 2016). Siderophore biosynthesis appears to be restricted to a few prokaryotic groups, and 71 72 many of these belong to Gammaproteobacteria (Hopkinson and Barbeau, 2012; Payne et al., 73 2016; Manck et al., 2022). By contrast, transporters of siderophore-bound Fe are more widespread (Hopkinson and Barbeau, 2012; Debeljak et al., 2021; Hogle et al., 2022), a 74 differentiation that can lead to potential cross feeding (Cordero et al., 2012). The prevalence 75 76 of specific Fe uptake strategies was shown to be linked to Fe concentrations across large

spatial scales (Toulza et al., 2012). Together, this results in a complex interplay between the genomic and physiological properties of individual microbes and their interaction among each other and with their micro-environment. Responses of microbial communities from HNLC waters to additions of Fe and organic carbon in short-term bottle incubation experiments largely depend on location and season (Obernosterer et al., 2015). While these experiments provide evidence that Fe and organic carbon can constrain prokaryotic growth, they do not inform on potential acclimation of microbes to changes in the supply of these elements. The aim of the present study was to better understand the link between microbial Fe uptake strategies, organic matter supply and microbial diversity in the Southern Ocean. Our specific objectives were firstly to determine the seasonal dynamics in the functional repertoire of Fe- and organic substrate acquisition genes and secondly to identify the microbial community members harboring these genes under varying organic matter supply. We carried out our study in the region off Kerguelen Island, a suitable environment because the intense spring and summer phytoplankton blooms induced by natural Fe fertilization (Blain et al., 2007) result in pronounced seasonal patterns related to Fe and organic carbon availability. To address these objectives in an ocean region that is difficult to access due to logistic constraints, we used an autonomous in situ sampler providing high-resolution observations over an entire seasonal cycle.

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Experimental Procedures

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Sample collection 96 We used 12 seawater samples collected with a Remote Autonomous Sampler (RAS-500®, 97 Mac Lane) from 25 October 2016 to 24 February 2017 in surface waters (40 m) of the 98 99 Kerguelen plateau in the Indian sector of the Southern Ocean (Station A3, 527 m overall 100 depth) (Figure 1). The technical aspects of the RAS and its mooring, and the collection of 101 seawater are described in detail in Blain et al. (Blain et al., 2021). Briefly, three samples (500 mL each) were collected at each time point; for inorganic nutrient analyses, one sample was 102 103 filtered in situ through an 0.8 µm polycarbonate filter (PC, 47 mm diameter, Nuclepore, Whatman, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO), and for phytoplankton and prokaryotic diversity 104 (Liu et al., 2020; Blain et al., 2021), two samples remained unfiltered. Fixatives (mercuric 105 chloride or glutaraldehyde) were added to the sample bags prior to sampling. Upon recovery 106 of the RAS, seawater for metagenomic analyses (fixed with mercuric chloride) was filtered 107 108 sequentially through 0.8 and 0.2 µm PC filters (47 mm diameter, Nuclepore, Whatman, 109 Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) and both filters were kept at -80 °C until DNA extraction. Only the DNA extracted from the 0.2 µm filters were used for metagenomic analyses. 110 111 Temperature and salinity were obtained from sensors mounted on the RAS. DNA extraction and metagenome sequencing 112 Total DNA was extracted from 0.2 µm PC filters using the DNeasy PowerWater Kit (Qiagen) 113 according to the manufacturer's instructions with a few modifications. Each filter was cut into 114 115 small pieces with the scissors, and added solution PW1 and incubated at 65°C for 10 min to 116 promote cell lysis, the complete details of DNA extraction are given in the study by Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2020). DNA concentration was measured using quantus fluorometer (Promega) 117 with QuantiFluor® Double stranded DNA (dsDNA) system. Metagenome samples (n=12) 118 119 were sequenced with an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 system using 2×150 bp chemistry at

Fasteris SA, Inc. (Switzerland), and yielded 59-83 Mio pairs of metagenomic reads per sample, corresponding to a total of 263.8 GB (Table S1). The data sets are available in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) repository at https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena under the project ID PRJEB56376. Metagenome assembly The raw reads were checked with FastQC v0.11.9 and processed with Trimmomatic (v 0.32) 125 (Bolger et al., 2014). The short reads that passed the quality control (QC) were individually 126 assembled by MEGAHIT v1.2.9 (Li et al., 2015) (parameters used --presets meta-large). We also used metaSPAdes v3.14.1(Nurk et al., 2017) (parameters used -k 21, 33, 55, 77, 99, 127) 128 to assemble short reads for comparison. MetaQuast with default parameters was used to 129 evaluate metagenomic assembly (Mikheenko et al., 2016). For assembly using MEGAHIT, 130 the total number of contigs varies between 0.1 and 1.6 Mio with an average length of 600 bp (Table S2). For the assembly using metaSPAdes, the total number of contigs varies between 0.3 and 1.8 Mio with an average length of 500 bp (Table S2). Due to the length of N50 we 134 decided to continue the analysis from the MEGAHIT assembly results. Metagenomic analysis ORFs (open reading frames) were predicted using Prodigal v2.6.3 (Hyatt et al., 2010) (parameters used -p meta) (Table S3). CD-HIT v4.8.1 (Li and Godzik, 2006) (parameters used -c 1 -aS 1 -g 1) was used to construct a non-redundant protein database pooling the twelve samples (10 984 076 proteins). Based on the non-redundant protein sequence number, 139 we constructed the non-redundant gene sequence set. Salmon v1.4.0 (Patro et al., 2017) was used for read recruitment of the short reads to the non-redundant gene sequences collection, and for the quantification of each gene in each sample (parameters used -incompatPrior 0.0 -seqBias --gcBias --biasSpeedSamp 5 -validateMappings). The quantified protein occurrences

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for each sample were normalized as genes per kilobase million (GPM) using the following formula:

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$$GPM = 10^6 \times \frac{total\ reads\ mapped\ to\ genes/gene\ length\ in\ bp}{sum(total\ reads\ mapped\ to\ genes/gene\ length\ in\ bp)}$$

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This value can be applied to the metagenomes to remove the effect of library size and gene length, and GPM are thus comparable among samples. To detect genes that are involved in Fe-related pathways, we used FeGenie (Garber et al., 2020) based on individual contig files for alignment and annotation (parameters used --meta t 8 --norm). FeGenie is a bioinformatics tool to annotate iron-related genes by combining a Hidden Markov Model (HMM) and BLAST. HMM is a probabilistic model used for gene finding of sequencing data. The authors of FeGenie have constructed their own database of HMMs for Fe related genes by obtaining HMMs from Pfam/TIGRFAMS or by manually constructing HMMs. The HMMs were calibrated through queries against the NCBI's database. Bit score cutoffs that optimally delineate between true and false positives among hits from the non-redundant protein database were identified by manually inspecting each hmm search result. In the present study we used this comprehensive library to identify proteins that are related to Fe transport and storage, and siderophore biosynthesis and transport (Table S4). The genes identified from the present dataset passed the recommended bit score cutoffs. Different pathways can share homologous genes, as is the case for example in siderophore biosynthesis. HMMs developed in FeGenie are sensitive to the entirety of each gene family. In the metagenomes used here, not all domains of a given siderophore pathway were detected at each time point (see Fig. S3). This is most likely due to the overall lower GPMs of siderophore biosynthesis genes as compared to other Fe-related genes, and thus a limit of detection at our sequencing depth. In order to obtain GPM for the identified FeGenie proteins, each protein sequence related to the Fe pathway in each sample was retrieved in

fasta format and mapped against the non-redundant protein database using DIAMOND 168 blastp. Proteins at 100% similarity were retrieved with the according GPM. 169 170 For the taxonomic affiliation of Fe-related genes, sequences were obtained using Centrifuge 171 v1.0.4 (Kim et al., 2016) by searching against the GTDB database (Parks et al., 2022) and the 172 alignments with highest score were kept. We then calculated the relative contribution of a 173 prokaryotic group assigned to a gene of interest. The limitation of this approach is that 174 taxonomy is assigned based on relatively short sequencing length of the individual genes; for this reason, we considered mainly the family level and used metagenome assembled genomes 175 176 for a more resolutive description. Therefore, the GPM for each Fe-related gene in each sample were summed separately (corresponding to a), the GPM per taxa associated with each 177 178 Fe-related gene in each sample were summed (corresponding to b), and the relative 179 contribution of the prokaryotic group was calculated as b/a. Organic substrate transporter annotation was carried out based on the non-redundant protein 180 sequences set against TCDB (Saier, 2006) using DIAMOND blastp (parameters used --more-181 sensitive -e 1e-5), and amino acid similarity of $\geq 70\%$ was chosen as threshold for further 182 183 analysis. CAZymes were annotated based on the non-redundant protein sequences set using 184 hmmsearch against the dbCAN database (e value $< 1 \times 10$ -10, coverage > 0.3) (Zhang et al., 2018). The domain with the highest coverage was selected for sequences overlapping 185 multiple CAZymes domains. The phylogenetic affiliation of organic substrate transporters 186 and CAZymes sequences and the relative contribution of prokaryotic groups was determined 187 using the same method as described above. 188 Visualization of data was performed using the packages ggplot2 in the R v4.0.3 and 189 190 SigmaPlot v14.5 software. The heatmap was generated using the pheatmap package in the R v 4.0.3, with Euclidean distance as the distance function. 191

Analysis of Metagenome Assembled Genomes (MAG)

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One MAG assigned to each SAR11 and Nitrincolaceae, and two MAGs assigned each to Polaribacter and Rhodobacteraceae were downloaded from data previously published by Sun et al. (Sun et al., 2021). The seawater samples from which the MAGs were constructed were collected from 3 sites in the Kerguelen region including the study site of the RAS deployment. After sequencing, metagenomes were assembled and binned using the methods described by Sun et al. (Sun et al., 2021). MAGs were reassessed using CheckM (v1.1.2) (Parks et al., 2015) for completeness, and the completeness of the 6 MAGs used in the present study ranged from 55-94% (Table S5). The ANI values between MAGs, calculated using the OrthoANIu algorithm (Yoon et al., 2017), were below 95%. ORFs of MAGs were predicted using Prodigal v2.6.3 (Hyatt et al., 2010) (parameters used -p meta) and functional annotation of MAGs was carried out using the same method as above. To estimate the abundance of MAGs and their Fe- and organic substrate transporter and CAZymes-related genes across the twelve metagenomes, we first used Bowtie2 v2.4.4 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) with default parameters to recruit short reads from the twelve metagenomes and samtools (Li et al., 2009) was used to convert the resulting SAM files into sorted and indexed BAM files. We used anvi'o v7.1 (Eren et al., 2015) to profile short metagenomic reads aligned to MAGs to estimate coverage statistics per metagenome. Briefly, we first used the program 'anvi-gen-contigs-database' turning MAGs into a contigs-db, then used the program 'anvi-profile' to process the BAM file and generate individual anvi'o profile database, and used the program 'anvi-merge' to merge these individual profiles into a final merged profile database which stored the coverage statistics of each MAGs in the 12 metagenomes. Finally, the program 'anvi-summarize' generated mean coverage values of each MAG and each gene within them across the twelve metagenomes and was visualized by the program 'anvi-interactive' in 'gene mode'.

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Environmental context

The site of the RAS deployment is located southeast of Kerguelen Island in the Indian Sector of the Southern Ocean (Figure 1). This naturally Fe-fertilized region has been extensively studied during previous oceanographic cruises focusing on distinct time periods, that are early spring, mid and late summer (projects KEOPS1&2 and MOBYDICK). The deployment of the RAS from 25 October 2016 to 24 February 2017 has for the first time provided a full seasonal picture of the physical context (Pellichero et al., 2020), inorganic nutrient concentrations and characteristics of the consecutive phytoplankton blooms and their carbon and trace element export (Blain et al., 2021, 2022). Briefly, the spring phytoplankton bloom started in late October and peaked by mid-November and the summer bloom occurred in early January (Figure S1A). Diatoms dominated both blooms but varied considerably in their composition between seasons (Blain et al., 2021). Surface water temperature steadily increased from 1.70°C to 4.17°C over the course of the sampling period. Concentrations of nitrate (range 21.95 to 27.69 μM) and silicic acid (range 2.45-8.24 μM) decreased during the observation period, while ammonium concentrations (range 0.3 to 2 μM) reached a maximum in late December (Figure S1B) (Blain et al., 2021). Seasonal trends in Fe and C transporters In total 28 662 Fe-related genes were annotated in the FeGenie database, 66 005 genes related to substrate transport in the TCDB database and 136 460 genes related to enzymatic activity in the CAZymes database. Fe-related genes exhibited lowest normalized gene abundances (genes per kilobase million, GPM) (10-600 GPM), followed by organic carbon membrane transporters (600 to 1400 GPM) and CAZymes (7000 to 12000 GPM). Normalized gene abundances (GPM) of each of these categories revealed pronounced seasonal patterns (Figure 2). Transporters of Fe ions (Fe³⁺, Fe²⁺) (Figure 2A), siderophores

and heme (Figure 2B) had the highest GPM after the blooms. Increases in GPM occurred rapidly after the spring bloom and with a time lag of about one month after the summer bloom. Siderophore biosynthesis genes had one peak during the spring bloom, and a second peak after the summer bloom in parallel with various Fe transporters (Figure 2B). Organic substrate transporters revealed the highest GPM during the spring bloom and a smaller peak was observed one month after the summer bloom (Figure 2C). Organic substrate transporters increased also during the final spring bloom decline, following the seasonal peak in CAZymes. The most abundant transporters of Fe³⁺ ions were fbpABC, futA1/A2 and fbpB-futB, and the dominant Fe²⁺ ion transporter genes were *feoAB* and *efeUOB* (Figure 3A) (Table S4). Siderophore uptake genes were dominated by the *exbB-exbD-tonB* complex and among the genes identified for the transport of specific siderophores were those of pyoverdin (fpv), aerobactin (hat), ferric enterobactin (pir), ferripyochelin (fpt), and vibrioferrin (pvu) (Figure 3B). We further identified four siderophore biosynthesis clusters related to pyochelin (pch), pyoverdin (pvd), rhizobactin (rhb) and vanchrobactin (vab) (Figures S2 and S3). Among other Fe-related genes identified, a seasonal trend driven by the two phytoplankton blooms was also detectable for Fe regulation (fur, dtxR, fecR), while genes for iron storage (ftn) remained stable over time (Figure S2). Transporters of organic substrates were dominated by those for amino acids and proteins, followed by sugars, glycerol and organic acids, and transporters for vitamins were also present throughout the season (Figure 3C). During the sampling period, 379 families of CAZymes were identified, among which 191 glycoside hydrolase (GH) families, 82 glycosyltransferase (GT) families, 41 polysaccharide lyase (PL) families, 34 carbohydrate-binding module (CBM) class families, 16 carbohydrate esterase (CE) families and 13 auxiliary activities (AA) families (Figure 3D). To obtain a more detailed picture of the seasonal patterns of genes involved in Fe and organic

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substrate acquisition, we determined the similarity in the temporal trend among individual genes (Figure 4). This analysis highlights 4 periods. The first period, corresponding to the spring bloom (6 Nov and 17 Nov), was characterized by seasonally highest GPM of genes coding for siderophore synthesis (e.g., Pyochelin (pch), Pyoverdin (pvd), Vanchrobactin (vab)) and transport (e.g., catecholate receptor (piu), ferripyochelin (fpt), Vibriobactin (viuB)), concurrently with several organic substance transporters, such as amino acids, sugars, spermidine/putrescine, and sulfonates. During the second period, that corresponds to the immediately following decline of the spring bloom (28 Nov), concurrent peaks in transporters of Fe³⁺ ions (fbp, fut), heme (hmu) and siderophores (e.g., Vibrioferrin (pvu), Aerobactin (hat), Pyoverdin (fpv)) were observed. This period further revealed high GPM of several CAZymes (GT, CE, GH). The third period extends from the final declining phase of the spring bloom to the summer bloom (9, 20 and 31 Dec) and was characterized by enhanced GPM of transporters of Fe³⁺ ions (fbpB-futB, futA1/A2, vfe). The fourth period is represented by two sampling dates one month after the summer bloom (22 Jan and 2 Feb). Siderophore synthesis genes present already during the first phase re-emerged (e.g., Pch, Pvd, Vab) in combination with a new group of siderophore synthesis (e.g., Rhizobactin (rhb)) and transport (Ferric Enterobactin (pir), Legiobactin (lbt)) genes. During the fourth period, transporters of Fe peaked in parallel with those of organic compounds and siderophore synthesis genes, a pattern that contrasted our observations during the spring bloom. Linking function to taxonomy at the family level These temporal changes in the functional repertoire were paralleled by shifts in the prokaryotic community composition (Liu et al., 2020) raising the question of the link between microbial diversity and Fe and organic substrate acquisition. To investigate whether the genes of interest were harbored by specific prokaryotic groups we assigned the taxonomy

of the individual genes belonging to the different gene categories. We illustrate here the

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taxonomic assignments of 4 genes, each representing the transport of a distinct form of Fe and each characterized by a marked seasonal trend; these are transport of Fe³⁺ ions (fbp) and Fe²⁺ ions (*feo*), of heme (*hmu*) and the siderophore ferric enterobactin receptor (*pir*) (Figure 5). The taxonomic assignments of other Fe-related genes are illustrated in Figure S4. The transporter fbp (Fe³⁺ ions) was assigned to several prokaryotic groups and their respective relative contributions changed considerably over time (Figure 5). During the spring bloom (period 1) when GPM were low, transport of Fe³⁺ ions was assigned to *Pseudomonadaceae*, Pelagibacteraceae and Rhodobacteraceae, while Nitrincolaceae dominated the taxonomic assignments (75 % of all fbp genes) when GPM peaked during the bloom decline (period 2). Rhodobacteraceae (in particular the genus Amylibacter, Figure S5) were the most abundant contributors to fbp (19-51%) during the remaining season and Pseudomonadaceae had an increasing share towards the end of the season (4-35%). A contrasting picture was obtained for feo (transport of Fe²⁺ ions) that was assigned to mainly two groups, Sphingomonadaceae in early spring (period 1) (28-39%) and Flavobacteriaceae throughout the remaining season (16-89%). Flavobacteriaceae were dominated by the genus Polaribacter (Figure S5) during the spring bloom decline (period 2). Heme uptake (hmu) revealed a seasonal abundance pattern similar to that of fbp, but had distinct taxonomic assignments. Porticoccaceae (7-43%), Flavobacteriaceae (2-76%) and Nostocaceae (2-14%) were the main contributors to heme uptake throughout the season. During the bloom decline (phase 2) when hmu peaked Polaribacter irgensii (Flavobacteriaceae) had a dominant contribution, and Cellulophaga, hydrogenovibrio and Kordia (Flavobacteriaceae) (Figure S5) prevailed over the remaining season. The ferric enterobactin receptor pir had a seasonal abundance pattern different to that of heme, with peaks during period 1 and 4, but overall similar taxonomic assignments at the family level. Flavobacteriaceae (6-66%), with substantial contributions of Polaribacter, Pseudomonadaceae and Porticoccaceae (1-13%) were the dominant contributors to pir, and

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Sphingomonadaceae (0-15%) and Cellvibrionacaea (0-30%) had seasonally variable contributions. The taxonomic assignments of genes encoding for organic substrate transporters and CAZymes revealed overall small differences in the prokaryotic groups contributing to each category, but marked temporal changes in their relative contributions were observed, in particular during period 2 (Figures S6 and S7). Genome-resolved functional potential To obtain insights on the functional potential for the acquisition of both Fe and organic substrates, we used previously published metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) obtained from samples collected in the Kerguelen region, including our study site (Sun et al., 2021). We choose MAGs belonging to SAR11, Nitrincolaceae, Rhodobacteracea, and the genus Polaribacter (Flavobacteriaceae) (Figure 6 and Table S5). These MAGs belong to prokaryotic groups with substantial contributions to the different gene categories (Figure 5 and Figures S5-S7). Further, ASVs belonging to each of these groups were shown to be abundant and have pronounced seasonal relative abundance patterns, based on 16S rRNA gene sequencing from the same RAS deployment (Liu et al., 2020). Mapping our metagenomic short reads to these MAGs revealed that they largely varied in their respective coverages and had each a distinct seasonal trend. SAR11 MAG133 had slightly higher coverage in early spring as compared to the remaining season. By contrast, Nitrincolaceae MAG115 revealed one sharp peak during period 2. The 2 *Rhodobacteraceae* MAGs had both higher coverage during the transition between the spring and summer blooms (period 3). By contrast, the 2 Polaribacter MAGs differed in their overall coverage and their seasonal dynamics. The inventories of the Fe- and organic substrate-acquisition genes provided some insights on the metabolic versatility of these MAGs. SAR11 MAG133 harbored a reduced set of Fe (fut, fbpB-futB, Fe³⁺ ions) and organic substrate (sugars and amino acids) transporters. In Nitrincolaceae MAG115 we identified transporters for siderophore-bound Fe (exbB-exbD

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complex and *fpv* for pyoverdin) and for several organic substrates (sugars, amino acids, peptides) and vitamins. Both *Rhodobacteraceae* MAGs harbored transporters for Fe³⁺ ions (*yfe, fbp*), but appear to differ in their potential of organic substrate acquisition. We identified transporters of several substrates in *Rhodobacteraceae* MAG20 while only amino acid transporters were detected in *Rhodobacteraceae* MAG52. Among the MAGs considered here, *Polaribacter* MAG88 had the most diverse Fe-gene inventory, including heme and bacterioferritin, absent from MAG64. The 2 *Polaribacter* MAGs harbored both transporters of Fe²⁺ ions (*feo*), proteins and carboxylic acids.

Discussion

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We observed pronounced seasonal patterns in the prevalence of genes for the transport of Fe and organic substrates by prokaryotic communities in the Southern Ocean. The acquisition of Fe was temporally decoupled from that of organic carbon over the course of the spring phytoplankton bloom, while a concerted access to both elements occurred after the summer bloom. These dynamics on the community level likely result from seasonal changes in the requirements of Fe and organic carbon and the functional capabilities to acquire the different chemical forms in which these elements are present by diverse microbial taxa. Using metagenome assembled genomes, we illustrate differences in the Fe- and organic substrate acquisition repertoires among abundant prokaryotic taxa. These observations combined with marked seasonal changes in microbial community composition (Liu et al., 2020) provide new insights on the potential ecological niches of prokaryotes in the Fe- and organic carbonconstrained Southern Ocean. Seasonal microbial response to phytoplankton blooms induced by natural iron fertilization Natural Fe-fertilization in the region off Kerguelen Island leads to annually occurring phytoplankton blooms that impact ecosystem structure and functioning (Blain et al., 2007). Heterotrophic prokaryotes respond markedly to these blooms in terms of growth, biomass production and respiration and thereby contribute to the processing of a substantial fraction of primary production during different seasons (Christaki et al., 2021). The microbial communities present and active in these naturally Fe-fertilized waters vary over the course of the bloom (Liu et al., 2020) and are distinct to communities in surrounding HNLC waters during different seasons (West et al., 2008; Landa et al., 2016; Hernandez-Magana et al., 2021). Differences among prokaryotic taxa in Fe requirements and acquisition strategies as well as in the metabolic potential for the uptake of diverse phytoplankton-derived organic substrates could be one underlying mechanism (Teeling et al., 2012; Debeljak et al., 2019).

Niche differentiation in relation to Fe and organic carbon was recently described on a spatial scale (Sun et al., 2021), but a temporal perspective is thus far lacking. Microbial strategies and Fe sources during the spring bloom The prevalence of organic substrate transporters during the spring bloom (period 1) points to a community that rapidly responds to the supply of labile phytoplankton-derived substrates. Organic carbon has been identified as a growth-limiting resource for the winter community in the Kerguelen region (Obernosterer et al., 2015; Landa et al., 2016). Our data suggest that amino acids, organic acids, sugars and sulfonates are the most prominent substances utilized, confirmed by metatranscriptomics and -proteomics data at the same study site (Debeljak et al., unpublished) and as reported previously from phytoplankton blooms in other marine environments (Teeling et al., 2012; T. B. Francis et al., 2021). The seasonal pattern of organic substrate transporters was, however, decoupled from that of Fe-transporters during the spring bloom, raising the question of how prokaryotes meet their Fe-requirements. Dissolved Fe concentrations are high in surface waters in early spring (0.16 nM) (Quéroué et al., 2015), but heterotrophic prokaryotes compete with fast growing small phytoplankton for this Fe source (Fourquez et al., 2015). As reported for diverse members of this clade (Liu et al., 2020; Dinasquet et al., 2022) SAR11 MAG133 was abundant in early spring. The small streamlined genomes of SAR11 (Giovannoni, 2017) have reduced Fe-uptake repertoires (Hogle et al., 2016), as observed also for SAR11 MAG133 (Fe³⁺ ion transporters fut, fbpBfutB). Using MICRO-CARD-FISH, SAR11 accounted for about 25% of community Fe uptake, while the contribution to leucine uptake was 50% in early spring in fertilized and HNLC waters (Fourquez et al., 2016), indicating an efficient organic substrate utilization even under conditions when access to Fe is constrained. Low Fe requirements and an efficient transport of Fe and organic substrates could be a strategy of SAR11 to take

advantage of the pool of labile substrates supplied by phytoplankton.

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Lithogenic particles present a potentially important source of Fe in early spring above the Kerguelen plateau (Blain et al., 2022). This Fe source is geochemically complex and needs to be rendered biologically available via dissolution as for example through the binding to high affinity ligands (Kalinowski et al., 2000). Among the strongest binding ligands are catecholate-type siderophores and particle-associated prokaryotes were shown to express the genes implicated in the respective biosynthesis pathways (Debeljak et al., 2021). The prevalence of a catecholate-type siderophore receptor gene (piu) during spring indicates that this Fe source could in part account for the prokaryotic demand. Taxonomic assignments revealed that *Pseudomonadaceae* were the most prominent group harboring this receptor, an observation that supports previous findings on the role of this group in siderophore biosynthesis and uptake (Schalk et al., 2020). An alternative strategy could be the utilization of an internal reservoir, such as Fe stored in specific proteins (bacterioferritin, Ftn) (Andrews et al., 2003). This capacity was shown for strains belonging to Pseudoalteromonas (Mazzotta et al., 2020) and several prokaryotic groups, in particular Flavobacteriaceae, Halieaceae and Altermonadaceae contributed to the expression of the respective genes above the Kerguelen plateau in early spring (Debeljak et al., 2019). We identified the gene coding for ferritin in Polaribacter MAG88, which had increased coverage during spring, in contrast to Polaribacter MAG64 that lacked this gene and revealed enhanced coverage later in the season. These observations illustrate potential niche differentiation among closely related taxa. The utilization of internal Fe stored as ferritin by some taxa could be a possible mechanism for the apparent temporal decoupling in requirements of organic substrates and Fe. Fe acquisition strategies during the spring bloom decline Microbial gene inventories related to Fe and organic carbon transport drastically changed

during the decline of the spring bloom (period 2). The prevalence of all CAZyme families

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indicates the presence of a chemically different pool of organic matter and the need to cleave polysaccharides to access organic carbon (Teeling et al., 2012). The synchronized enhancement in the GPM of different types of Fe-transporters, including those for Fe³⁺ and Fe^{2+} ions, Fe bound to siderophores (Vibrioferrin (pvu), Aerobactin (hat), Pyoverdin (fpv)) and heme suggest an increased prokaryotic Fe demand in response to the shift in the organic carbon regime during the phytoplankton bloom decline. In contrast to early spring, remineralization is a key process providing different sources of Fe to the system. Our observations allow us to provide insights into possible Fe and organic carbon related strategies of three bacterial groups with distinct abundance patterns. Nitrincolaceae, represented by MAG115, rapidly responded to the bloom decline. The marked seasonal pattern of MAG115, reaching highest coverages of all MAGs considered here, matched the relative abundances of the respective ASVs as determined from 16S rRNA gene sequences (Liu et al., 2020). Nitrincolaceae dominated the taxonomic assignments of transporters of Fe³⁺ ions (fbp) during the bloom decline and MAG115 harbored several siderophore uptake genes, such as pyoverdine (fpv), a siderophore containing catecholate and hydroxamate groups. MAG115 also contained a large repertoire of organic substrate transporters indicating its capacity in the uptake of various labile compounds (B. Francis et al., 2021). The rapid response to a pulsed supply of organic carbon by taking advantage of its potential to utilize different forms of Fe suggests a copiotrophic metabolic strategy, and idea that is further supported by the concurrent expression both at the transcriptomic and proteomic level of genes related to Fe- and organic carbon transport by Nitrincolaceae MAG115 (Debeljak et al., unpublished). Polaribacter MAG88 (Flavobacteriaceae) also responded to the bloom decline, but its coverage remained comparatively low. This MAG harbored a large repertoire of transporters for organic substrates and Fe, and among the latter we identified the heme transporter hmu.

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Heme is a porphyrin-bound source of Fe that can account for a large fraction of cellular Fe concentrations in phytoplankton and can become a source to heterotrophs when cells are destroyed such as by viral lysis or grazing (Honey et al., 2013). Utilization of heme was demonstrated experimentally for strains belonging to the *Roseobacter* clade (Roe et al., 2013; Hogle et al., 2017), but many other abundant microbial groups appear to lack heme transporters (Hogle et al., 2017). In the present study, Flavobacteriaceae had a substantial share of the taxonomic assignments of heme transporters (hmu), in particular during the bloom decline. Our data suggest that members belonging to Flavobacteriaceae could use this source of Fe, to account for its requirements during the degradation of phytoplankton derived organic substances. This potential niche specialization could play an important role in large particles where access to this source of Fe is facilitated. Both Roseobacter MAGs had increased coverage during the transition between the spring decline and summer bloom, matching observations of members of this clade at the ASVs level (Liu et al., 2020). While functional Fe-profiles were overall similar for both MAGs, MAG20 appears to have a larger organic substrate repertoire than MAG52. An analysis of Roseobacter genomes revealed the presence of multiple and diverse pathways for the acquisition of inorganic and organically bound Fe and several copies of ABC transporters (Hogle et al., 2016). This indicates that this group can make use of a variety of chemical forms of Fe, an idea that is supported by observations on the transcriptomic (Debeljak et al., 2019, 2021) level. This versatility with respect to Fe transport let us hypothesize that specialization of organic substrate utilization could be the underlying mechanism for the similar seasonal patterns of the two Roseobacter MAGs. Parallel Fe and C acquisition following the productive season Despite the smaller magnitude of the summer phytoplankton bloom as compared to spring,

the community functional repertoire markedly changed with a time lag of about 1 month,

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contrasting the rapid response to the spring bloom. The late summer period is characterized by slightly higher concentrations of dissolved organic carbon and seasonally highest prokaryotic abundance (Christaki et al., 2021; Hernandez-Magana et al., 2021) and remineralization presents the main source of Fe (Blain et al., 2008; Sarthou et al., 2008). These environmental conditions could be favorable for the energetically costly biosynthesis of siderophores, supported by our observation of the diverse assemblage of genes for the acquisition of siderophore-bound Fe at the end of the season. Among these the gene of the siderophore receptor pir (ferric enterobactin receptor) was assigned to Flavobacteriaceae, and the two Polaribacter MAGs harbored both this gene. Many members of Flavobacteriaceae, including Polaribacter, are specialized in the degradation of complex compounds, such as polysaccharides (Xing et al., 2015; Kappelmann et al., 2019). Our results indicate that the concurrent access to organic substrates and siderophore-bound Fe could be a strategy that renders these taxa efficient degraders of organic matter in the Southern Ocean. By considering transporters for different forms of Fe and organic carbon, two elements that were shown to constrain prokaryotic growth in the Southern Ocean, we provide insights on temporal dynamics in nutrient acquisition at the community level. The distinct seasonal patterns in Fe transporters with respect to those of organic substrates suggest that there could be a switch in nutrient requirements along the season. Our results extend the use of biomarker genes that have allowed to identify nutrient stress of specific microbial groups on spatial scales (Saito et al., 2014; Garcia et al., 2020; Ustick et al., 2021). The taxon-specific genomic capacities to access the different chemical forms of Fe could be the basis for ecological niches and drive the observed changes in prokaryotic community composition (Liu et al., 2020) as an acclimation to the supply of phytoplankton-derived organic matter in this naturally fertilized region of the Southern Ocean.

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500	Author contributions
501	Rui Zhang, Pavla Debeljak, Stephane Blain and Ingrid Obernosterer designed the research.
502	Bioinformatic analyses were performed by Rui Zhang. Rui Zhang and Ingrid Obernosterer
503	wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to editing the manuscript.
504	Acknowledgements
505	We thank the team of the Technical Division of the Institute of the Sciences of the Universe
506	(DT-INSU) for the design and construction of the mooring for the RAS. We thank the
507	captains and the crews of the R/V Marion Dufresne for their support during the deployment
508	and the recovery of the RAS. The project SOCLIM (Southern Ocean and Climate) was
509	supported by the Climate Initiative of the BNP Paribas Foundation, the French Polar Institute
510	(Institut Polaire Paul Emile Victor), and the French program LEFE-CYBER of the CNRS-
511	INSU. We thank Yan Liu who carried out the DNA extraction. We thank the French Institute
512	of Bioinformatics (IFB; https://www.france-bioinformatique.fr) for providing computing
513	resources. We thank to the reviewers for their insightful comments on a previous version of
514	this manuscript. This work is part of the PhD thesis of R.Z. supported by the China
515	Scholarship Council (CSC; No. 202006220057).
516	Competing of interests
517	The authors declare no competing interests.
518	Data availability statement
519	The data sets generated and analysed during the current study are available in the European
520	Nucleotide Archive (ENA) repository at https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena under the project ID
521	PRJEB56376.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Map of the region around Kerguelen Island and location of the deployment of the 702 703 remote autonomous sampler (white dot). Insert shows global position of Kerguelen Island as 704 indicated by a square. Monthly composite of chlorophyll for November 2016. Modified from Blain et al. (Blain et al., 2022). 705

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Figure 2. A. Temporal changes of Chlorophyll a (green shaded area) and abundance of genes 707 for Fe³⁺ and Fe²⁺ transporters (A), siderophore-bound Fe and heme transporters, and 708 siderophore biosynthesis (B) and carbon substrate transporters and carbohydrate-active 709 710 enzymes (CAZymes) (C). Normalized gene abundances are given in genes per kilobase 711 million (GPM) (see Material and Methods for details).

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Figure 3. Abundance of individual genes contributing to Fe³⁺ and Fe²⁺ transport (A), heme 713 and siderophore transport (B), organic substrate transport (C) and carbohydrate-active 714 enzymes (CAZymes, D) at the 12 time points. Transporters of fatty acids, lipoproteins, 715 716 ammonia, exopolysaccharides, and urea are pooled as 'others'. CAZyme classes include auxiliary activities (AA), carbohydrate-binding modules (CBM), carbohydrate esterases 717 718 (CE), cohesin, glycoside hydrolases (GH), glycosyltransferases (GT), polysaccharide lyases (PL), and S-layer homology domain (SLH). Normalized gene abundances are given in genes 719 per kilobase million (GPM) (see Material and Methods for details). 720

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Figure 4. Heatmap illustrates the seasonal patterns of genes involved in Fe and organic substrate transporters and related processes. Similarity between genes is based on Euclidian distance cluster analysis. Color intensity is determined by Z-score transformed normalized gene abundances (GPM). The vertical lines separate the four periods.

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Figure 5. Temporal changes of normalized gene abundance (GPM) and relative contribution of prokaryotic groups to specific genes associated with Fe³⁺, Fe²⁺, heme and siderophore 728 transport. Prokaryotic groups are based on the family level. Prokaryotic groups discussed in the text are marked in red. 730

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- Figure 6. Mean coverage of MAGs in the twelve samples and inventories of genes related to 732
- Fe and organic substrate transport and CAZymes. Mean coverage on the upper panel 733
- represents the average depth of coverage across contig (the coverage of each nucleotide in a 734
- 735 contig divided by the length of the contig). Mean coverage on the lower panel represents the
- Σ coverage of each bp in a gene / gene length. 736