Global mesozooplankton communities show lower connectivity in deep oceanic layers

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Abstract

Mesozooplankton is a key component of the ocean, regulating global processes such as the carbon pump, and ensuring energy transfer from lower to higher trophic levels. Yet, despite the importance of understanding mesozooplankton diversity, distribution and connectivity at global scale to predict the impact of climate change in marine ecosystems, there is still fragmented knowledge. To fill this gap, we applied DNA metabarcoding to mesozooplankton samples collected during the Malaspina-2010 circumnavigation expedition across temperate and tropical oceans from the surface to bathypelagic depths. By conducting a hidden diversity analysis, we highlight the still scarce knowledge on global mesozooplankton diversity and identify the Indian Ocean and the deep sea as the most understudied areas. By analysing mesozooplankton community spatial distribution, we confirm global biogeographical patterns across the temperate to tropical oceans both in the vertical and horizontal gradients. Additionally, we reveal a consistent increase in mesozooplankton beta-diversity with depth, indicating reduced connectivity at deeper layers, and identify a water mass type-mediated structuring of bathypelagic communities, instead of an oceanic basin-mediated as observed at upper layers. This suggests limited dispersal at deep ocean layers, most likely due to weaker currents and lower mixing of water mass types. Overall, our work supports the neutral theory of biodiversity and thus the importance of oceanic currents and barriers in dispersal in shaping global plankton communities, and provides key knowledge for predicting the impact of climate change in the deep-sea.

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4 Running title: Low deep-sea mesozooplankton connectivity

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19 Abstract

Mesozooplankton is a key component of the ocean, regulating global processes such as the 20 21 carbon pump, and ensuring energy transfer from lower to higher trophic levels. Yet, despite 22 the importance of understanding mesozooplankton diversity, distribution and connectivity 23 at global scale to predict the impact of climate change in marine ecosystems, there is still fragmented knowledge. To fill this gap, we applied DNA metabarcoding to 24 mesozooplankton samples collected during the Malaspina-2010 circumnavigation 25 26 expedition across temperate and tropical oceans from the surface to bathypelagic depths. By conducting a hidden diversity analysis, we highlight the still scarce knowledge on global 27 mesozooplankton diversity and identify the Indian Ocean and the deep sea as the most 28 29 understudied areas. By analysing mesozooplankton community spatial distribution, we confirm global biogeographical patterns across the temperate to tropical oceans both in the 30 vertical and horizontal gradients. Additionally, we reveal a consistent increase in 31 32 mesozooplankton beta-diversity with depth, indicating reduced connectivity at deeper layers, and identify a water mass type-mediated structuring of bathypelagic communities, 33 instead of an oceanic basin-mediated as observed at upper layers. This suggests limited 34 dispersal at deep ocean layers, most likely due to weaker currents and lower mixing of water 35 36 mass types. Overall, our work supports the neutral theory of biodiversity and thus the 37 importance of oceanic currents and barriers in dispersal in shaping global plankton communities, and provides key knowledge for predicting the impact of climate change in 38 39 the deep-sea.

- 40 Keywords: deep ocean, zooplankton, connectivity, dispersal, oceanic currents,
- 41 environmental selection.

42 Introduction

Marine mesozooplankton is comprised of a wide range of functionally, phylogenetically, 43 44 and morphologically diverse organisms whose size range from 0.2 to 20 mm (Bucklin et al., 45 2021; Steinberg & Landry, 2017) and which include some of the most abundant animals on 46 Earth, such as copepods or euphausiids (Turner, 2004). Mesozooplankton taxa are key components of marine ecosystems, ensuring energy transfer from lower to higher trophic 47 48 levels (Zeldis & Décima, 2020) as main predators of producers and primary consumers 49 (Calbet, 2001) and as main food source of a number of organisms, including many relevant commercial fish species (Hays, Richardson, & Robinson, 2005; Turner, 2004). Additionally, 50 51 many mesozooplankton species perform diel vertical migrations, significantly contributing to trophic connectivity, and are deeply involved in global biogeochemical cycles such as the 52 53 biological carbon pump through recycling sinking organic matter and enhancing carbon sequestration in the deep ocean (Bode, Koppelmann, Teuber, Hagen, & Auel, 2018; 54 Hernández-León et al., 2020; Kelly et al., 2019; Liszka, Manno, Stowasser, Robinson, & 55 Tarling, 2019; Steinberg & Landry, 2017; X. Zhang & Dam, 1997). Specific plankton 56 community composition and trophic networks have been related to the local intensity of 57 the carbon pump (Ducklow, Steinberg, & Buesseler, 2001; Guidi et al., 2016) and thus 58 59 increasing knowledge on plankton diversity and on how they are spatially distributed and 60 connected along the horizontal and vertical ocean gradients is essential to monitor and predict the impacts derived from climate change or other anthropogenic perturbations 61 62 (Chiba et al., 2018; Hays et al., 2005; Ratnarajah et al., 2023). Yet, mesozooplankton

diversity still has far to go to be fully described (Bucklin et al., 2021), as well as its global
structuring and the factors shaping it along the ocean.

65 Global structuring of planktonic groups in the ocean is assumed to be determined by the 66 interaction between dispersal, speciation, drift, and selection (Vellend, 2010). Dispersal 67 refers to organismal transport, and tends to homogenise community composition among sites (i.e., to decrease beta-diversity; see Whittaker (1960)) (Soininen, Lennon, & Hillebrand, 68 69 2007). Speciation refers to the appearance of new variants and ultimately species and, 70 contrarily to dispersal, contributes to increasing beta-diversity between sites (Casteleyn et al., 2010). On the other hand, drift and selection act at the alpha-diversity level, shaping the 71 relative abundance of the different species in a community and defining the local diversity 72 73 (Gilbert & Levine, 2017; Hellweger, van Sebille, & Fredrick, 2014). The interaction between these processes typically results in a distance-decay pattern between biological 74 communities, which is represented by an increase in beta-diversity with increasing 75 geographical distance (Nekola & White, 1999). Distance-decay patterns have been reported 76 from microbes to larger plankton (Cermeño, de Vargas, Abrantes, & Falkowski, 2010; Chust, 77 Irigoien, Chave, & Harris, 2013; Villarino et al., 2022; Villarino et al., 2018). Beta-diversity 78 measurements are also a proxy of connectivity between communities (i.e., the rate of 79 80 migration of individuals and species between two communities) (Giner et al., 2020; Villarino et al., 2018), so that the higher the beta-diversity the less connected the communities are. 81

The primary factors shaping global plankton distribution and community composition patterns are still unclear. Global plankton structuring in the ocean has been largely considered to follow the classical niche differentiation hypothesis ("everything is

everywhere but the environment selects"; Hutchinson (1957)), which considers selection as 85 the main factor determining plankton distribution. Recently, the importance of 86 geographical barriers and oceanic currents in shaping plankton community distribution has 87 been further acknowledged (Chust et al., 2017), and the role of drift and barriers to dispersal 88 has been recognised, in line with the neutral theory of biodiversity (Dornelas, Connolly, & 89 90 Hughes, 2006; Hubbell, 2001; Pueyo, 2006). In the upper oceanic layers, global plankton dispersal and community assembly rules have been related to oceanic currents and 91 environmental factors (Richter et al., 2020; Villarino et al., 2018; Watson et al., 2011), and 92 to other causes such as body size (Villarino et al., 2018). Knowledge on planktonic spatial 93 distribution patterns at deeper layers is even much scarcer than at upper depths (Chust et 94 al., 2017; St. John et al., 2016). The deep ocean is environmentally more homogeneous 95 (Bode et al., 2018; Danovaro, Dell'Anno, & Pusceddu, 2004) and with generally weaker 96 97 oceanic currents (Reid, 1969, 1994). Hence it is expected that plankton dispersal and spatial patterns of community composition are differently influenced by dispersal and selection 98 99 than in upper layers, as recently reported for prokaryotes and picoeukaryotes (Giner et al., 100 2020; Villarino et al., 2022).

101 In the horizontal oceanic gradient, epipelagic mesozooplankton diversity and community 102 composition have been reported to vary latitudinally and to be linked to variations in 103 productivity, temperature, salinity and to phytoplankton community composition (Brandão 104 et al., 2021; Domínguez, Garrido, Santos, & dos Santos, 2017; Ibarbalz et al., 2019; Saporiti 105 et al., 2015; Soviadan et al., 2022), in addition to oxygen concentration at mesopelagic 106 depths (Soviadan et al., 2022). Yet, global horizontal mesozooplankton patterns below the

mesopelagic zone remain unexplored. Regarding the vertical oceanic gradient, 107 mesozooplankton communities are known to be strongly structured along the water 108 column, with many species showing a clear preference for specific depths (Fernández de 109 Puelles et al., 2019; Hirai, Tachibana, & Tsuda, 2020; Pearman & Irigoien, 2015; Sommer, 110 Van Woudenberg, Lenz, Cepeda, & Goetze, 2017). Because many mesozooplankton 111 112 organisms perform vertical migrations (Ohman, 1990) and transport direction is related to 113 depth (Fiksen, Jørgensen, Kristiansen, Vikebø, & Huse, 2007), the resulting distribution pattern of mesozooplankton is a complex combination of such processes together with 114 115 adaptation to water mass environment, demographic traits and stochasticity.

116 Studies analysing the global distribution and connectivity of mesozooplankton communities and the ecological mechanisms shaping them are limited partly due to the scarcity of 117 118 globally scaled surveys. Additionally, exploring the deep ocean has added challenges related to the sampling at high depths. To date, most studies on mesozooplankton have been 119 carried out at local (Domínguez et al., 2017; Ershova & Kosobokova, 2019; Kim, Lee, Lee, 120 121 Oh, & Kim, 2020; Pearman & Irigoien, 2015) or regional (Carlotti et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 122 2022; Feliú, Pagano, Hidalgo, & Carlotti, 2020; Landry, Hood, & Davies, 2020; Siokou et al., 2019) scales, and only some studies covered large oceanic transects (Bode et al., 2018; Hirai 123 et al., 2020; Vereshchaka, Abyzova, Lunina, & Musaeva, 2017) or global oceanic areas 124 125 (Fernández de Puelles et al., 2019; Soviadan et al., 2022). Another limitation lies on the 126 taxonomic identification of mesozooplankton being a time-consuming task that greatly 127 depends on often lacking taxonomic expertise and information of the targeted organisms (Hirai & Tsuda, 2015). Thus, many studies only consider abundant crustaceans (mainly 128

copepods) or identify mesozooplankton groups at higher taxonomic levels (Domínguez et
al., 2017; Ershova & Kosobokova, 2019; Siokou et al., 2019; Soviadan et al., 2022). Also,
some mesozooplankton groups such as gelatinous organisms are usually under sampled or
damaged while sampling with traditional methods (i.e., plankton nets), so that they cannot
be identified. The combination of these issues has made it difficult to gather knowledge on
the structuring and distribution patterns of mesozooplankton on a global scale.

Combining global oceanographic surveys and DNA metabarcoding, i.e., large-scale 135 136 taxonomic identification of complex samples via analysis of one or few orthologous DNA regions (Bucklin, Lindeque, Rodriguez-Ezpeleta, Albaina, & Lehtiniemi, 2016), is a promising 137 approach for plankton research. Applying DNA metabarcoding to plankton virtually 138 139 overcomes the need of taxonomic expertise, ensures accurate taxonomic classification of organisms difficult to identify (Bucklin et al., 2016; Govindarajan et al., 2021; Hirai & Tsuda, 140 141 2015) and allows the detection of hidden diversity, i.e., diversity that remains to be discovered, described, and/or sequenced (Lindeque, Parry, Harmer, Somerfield, & Atkinson, 142 143 2013).

Here, we aim to increase the knowledge on mesozooplankton biodiversity, community structuring, and connectivity in the global ocean along both horizontal and vertical oceanic gradients by i) identifying the oceanic regions—both in the vertical and horizontal scales with a higher amount of hidden diversity and thus needing more taxonomic efforts, ii) testing whether patterns in mesozooplankton alpha- and beta-diversity and community structure differ along the vertical and horizontal gradients at a global oceanic scale, and iii) unveiling the factors determining mesozooplankton spatial distribution and connectivity at

different oceanic depths. To achieve these goals, we applied DNA metabarcoding to 151 mesozooplankton samples collected during the Malaspina-2010 circumnavigation 152 expedition (Duarte, 2015) covering a large temperate to tropical oceanic area comprising 153 the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans, and four depth ranges, including the epipelagic, 154 upper mesopelagic, lower mesopelagic and bathypelagic layers (down to 3000 m depth). 155 156 We hypothesise: i) that unexplored oceanic regions, such as the deep sea, harbour a higher proportion of hidden mesozooplankton diversity than those from upper layers, ii) that 157 mesozooplankton communities are subjected to vertical and horizontal oceanic gradients 158 at a global scale, which generate global biogeographic patterns, and iii) that 159 mesozooplankton spatial distribution and connectivity differ at the different ocean layers, 160 with higher dissimilarity between deep-sea communities than between communities at 161 upper layers due to the average weaker deep-sea currents compared to surface ones 162 (Manral et al., 2023; Reid, 1994). 163

164

165 Material and methods

166 Sampling and environmental data collection

167 Mesozooplankton samples were collected during the Malaspina 2010 circumnavigation 168 expedition (from December 2010 to July 2011; Duarte (2015)) from 43 different stations 169 (Figure 1) using a 0.5 m² Hydrobios MultiNet (300 μ m mesh size) programmed to open at 170 regular depths (0–200, 200–500, 500–1000, 1000–2000 and 2000–3000 m depth) from the 171 surface to 3,000 m depth for a total of 133 samples. All samples were collected during

daytime (10:00 to 14:00 am local time). Additional details on the sampling and stations can 172 173 be found in Fernández de Puelles et al. (2019). On the cruise, each net was softly rinsed with filtered seawater to capture all organisms, which were stored in 50 ml flasks filled with 174 absolute ethanol. At each sampling station a Rosette sampling system fitted with a Seabird 175 0911Plus CTD probe was deployed (Duarte, 2015), measuring seawater temperature (°C), 176 177 conductivity (S/m), salinity (PSU), fluorescence (Seapoint), photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), and oxygen (ml/l) along the water column. Samples were grouped 178 according to their depth range into 0-200 m (epipelagic layer), 200-500 m (upper 179 mesopelagic), 500-1000 m (lower mesopelagic) and 1000-3000 m depth (bathypelagic); 180 when two samples covered a unique depth range, they were pooled after sequencing into 181 one unique integrated sample by summing up their absolute number of reads (i.e., samples 182 collected at 1000-2000 and 2000-3000 m depth were merged into a unique 1000-3000 m 183 184 sample). Similarly, a unique value of each environmental variable was used for each depth range, which corresponded to the average of all measurements for that depth range (Table 185 186 S1). It should be noted that we used the term mesozooplankton although the mesh size used for the sampling (300 μ m) did not exactly correspond to the size range expected for 187 188 mesozooplankton (from 200 µm to 2 mm length). This decision responded to the fact that 189 most reads and OTUs corresponded to metazoans that are known to belong to this 190 planktonic fraction.

191 DNA extraction, quantity, and quality check

Samples were centrifuged (3,500 g; 10 min) to remove ethanol and resulting zooplankton
pellets were grinded with a mortar in 1-2 ml lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM EDTA,

200 mM NaCl, 1% SDS) until no integer organism could be appreciated. After an overnight 194 incubation with proteinase K (0.2 mg/ml, final concentration) at 56 °C, samples were 195 196 centrifuged (3,500 g; 15 min) and supernatant was incubated with RNAse (37 °C; 30 min). Extracted total DNA was purified using a phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1, 197 vol:vol) mixture followed by ethanol 95% ammonium acetate 0.5 M precipitation. DNA 198 199 was suspended in 100 µl Milli-Q water and stored at -20 °C until further use. DNA 200 concentration was measured with the Quant-iT dsDNA HS assay kit using a Qubit[®] 2.0 Fluorometer (Life Technologies, California, USA), while DNA purity was inferred from 201 202 260/280 and 260/230 absorbance ratios with the ND-1000 Nanodrop (Thermo Scientific, 203 Massachusetts, USA). Integrity of extracted genomic DNA was assessed by electrophoresis 204 in 0.7% agarose. Eighteen of the samples did not yield gel-visible DNA.

205 Library preparation and sequencing

206 110 samples were amplified using the #1/#2RC primer pair (Machida & Knowlton, 2012) 207 targeting the hypervariable V4 region of the 18S rRNA gene (henceforth mac18S) and 85 208 were amplified using the mICOIintF/dgHCO2198 primer pair (Leray et al., 2013) targeting a 209 313 bp length region of the cytochrome oxidase I (COI) gene (henceforth *mICOI*). For the first PCR reaction, 2 μ l of genomic DNA (5 ng/ μ l) were added to a mix consisting of 10 μ l of 210 211 1X Phusion Master Mix (ThermoScientific, Massachusetss, USA), 0.4 μ l of each primer (0.2 212 μ M) and 7.2 μ l of MilliQ water. For the *mlCOI* primer pair, annealing was performed for 1 213 min at 46 °C, and for the mac18S primer pair annealing was performed for 30 s at 55 °C and 214 only 22 cycles were used. PCR products were purified using AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, California, USA) following manufacturer's instructions and used as templates for 215

the generation of the dual-indexed amplicons in the second PCR reaction following the "16S 216 Metagenomic Sequence Library Preparation" protocol (Illumina, California, USA) using the 217 218 Nextera XT Index Kit (Illumina, California, USA). Multiplexed PCR products were purified using the AMPure XP beads, quantified using Quant-iT dsDNA HS assay kit using a Qubit[®] 219 2.0 Fluorometer (Life Technologies, California, USA) and adjusted to 4 nM. Then, 5 μ l of 220 221 each sample were pooled, checked for size and concentration using the Agilent 2100 222 bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, California, USA), sequenced using the 2 x 300 paired end protocol on the Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, California, USA) and demultiplexed 223 224 based on their barcode sequences. Four and one samples in mICOI and mac18S, 225 respectively, produced less than 5,000 reads and were not considered for further analyses. 226 In addition, four and five pairs of samples in *mICOI* and *mac18S*, respectively, belonged to 227 the same depth range and were pooled into unique depth range samples. At the end, the mICOI and mac18S datasets consisted of a total of 77 and 104 samples (for sample details, 228 229 see Table S2).

230 *Pre-processing, clustering, and taxonomic assignment of amplicon sequences*

The *mlCOI* barcode is 313 bp length, while the *mac18S* barcode has a variable length that ranges between 537 to 595 (5 to 95th percentile) in eukaryotes (Figure S1). In order to accommodate these differences, alternative read pre-processing pipelines had to be applied for each marker (Figure S2). In both cases, raw demultiplexed reads were quality checked with FASTQC (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc). *mlCOI* forward and reverse reads were merged using FLASH (Magoč & Salzberg, 2011) with an allowed overlap range of 217 to 257 bp (20 nucleotides more and less of the expected

overlap). mac18S forward and reverse reads were merged with a minimum overlap of 162, 238 and non-merged pairs were trimmed at 220 bp (based on a median Phred score lower than 239 30 after these positions) and the forward and the reverse complement of the reverse reads 240 were pasted introducing an ambiguous base (N) in between; this was done so that no k-241 mers including fragments of the forward and reverse reads are used for taxonomic 242 243 assignment (Jeraldo et al., 2014). Using Trimmomatic (Bolger, Lohse, & Usadel, 2014), for 244 both barcodes only those resulting contigs with a minimum average Phred score of 20 and containing the appropriate primer sequence were retained for subsequent analyses. 245 246 Sequences with at least one (for *mICOI*) or two (for *mac18S*) ambiguous bases were 247 discarded using mothur (Schloss et al., 2009). Chimeras were detected and removed using UCHIME (Edgar, Haas, Clemente, Quince, & Knight, 2011). Clustering of sequences into 248 249 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) was performed using SWARM (Mahé, Rognes, Quince, 250 de Vargas, & Dunthorn, 2014) with d=1, and singletons (i.e., OTUs with one unique read in 251 the dataset) were removed. Taxonomic assignment was performed according to the naïve 252 Bayesian classifier method from (Wang, Garrity, Tiedje, & Cole, 2007) implemented in mothur against the BOLD (http://www.boldsystems.org) and SILVA (release 132) (Quast et 253 254 al., 2013) databases as references for mICOI and mac18S barcodes, respectively. For mICOI 255 dataset, the sequences assigned to metazoans in the previous step were taxonomically 256 reassigned using the more recent, curated MetaZooGene database (MZGdb) (Bucklin et al., 2021) for a more accurate classification. To compare the results between barcodes, the 257 258 taxonomic ranks of both databases were adjusted. It should be noted that, in most clades,

259 SILVA database lacked detailed taxonomy for levels below Class, preventing some analyses

260 for the *mac18S* dataset (specified along the manuscript).

261 *Hidden diversity, alpha-, and beta-diversity analyses*

To determine the amount of hidden diversity in each oceanic basin and depth layer we relied on the sequence similarity values obtained by comparing the representative sequence of each OTU against the reference sequences in MZGdb using BLAST (Altschul, Gish, Miller, Myers, & Lipman, 1990). To assess horizontal and vertical alpha-diversity patterns we used the OTU richness (number of OTUs) and H index (*diversity* function, *vegan* package version 2.5.6; Oksanen et al. (2019)) measurements.

To infer patterns in mesozooplankton community composition similarity and connectivity 268 269 between sites (beta-diversity), we used Bray-Curtis distances (vegdist function, vegan package) and phylogenetic community dissimilarities (PCD) (pcd function, picante package 270 271 version 1.8.2; Kembel et al. (2010)). For PCD, we only considered the 100 most abundant 272 OTUs due to computational requirements for the analysis. Vertical and horizontal structuring of mesozooplankton communities was examined by applying nonmetric 273 multidimensional scaling (NMDS) (metaMDS function, vegan package) analysis based on 274 Bray–Curtis and PCD distance matrices, followed by ANOSIM test (Clarke, 1993) (anosim 275 276 function, vegan package) to test for statistical significance of communities ordination according to predefined sample groups. Finally, to unveil the factors driving 277 mesozooplankton spatial distribution we relied on the correlations between 278 mesozooplankton community composition distances and environmental and least cost 279

oceanic distances, by using the Mantel test (mantel function, vegan package).
Environmental distances were based on the Euclidean distance (vegdist function, vegan package) between pairs of sites and included all environmental variables measured after
previous standardization to the same scale. The least cost oceanic distances were obtained
using the marmap package (*lc.dist* function, version 1.0.6; Pante and Simon-Bouhet (2013)).
All statistical analyses and plots were conducted in R statistical environment (R version 4.0.4; R Core Development Team (2013)).

287

288 Results

289 Global mesozooplankton composition

290 Most of the *mICOI* and *mac18S* dataset reads and OTUs were assigned to Metazoa, from 291 which over 75% and 100% of both reads and OTUs in *mICOI* and *mac18S*, respectively, were successfully assigned to phylum and used for further analysis (Figure 2a). In both datasets, 292 293 Arthropoda appeared as the most abundant and diverse group (Figure 2b). Chaetognatha, 294 Cnidaria, Mollusca, Annelida, Vertebrata (Chordata) and Tunicata (Chordata) also exhibited relevant richness and/or abundance in at least one of the datasets. The Class Hexanauplia 295 (Arthropoda), which includes copepods, was the dominant component of the 296 297 mesozooplankton community in both datasets; other abundant Classes were Malacostraca (Arthropoda; 16.4% and 6.6% of reads in *mlCOI* and *mac18S*, respectively), Hydrozoa 298 299 (Cnidaria; 7.9% and 18.5%) and Actinopterygii (Vertebrata; 6.0% and 1.0%). It should be 300 noted that some taxa were not (or hardly) amplified by one of the markers. For instance,

Ostracoda, Chaetognatha and Cephalopoda (Mollusca) were rarely or not detected by *mac18S* despite being relatively abundant in *mICOI* (11.4%, 6.3% and 1.9% of reads, respectively), while Annelida, Gastropoda and Tunicata (Chordata), which represented 3.3%, 3.5%, and 8.5% of *mac18S* metazoan reads, respectively, were clearly underrepresented in *mICOI* dataset (0.5%, 0.8%, and 0.02% of reads).

At the Class level, mesozooplankton taxonomic composition—and differences in 306 community composition between markers—was overall consistent along the water column 307 (Figure 2b), especially in mac18S dataset. Yet, i) an overall trend to increase both the 308 309 proportion of reads and OTUs assigned to Arthropoda with depth, ii) a peak of Vertebrata 310 reads at lower mesopelagic depths, and iii) a peak of Ostracoda reads and OTUs at the upper 311 mesopelagic layer in the *mICOI* dataset, was observed. Note that these results represent 312 the average taxonomic composition by depth range, and that mesozooplankton community 313 composition differed between sites (Figure S3).

Remarkably, just about half of OTUs (representing two thirds of the reads) were successfully assigned to the species level in *mICOI* dataset—analysis not performed in *mac18S* due to SILVA reference database not specifying taxonomic levels below Class. Yet, this percentage greatly varied between and within taxonomic groups (Table S3).

318 *Hidden diversity*

We inferred the amount of hidden diversity globally and in the different oceanic basins and depths under study. This inference was based on the sequence similarity values obtained by comparing the representative sequence of each OTU against the reference sequences in

322 MZGdb, i.e., the lower the sequence similarity the farther the retrieved sequence is to an already known (sequenced) organism. The Indian Ocean resulted as the oceanic basin 323 324 presenting a higher proportion of unknown mesozooplankton diversity (with approximately 325 half of the OTUs displaying less than 90% of sequence similarity to described species), 326 followed by the Pacific and Atlantic basins (Figure 3). In the vertical gradient, we observed 327 a general trend to increase the proportion of hidden diversity with depth (from the 328 epipelagic to mesopelagic and bathypelagic layers) while decreasing the proportion of well-329 known OTUs (with >98% similarity to MZGdb sequences) below the upper mesopelagic 330 layer. This vertical pattern was observed both globally and at each oceanic basin separately 331 (except for the bathypelagic layer of the Pacific Ocean, whose sequence similarity values 332 were comparable to those from epipelagic depths).

333 Horizontal and vertical structuring of mesozooplankton community composition

334 Ordination of communities using NMDS analysis based on Bray-Curtis and PCD 335 dissimilarities followed by ANOSIM test evidenced a strong vertical mesozooplankton structuring (according to depth) in both datasets (Figure 4E-H), which was consistently 336 337 observed in each oceanic region separately (Table 1). Horizontal structuring (according to ocean basin) was clearly supported in *mICOI* dataset but was not (or weakly) supported in 338 339 mac18S (Figure 4A-D). Interestingly, mesozooplankton communities exhibited horizontal 340 structuring at epipelagic and mesopelagic layers (excepting in mac18S-PCD, where mesozooplankton structuring was only observed at the epipelagic layer) but not at 341 bathypelagic depths by any combination of marker and beta-diversity parameter (Table 1). 342

343 Further, we found that bathypelagic communities were structured according to deep-water

mass type (as defined in Catalá et al. (2015)) rather than to oceanic basin.

345 Horizontal and vertical patterns in mesozooplankton alpha- and beta-diversity

We analysed how mesozooplankton alpha- and beta-diversity are globally structured along the temperate to tropical global ocean. We did not observe consistent vertical nor horizontal patterns in mesozooplankton alpha-diversity measurements among markers, neither analysing the data globally (Figure S4A) nor by oceanic region (Figure S4B).

350 On the other hand, we observed a recurrent pattern of increasing beta-diversity between 351 mesozooplankton communities with depth (from the surface to the bathypelagic zone) in 352 both mICOI (Figure 5A) and mac18S datasets (Figure 6A), i.e., mesozooplankton communities from the upper layers are more similar to each other than communities from 353 354 the lower mesopelagic and bathypelagic depths, indicating a greater connectivity between 355 mesozooplankton assemblages at the surface than at deeper ocean. This trend was evident in mICOI dataset using Bray-Curtis distances and in mac18S using both Bray-Curtis and PCD 356 357 but less clear in *mICOI* using PCD. The pattern of increasing beta-diversity with depth turned out more robust for each combination of marker and beta-diversity measurement when the 358 359 different oceanic regions were analysed separately (Figure 5B, 6B), and still quite apparent 360 when considering only the stations with all four depth ranges sampled (Figure S5).

Relative contribution of environment and oceanic distance to mesozooplankton spatial
 structuring

363 To determine the factors driving mesozooplankton spatial distribution at each depth range, we performed Mantel correlations between variations in mesozooplankton community 364 composition and variations in oceanic and environmental distances (Table 2, Figure S6). 365 Mesozooplankton community dissimilarities correlated significantly with oceanic distances 366 in both *mICOI* and *mac18S* datasets regardless of the beta-diversity measurement used 367 368 (except for 500-1000 m depth in mac18S), indicating the existence of distance-decay 369 patterns in mesozooplankton communities at all depth ranges. It was especially noticeable at the upper oceanic layers, where oceanic distance was the main contributor to 370 mesozooplankton community composition. Less consistency was found regarding the 371 contribution of environmental distances to mesozooplankton spatial distribution among 372 markers—the environment noticeably determined mesozooplankton community 373 374 composition in *mICOI* but had limited influence in *mac18S* dataset—and among betadiversity measurements—with particularly different results in mac18S using Bray-Curtis and 375 376 PCD distances. In the bathypelagic layer, the relative contribution of the environment to mesozooplankton community composition was overall higher than the oceanic distance, 377 378 yet not always statistically significant (Table 2). Among the parameters measured, oxygen, 379 temperature, conductivity, and salinity emerged as the ones most influencing 380 mesozooplankton communities. Oceanic and environmental distances were consistently 381 correlated at all depths, with remarkably high correlation values at bathypelagic depths (Table 2). 382

383

384 Discussion

385 Overview of mesozooplankton community composition across the tropical to temperate 386 global ocean

387 Our findings identified Arthropoda—specifically Hexanauplia (copepods), and to a lesser 388 extent Ostracoda and Malacostraca (group including euphausiids and decapods)—as the 389 most abundant and diverse groups in the tropical to temperate global ocean, in agreement with previous studies (Fernández de Puelles et al., 2019; La et al., 2015; Sommer et al., 2017; 390 Stefanoudis et al., 2019). Due to their high abundance and worldwide distribution, these 391 392 organisms are recognised as a central component of epipelagic marine ecosystems, playing 393 a key role as main link between lower (producers and primary consumers) and higher trophic levels (Steinberg & Landry, 2017) and being the main food source of many 394 395 commercial fishes, thus sustaining a number of fisheries worldwide (Hays et al., 2005; Turner, 2004). Our data suggest that marine arthropods are also dominant among 396 397 mesozooplankton at mesopelagic and bathypelagic depths, thus supporting a central role 398 of these organisms in the deep-ocean trophic web as well (Kelly et al., 2019), in addition to 399 their relevance modulating global biogeochemical processes such as the biological carbon pump (Bode et al., 2018; Steinberg & Landry, 2017). 400

Although the taxonomic composition retrieved by both markers (*mlCOI* and *mac18S*) was
very similar, some taxonomic groups were retrieved differently by one of the markers. This
fact highlights the importance of choosing an adequate barcode when designing
metabarcoding-based studies (Bucklin et al., 2016) and reinforces the need for multi-marker
approaches to get comprehensive insights on the zooplankton taxonomic diversity (Stefanni
et al., 2018; van der Loos & Nijland, 2021; G. K. Zhang, Chain, Abbott, & Cristescu, 2018). A

remarkable proportion of reads in both datasets at all depths under study were attributed 407 408 to gelatinous organisms (e.g., cnidarians or tunicates), which are normally underestimated in morphologically based surveys using nets due to their fragility, and for which DNA-based 409 methods may be more effective (Bucklin et al., 2019; Govindarajan et al., 2021). Otherwise, 410 we acknowledge that we are probably missing some of the most abundant 411 412 mesozooplanktonic organisms in the ocean, such as Oithona spp. and other small-sized 413 Cyclopoids (Turner, 2004), most of which probably escaped our detection due to having a body size smaller than the 300 µm mesh size used during the Malaspina sampling. 414 415 Additional studies including other size fractions could complement our findings by confirming whether the global patterns observed here also apply for the smallest 416 mesozooplankton fraction. 417

418 Focusing on the unknown – identifying hotspot areas of hidden diversity

419 The presence of a high number of OTUs that could not be assigned to species level and that 420 were so distant to sequences from MZGdb (Bucklin et al., 2021), suggests that our knowledge of the organisms inhabiting the pelagic open ocean it is still scarce, especially 421 422 beyond the epipelagic layer as also reported by other authors (Sommer et al., 2017), and 423 evidence that zooplankton molecular reference databases are far from completion (Bucklin 424 et al., 2010; Bucklin et al., 2021). According to our data, the Indian Ocean and the lower 425 mesopelagic and bathypelagic layers are the regions requiring further taxonomic and/or 426 sequencing efforts along the tropical to temperate latitudes. Our findings agree with Bucklin 427 et al. (2021), who placed the Indian Ocean among the oceanic basins with lower species coverage by DNA barcoding initiatives (with only 29% of copepod species barcoded) and 428

429 considered the deep-sea ecosystems as an immediate priority for DNA barcoding and 430 metabarcoding studies. Additional initiatives to the ones from (Bucklin et al., 2010) and 431 other barcoding projects detailed therein are thus required in order to obtain these 432 references—while increasing our knowledge on zooplankton biodiversity—to ensure a 433 reliable application of DNA-based methods for the study of mesozooplankton.

434 Mesozooplankton community composition exhibits vertical and horizontal biogeographic
435 patterns at a global scale

436 Our results indicate that mesozooplankton community composition is structured across both vertical and horizontal oceanic gradients. Vertical structuring was particularly strong 437 438 in both *mICOI* and *mac18S* datasets either analysing the data globally or at each oceanic 439 basin separately, thus adding evidence for a global, solid vertical structuring of mesozooplankton in the ocean, corroborating many previous observations (Cheng et al., 440 441 2022; Fernández de Puelles et al., 2019; Hirai et al., 2020; Pearman & Irigoien, 2015; Sommer et al., 2017; Stefanoudis et al., 2019). Horizontal mesozooplankton structuring (i.e., 442 according to oceanic basins) was also overall supported in both datasets, although it was 443 444 strongly supported in *mlCOI* than in *mac18S*, most likely due to a higher capability of the former to detect intraspecific genetic variants (Turon, Antich, Palacín, Præbel, & 445 Wangensteen, 2020), and thus better detect regional diversity and dissimilarities between 446 447 distant communities and populations (Chust et al., 2016).

448 Horizontal structuring of mesozooplankton communities has been widely reported at the 449 epipelagic layer and highlights the existence of biogeographic regions responding to

productivity, hydrology, environmental characteristics of water, and connectivity barriers 450 451 (Becker, Eiras Garcia, & Freire, 2018; de Vargas et al., 2015; Domínguez et al., 2017; Ershova, Wangensteen, Descoteaux, Barth-Jensen, & Præbel, 2021; Feliú et al., 2020; Gaard et al., 452 2008; Hirai & Tsuda, 2015), but few studies to date have assessed horizontal structuring of 453 mesozooplankton at meso- or bathypelagic depths (Hirai et al., 2020; Siokou et al., 2019). 454 455 Here, we observed that horizontal structuring of mesozooplankton community composition along the temperate to tropical global ocean is unevenly supported across depth; it was 456 strongly supported at the epipelagic layer, moderately at mesopelagic depths, and low 457 supported in the bathypelagic zone. Although the latter finding was unexpected considering 458 the low connectivity of deep-sea mesozooplankton communities reported here-which 459 should lead to a more evident horizontal structuring, we observed that structuring of 460 461 mesozooplankton communities at bathypelagic depths was not determined by the oceanic basin but by the deep-water mass type (as defined in Catalá et al. (2015)) from which they 462 were collected. Similar findings have been previously reported for prokaryotes (Agogué, 463 464 Lamy, Neal, Sogin, & Herndl, 2011; Salazar et al., 2016) and picoeukaryotes (Pernice et al., 2016). Our results also indicate the existence of a distance-decay pattern (i.e., the farther 465 466 the communities the more different the community composition) for mesozooplankton 467 assemblages at all depths under study. Since this result may somehow indicate a 468 relationship between the oceanic distance and the deep-water mass type from which bathypelagic samples were collected, further studies covering more samples and additional 469 470 deep-water mass types should be carried out in order to verify our findings.

471 *Vertical mesozooplankton alpha-diversity patterns are not ruled globally*

Previous studies on microzooplankton point to a general pattern of decreasing alpha-472 diversity (richness and diversity indices) along the vertical oceanic gradient (Canals, Obiol, 473 Muhovic, Vaqué, & Massana, 2020; Countway et al., 2007; Giner et al., 2020); however, to 474 date there is no clear consensus on whether mesozooplankton alpha diversity increases or 475 decreases with depth. For instance, while a decreasing trend in mesozooplankton richness 476 477 and/or H index has been observed in Fernández de Puelles et al. (2019), Vereshchaka et al. (2017), and Pearman and Irigoien (2015), among others, peaks in alpha-diversity at 478 mesopelagic or/and bathypelagic depths have also been reported for copepods (Hirai et al., 479 2020; Kosobokova & Hirche, 2000; Stefanoudis et al., 2019) and for the whole 480 mesozooplankton community (Cheng et al., 2022; Sommer et al., 2017). Here, we did not 481 observe any consistent pattern in mesozooplankton alpha diversity with depth, but our 482 483 results seem to support the deep sea (down to the bathypelagic layer) as an ecosystem harbouring a level of diversity comparable to the ones at upper depths. Based on the 484 485 discrepancies between the different studies, it is most likely that there is not a unique, 486 global pattern of mesozooplankton alpha diversity along the vertical profile in the ocean, but that it is region specific. Further studies are thus needed to determine the factors 487 488 regulating mesozooplankton alpha diversity patterns along the vertical oceanic scale, such 489 as primary productivity and water column mixing.

In DNA-based studies, alpha diversity values in the deeper layers could be accounting for the capture of mesozooplankton DNA sinking from upper layers (e.g., carcasses, attached to sinking particles; Preston, Durkin, and Yamahara (2020)) and the stomach contents of diel vertical migratory species, which move upward the water column to feed during the

night, returning to the depths at sun (Steinberg & Landry, 2017). Yet, this downward-494 495 transported or prey material is expected to be less abundant and more degraded than the 496 one from the alive individuals comprising the samples, thus representing a neglecting proportion of OTUs and reads. Also, it is interesting to note that DNA-based approaches are 497 known to yield higher diversity values (especially in richness) than morphologically based 498 499 surveys (Ershova et al., 2021; Schroeder et al., 2020; Sommer et al., 2017). In the deep 500 ocean, this bias between methods could be even magnified due to the notably lesser knowledge on deep-sea mesozooplankton diversity—hampering its taxonomic 501 502 classification—and its overall lower abundance—making it less likely to be sampled.

503 The deeper the lower the connectivity between mesozooplankton communities

504 Results derived from the beta-diversity analyses indicated a higher dissimilarity between mesozooplankton communities from the ocean deep layers (especially at the bathypelagic 505 506 zone) than between communities from the upper layers. These findings are in line with 507 those obtained by Siokou et al. (2019) in the Mediterranean Sea, who observed 508 differentiation between Eastern and Western Mediterranean mesozooplankton 509 communities at lower mesopelagic and bathypelagic depths, but no differentiation at 510 epipelagic and upper mesopelagic layers. These results point to lower connectivity between 511 deep-sea mesozooplankton communities than between communities from upper oceanic 512 layers, which may be driven by limitations in the dispersal of mesozooplankton assemblages 513 at the ocean depths due to prevailing weaker oceanic currents and water mixing in the deep 514 sea compared to the surface (Manral et al., 2023; Reid, 1981, 1994)—in agreement with previous findings for picoeukaryotes (Villarino et al., 2022). Our findings add further 515

516 evidence on the major role of oceanic currents in shaping zooplankton dispersal and connectivity at a global scale, not only at epipelagic layers as previously reported (Richter 517 et al., 2020; Villarino et al., 2018; Watson et al., 2011), but, for the first time for 518 mesozooplankton, also at the ocean depths. Yet, it should be noted that the relative 519 520 contribution of oceanic distance in shaping mesozooplankton communities at the ocean 521 depths was overall lower relative to the contribution of the environment. While oceanic distance can be assumed as a proxy of oceanic currents at the epipelagic layer, this 522 assumption could lose strength deeper in the water column, since deep oceanic currents 523 524 may follow not only horizontal but also vertical and/or oblique routes due to the 525 thermohaline circulation.

526 Contribution of dispersal and selection to mesozooplankton community composition in the 527 deep ocean

528 The contribution of dispersal and environmental selection on plankton spatial distribution 529 has been reported to differ among groups and oceanic depths, as recently reported by (Villarino et al., 2022). Here, our results suggested dispersal as the main contributor to 530 531 mesozooplankton distribution at the upper oceanic layers, attributing a secondary role to 532 environmental selection. At bathypelagic depths, selection was the main driver of mesozooplankton community composition together with dispersal, even though the 533 534 bathypelagic zone is much more homogeneous in terms of environmental conditions than 535 the layers above it (Bode et al., 2018; Danovaro et al., 2004). Considering that dispersal of 536 plankton in the ocean is globally constrained by environmental selection (Ward, Cael, Collins, & Young, 2021), our results indicate that little environmental variations in the 537

bathypelagic layer may generate more marked differences in mesozooplankton beta-538 diversity than at upper depths. Yet evaluating the specific contribution of environmental 539 and oceanic distances (i.e., selection and dispersal, respectively) in the present study is 540 541 challenging due to the significant, consistent correlation between both factors, specially at 542 the bathypelagic layer. Between 1000 and 3000 m depth, environmental and oceanic 543 distances appeared to be markedly correlated, thus somehow blurring the boundary 544 between dispersal and environmental selection when aiming to interpret the results. As observed in the present study and in previous works (Agogué et al., 2011; Pernice et al., 545 546 2016; Salazar et al., 2016), plankton community composition in the deep ocean appears to 547 be highly related to the deep-water mass type at which they are found, which are in turn defined according to its environmental characteristics (Catalá et al., 2015) and present 548 549 limited mixing with the surrounding water masses (Reid, 1981). Thus, although our findings clearly support that mesozooplankton communities show biogeographic patterns in the 550 551 deep ocean, to elucidate whether these patterns are primarily driven by dispersal or by 552 environmental selection will require further research including the collection of more 553 samples from additional deep-water mass types.

Despite the main role of dispersal in shaping mesozooplankton community composition, correlation between environmental variables and mesozooplankton community composition was also found at all depth ranges under study, which supports the view that global structuring of planktonic communities is vulnerable to climate change-derived effects (Benedetti et al., 2021; Villarino et al., 2015), particularly at the ocean depths, where environmental conditions are more stable (Bode et al., 2018; Danovaro et al., 2004). The

560 consequences derived from alterations in global mesozooplankton structuring on the whole 561 marine ecosystem services are still uncertain, but they are expected to be significant 562 considering the central role of mesozooplankton in the oceanic tropic web and in 563 biogeochemical processes (Danovaro, Corinaldesi, Dell'Anno, & Snelgrove, 2017; Kelly et 564 al., 2019; Steinberg & Landry, 2017).

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908 Data Accessibility

Raw sequence data and associated metadata are available on the NCBI SRA ([to be completed upon acceptance]).

911 Author Contributions

- 912 XI and NRE designed research. OC, JC, EV, GC, EA, IM, and NRE performed research. JC, EA,
- 913 IM, CTM, JIG and NRE contributed new reagents or analytical tools. OC, JC, EV, EA and NRE
- analysed the data. OC wrote the paper, with insightful contributions from EV, GC, XI and
- 915 NRE. All authors revised the manuscript and agreed with its publication.

916 **Tables and Figures (with captions)**



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917

919 Figure 1. Location of the sampling stations of the Malaspina-2010 expedition from where

920 mesozooplankton samples were analysed in this study (map) and number of samples

921 analysed per depth range in the different oceanic basins for each marker (top right square).

922 AO: Atlantic Ocean, IO: Indian Ocean, PO: Pacific Ocean.



923

924 **Figure 2.** Overview of mesozooplankton taxonomic diversity in *mlCOl* and *mac18S* datasets.

925 A: Proportion of reads and OTUs assigned to Metazoa (Phylum level) and other (including

926 unclassified, non-metazoan, and metazoan OTUs not assigned at Phylum). B: Proportion of

927 reads and OTUs assigned to each metazoan Phyla and most abundant Classes within

928 Arthropoda, globally and per depth range.



Percentage of OTUs

929

930 Figure 3. Percentage of *mICOI* OTUs with 100% (dark green), 98-100% (light green), 95-98%

931 (gold), 90-95% (orange), and less than 90% (red) sequence similarity to any sequence of the

932 MetaZooGene database for the Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific Oceans, for the four depth

ranges under study, and for each combination of oceanic basin and depth range.



Figure 4. Ordination of mesozooplankton communities by NMDS (non-metric
multidimensional scaling) analysis based on Bray-Curtis and PCD beta-diversity
measurements for *mICOI* and *mac18S* datasets; plots A-D coloured by depth, plots E-H
coloured by oceanic basin. Stress values of plots A and E: 0.247, B and F: 0.226, C and G:
0.258, D and H: 0.214.



Figure 5. A: Histograms of beta diversity measurements based on Bray Curtis distances and
 PCD (phylogenetic community dissimilarities) between mesozooplankton communities
 from each depth range in the *mICOI* dataset. B: Boxplots showing the distribution of beta diversity measurements (Bray Curtis and PCD) between mesozooplankton communities at
 each depth range from each oceanic basin separately. N indicates the number of samples
 considered in each boxplot.



Figure 6. A: Histograms of beta diversity measurements based on Bray Curtis distances and
 PCD (phylogenetic community dissimilarities) between mesozooplankton communities
 from each depth range in the *mac18S* dataset. B: Boxplots showing the distribution of beta diversity measurements (Bray Curtis and PCD) between mesozooplankton communities at
 each depth range from each oceanic basin separately. N indicates the number of samples
 considered in each boxplot.

Table 1. ANOSIM test results regarding the grouping of mesozooplankton communities at the different oceanic basins by depth, at the different depths by oceanic basin, and the grouping of bathypelagic mesozooplankton communities by deep-water mass type (DWT; defined according to Catalá et al. (2015)). * p-value<0.1, **<0.05, ***<0.01, n.s. nonsignificant.

			ml	соі		mac18S						
		Bray-O	Curtis	PC	D	Bray-0	Curtis	PCD				
		R statistic p-value		R statistic p-value		R statistic	p-value	R statistic	p-value			
	Atlantic by depth	0.42	**	0.30	**	0.52	**	0.46	**			
	Indian by depth	0.30	**	0.19	**	0.44	**	0.29	**			
	Pacific by depth	0.60	**	0.29	**	0.82	**	0.70	**			
	0-200 by ocean	0.76	**	0.53	**	0.40	**	0.25	**			
	200-500 by ocean	0.22	**	0.39	**	0.27	**	0.11	n.s.			
	500-1000 by ocean	0.33	**	0.28	**	0.12	*	-0.04	n.s.			
	1000-3000 by ocean	0.27	+	0.15	n.s.	0.04	n.s.	0.05	n.s.			
961	1000-3000 by DWT	0.51	*	0.79	**	-0.01	n.s.	0.41	**			

Table 2. Results of Mantel test for each combination of marker, beta-diversity
 measurement, and depth, between mesozooplankton communities' distances and oceanic
 distances (log-transformed), environmental distances, and each environmental variable
 separately (temperature, salinity, oxygen, fluorescence, conductivity, and PAR—
 photosynthetically active radiation), and between oceanic and environmental distances. †
 p-value <0.1, *<0.05.

	mICOI							mac185								
	Bray-Curtis				PCD			Bray-Curtis				PCD				
Oceanic distance	0.58*	0.37*	0.48*	0.26*	0.45*	0.44*	0.46*	0.28*	0.21*	0.27*	0.13	0.37*	0.21*	0.19*	0.03	0.20*
Environmental distance	0.22*	0.32*	0.03	0.38*	0.35*	0.25*	0.23*	0.40†	0.15*	-0.01	0.18†	0.13†	0.05	0.21*	-0.2	0.35*
Temperature	0.19*	0.28*	-0.06	0.28†	0.13	0.18*	0.02	0.44*	0.11†	-0.12	0.24*	0.11	0.01	0.14*	-0.08	0.30*
Salinity	0.15*	0.18†	-0.05	0.36*	0.16†	0.19†	0.1	0.51*	0.04	0.11	0.17†	0.12	0.02	0.13†	-0.22	0.32*
Oxygen	0.20*	0.41*	0.35*	0.32*	0.43*	0.35*	0.41*	0.06	0.27*	0.17†	0.07	0.11	0.18*	0.25*	-0.04	0.29*
Fluorescence	-0.01	0.15	-0.08	0.2	0.22	0.26*	0.09	0.1	0.1	0.07	-0.03	0.09	0.01	0.23*	-0.2	0.22+
Conductivity	0.16*	0.26*	-0.07	0.30†	0.11	0.19*	0.02	0.46*	0.09	-0.11	0.24*	0.11	-0.001	0.12†	-0.12	0.32*
PAR	-0.04	-0.2	-	-	0.02	-0.24	-	-	-0.05	-0.06	-	-	-0.07	0.002	-	-
Oceanic vs environmental	0.26*	0.24*	0.17*	0.70*	0.26*	0.24*	0.17*	0.70*	0.16*	0.26*	0.12	0.66*	0.19*	0.21*	0.21*	0.68*
	0-200 m	200-500 n	500-1000 n	1000-3000 n	0-200 m	200-500 n	500-1000 n	1000-3000 n	0-200 m	200-500 n	500-1000 n	1000-3000 n	0-200 m	200-500 n	500-1000 n	1000-3000 n