

**Dark inorganic carbon fixation contributes to bacterial organic carbon demand
in the oligotrophic Southeastern Mediterranean Sea**

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Abstract

~~Settling~~ ~~Photosynthetically derived~~ organic matter ~~derived~~ ~~sinking to depth~~ from
~~photosynthesis at~~ the illuminated layers is often not sufficient to meet the energy
demands of microbes in the dark ocean. This ‘mismatch’ is especially notable in the
warm and oligotrophic ~~eastern~~ Mediterranean Sea where the annual photosynthesis is
one of the lowest in the world’s oceans, yet its aphotic zone is considered a hotspot for
microbial activity and biomass. Here, we investigated the role of photic and aphotic

dark inorganic carbon fixation rates (DCF) in supporting bacterial carbon demand ~~at in~~
the ~~offshore-south-eastern~~southeastern Mediterranean Sea during the mixed and
stratified periods. Our results demonstrate that DCF rates are measurable throughout
the water column (0-1750 m) and are on the same order of magnitude as photosynthesis
(34 vs. 45 g C m⁻² y⁻¹, respectively). Using a carbon mass balance that considers
photosynthesis, DCF and bacterial production (and hence respiration) we show that
chemoautotrophy provides ~35% of the ‘missing carbon’ supply needed for microbial
growth and activity in the aphotic layer, while other sources of dissolved organic carbon
remain to be elucidated. These findings underscore the need for further research into
the factors affecting DCF, its role in global carbon budgets, and its potential to enhance
atmospheric inorganic carbon sequestration.

1 Introduction

The oceans aphotic layers contain the world’s largest reservoir of dissolved inorganic
carbon (DIC) (~~Baltar et al., 2010; pool~~ (Burd et al., 2010; Reinthaler et al., 2010), and
harbor ~65% of all prokaryotes (Whitman et al., 1998). Aphotic prokaryotes typically
rely on utilization of organic matter (and carbon)~~), fixed by photoautotrophs via~~
photosynthesis and exported from the euphotic zone ~~through photosynthesis,~~ to sustain
their growth and accumulate biomass ~~–~~(del Giorgio and Duarte, 2002). Current
estimates reveal, however, a discrepancy between the supply of particulate organic
carbon from photosynthesis and the bacterial organic carbon demand (BCD) in the
aphotic zones (Ducklow, 2000; Karl et al., 1988; Smith and Azam, 1992). This
mismatch suggests that there are other source/s of carbon that are being utilized by
aphotic microorganisms (Baltar et al., 2009; Herndl and Reinthaler, 2013). One such
source, that has been far less investigated, involves the fixation of DIC by chemo-

autotrophic microbes and its assimilation into new biomass-[\(Baltar and Herndl, 2019\)](#).
This could subsequently provide bioavailable DOC to other microbial populations at
depth [\(Baltar et al., 2010\)](#).

DIC uptake by heterotrophic bacterioplankton is generally attributed to
anaplerotic reactions (Dijkhuizen and Harder, 1984; Erb, 2011) [which are metabolic
pathways that replenish intermediates enzymes in the citric acid cycle by fixing CO₂](#),
but other microorganisms such as nitrifying bacteria can also fix DIC (Alonso-Sáez et
al., 2010). Genomic studies on deep-sea microbial communities identified several genes
and metabolic pathways that enable some microbes to thrive as chemoautotrophs on
inorganic substrates (Berg et al., 2007; Hallam et al., 2006). Measurements of CO₂
fixation by chemoautotrophs and heterotrophic bacterioplankton are scarce, yet
substantial dark DIC fixation (DCF) rates have been reported in various oceanic settings
and water masses (Swan et al. 2011; Zhou et al. 2017; La Cono et al. 2018; Alothman
et al. 2023) and maybe more common than previously thought (Hansman et al., 2009;
Herndl et al., 2005).

The deep waters of the southeast Mediterranean Sea are characterized by higher
concentrations of inorganic nutrients compared to the photic zone (e.g., ~6 μmol
 $\text{NO}_3+\text{NO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ and ~0.2 $\text{PO}_4 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ (Ben-Ezra et al., 2021; Sisma-Ventura et al.,
2021) and low bioavailable dissolved organic carbon (Martínez-Pérez et al., 2017;
Santinelli, 2015; Santinelli et al., 2010). Despite these characteristics, the southeast
Mediterranean Sea's aphotic waters are considered a hotspot for bacterial activity
compared to other oceanic regimes at similar depths (Luna et al., 2012; Rahav et al.,
2019). Nutrient addition bioassays and water mixing simulations suggest that aphotic
prokaryotes are primarily carbon-limited (Hazan et al., 2018; Rahav et al., 2019).

Here, we report on both photic and aphotic DCF and heterotrophic bacterial production rates from 6 cruises held between 2021-2023 ~~at in~~ the ~~offshore~~ southeastern Mediterranean (bottom depth 1500-1750 m) during the mixed (winter) and stratified (summer) periods. Our results demonstrate that DCF rates cannot be ~~neglected~~ (contrary to past ~~conventions~~ convention, Nielsen 1952) and are within the same order of magnitude as photosynthesis or heterotrophic bacterial production (BP). We also show that DCF substantially contributes to bacterial carbon demand (BCD), therefore providing, some of the ‘missing carbon’ supply needed for microbial growth and activity in the aphotic layer of the southeast Mediterranean Sea.

2 Material and methods

2.2 Sample collection - Seawater was collected during six seasonal cruises in the Levantine Basin, southeast Mediterranean Sea, on-board the R/V *Bat-Galim* between 2021-2023. Three cruises were held during the stratified period and three during the winter mixing. The mixed layer depth was calculated using a temperature difference of $\Delta 0.3$ °C (Mena et al., 2019). Two ‘deep’ stations were sampled in each cruise; one located at the edge of the continental shelf (H05 33.00 Lat, 34.50 Lon, bottom depth ~1500 m, 50 Km from the coast) and the other at the edge of Israel’s exclusive economic zone (H06 33.15 Lat, 34.16 Lon, bottom depth 1750 m, 90 Km from shoreline). Seawater was sampled at discrete depths throughout the water column, from the surface (~0.5 m) to the bottom (1500-1750 m) using Niskin bottles. Sampling depths were chosen in real-time based on reads of Conductivity Temperature Depth (CTD) (Seabird 19 Plus), chlorophyll fluorescence (Turner designs, Cyclops-7) and PAR (Sea Bird). The raw hydrological data can be freely downloaded from <https://isramar.ocean.org.il/isramar2009/>. Measurements included DIC ($\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$)

uptake under ambient light (hereafter 'light primary productivity, LPP) or under full dark conditions (DCF), bacterial productivity (BP) and nutrient quantification.

Nitrite and ammonium concentrations – Samples for nitrite (NO_2^-) and ammonium (NH_4^+) concentrations were collected only in ~~March and August~~the 2023 cruises. The samples were pre-filtered (0.45 μm), placed in acid-washed plastic vials, and were kept frozen at -20 °C until analysis. Nutrients were measured with a Seal Analytical AA-3 system. The limits of detection for NO_2^- and NH_4^+ were 0.06 μM and 0.09 μM , respectively.

2.3 LPP and DCF - Seawater was collected in triplicates into ~~45-250 ml bottles and spiked with $\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$ (Perkin Elmer, specific activity 56 mCi mmol^{-1}). The bottles were incubated for 24 h under ambient light for 'total primary production or under full dark for DCF estimates (Nielsen, 1952). At the conclusion of the incubation, the spiked seawater was filtered onto GF/F filters using low vacuum pressure (<50 mmHg)-transparent (for LPP measurements) or dark (for DCF) Nalgene bottles (45-250 ml) and spiked with $\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$ (Perkin Elmer, specific activity 56 mCi mmol^{-1}) following Nielsen, (1952). The bottles were maintained in on-deck incubators covered with a gradient of neutral mesh simulating the irradiance intensity (no change in spectrum) at 100%, 50%, 10%, 1%, and 0.1% of surface light intensities or under complete dark conditions (Belkin et al., 2022; Reich et al., 2024). Incubators were kept at constant ambient surface temperatures (~19-20 °C in winter and ~28-29 °C in the summer cruises). We acknowledge that temperature differences between surface and deeper depths may alter the LPP or DCF rates measurements, especially during the summer when the water column is stratified. While *in situ* measurements may offer more precise rate estimates, they are generally impractical during research cruises that involve sampling at multiple locations and times throughout the day and night.~~

Nevertheless, preliminary comparisons between the incubation setup used here versus in situ incubations using a mooring line showed negligible differences in primary productivity, falling within the expected range of measurement variability (see also Reich et al., 2022). All the incubation bottles were spiked at sunrise and terminated after 24 h (Reich et al., 2022; Robinson et al., 2009) by filtering the particulate matter onto GF/F filters using low vacuum pressure (<50 mmHg). Next, the excess ^{14}C -bicarbonate was removed by fuming with 50 μl of 37% hydrochloric acid overnight. Finally, 5 ml scintillation cocktail (ULTIMA-GOLD) was added, and the disintegrations per minute (DPM) from the particulate matter concentrated on the filters were counted using a TRI-CARB 4810 TR (Packard) liquid scintillation counter. Blank seawater spiked with $\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$ was filtered immediately without incubation and the reads were subtracted from the sample's DPM. The blank DPM reads were usually negligible (<5% of the sample's DPM). Aliquots (50 μl) from random spiked samples were placed onto new GFF filters, added with 50 μl ethanolamine and scintillation liquid, and counted immediately without incubation to account for the 'added activity' of the radiolabeled working solution used. LPP was calculated as the difference between the DPM retrieved from the samples incubated under ambient light ('total primary production') and the 'dark' bottles. Dark or light dissolved inorganic carbon fixation was calculated based on the Bermuda Atlantic Time-series Study (BATS) protocol (<https://bios.asu.edu/bats/bats-data>). More details can be found in Reich et al. (2024).

2.3 Bacterial production- ~~Samples~~ Triplicate samples per depth (1.7 ml) were incubated in the dark with ~~400~~ 10 nmol/L ^3H -leucine L^{-1} (Perkin Elmer, specific activity 123 Ci mmol $^{-1}$) for 4-6 h under ambient temperature (Simon et al., 1990). The incubations were terminated with 100 μl of trichloroacetic acid (100%), ~~were~~ processed as described by

Smith and Azam (1992), and counted using a TRI-CARB 4810 TR (Packard) liquid scintillation counter. Killed control samples containing ^3H -leucine L^{-1} and trichloroacetic acid (without incubation) were also measured and ~~this~~these control sample's DPMs were subtracted from the sample's reads. A conversion factor of 3 kg C mol^{-1} per mole leucine incorporated was used, assuming an isotopic dilution of 2.0 (Simon and Azam 1989).

2.4 Molecular analyses and statistics - DNA was extracted from water samples with the PowerWater kit (Qiagen, USA), using the FastPrep-24™ Classic (MP Biomedicals, USA) bead-beating to disrupt the cells (2 cycles at 5.5 m sec $^{-1}$, with a 5 min interval). The V4 region (~ 300 bp) of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified from the DNA (~50 ng) using the 515Fc/806Rc primers amended with relevant tags (Apprill et al., 2015; Parada et al., 2016). PCR conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 45 s, 30 cycles of denaturation (94 °C for 15 sec), annealing (15 cycles at 50 °C and 15 cycles at 60 °C for 20 sec) and extension (72 °C for 30 s). Two annealing temperatures were used to account for the melting temperature of both forward (58.5-65.5 °C), and reverse (46.9-54.5 °C), primers.

Demultiplexed paired-end reads were processed in QIIME2 V2022.2 environment (Bolyen et al., 2019). Reads were truncated based on quality plots, checked for chimeras, merged and grouped into amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) with DADA2 (Callahan et al., 2016), as implemented in QIIME2. The amplicons were classified with Scikit-Learn classifier that was trained on Silva database v138 (16S rRNA, (Glöckner et al., 2017)). Mitochondrial and chloroplast sequences were removed from the 16S rRNA amplicon dataset. Downstream analyses were performed in R v4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2021), using packages Phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013) and Ampvis2 (Andersen et al., 2018). Indicator species analyses were performed using Indic species

package v1.7.9 (De Ca'ceres et al., 2009). Amplicon reads were deposited to the NCBI SRA archive under project number PRJNA1215023.

2.5 Bacterial respiration (BR), bacterial carbon demand (BCD) and zooplankton respiration (ZR) - BR was calculated based on the following equation and assuming an average open-ocean bacterial growth efficiency (BGE) of 20% (Herndl and Reinthaler, 2013) similar to previous direct measurements from the Mediterranean Sea ranging from 0.21-0.29 (Zweifel et al., 1993).

$$BGE = \frac{BP}{BP + BR}$$

BCD was then calculated as the sum of BP and BR (Gasol et al., 1998). Zooplankton respiration (ZR) and excretion were compiled from Belkin et al. (2022).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Dark and light inorganic carbon fixation rates – As expected, LPP was restricted to the photic layer with highest rates usually measured at the surface (~0.5 m) that gradually decreased to reach minimum rates at the bottom of the photic layer (~180 m) (Fig 1A). Relatively low LPP values were measured during the stratified summer (~0.1-0.8 µg C L⁻¹ d⁻¹), whereas higher rates were measured during the winter mixing period (~0.2-7.4 µg C L⁻¹ d⁻¹) (Fig 1A). This resulted in ~10-fold higher integrated rates measured during the mixed period compared to those measured during the stratified period (Table 1), in accordance with studies from the area (Psarra et al., 2005; Reich et al., 2022; Sisma-Ventura et al., 2022b). In contrast with LPP, DCF was not restricted to the photic layer and ranged from 0 to ~0.4 µg C L⁻¹ d⁻¹ throughout the water column (Fig 1B, Fig 2A), without significant differences in the absolute rates between the photic and aphotic zones (t-test, p>0.05, Fig 2B). ~~The integrated photic DCF was~~

typically lower, yet rates were of the same order of magnitude, then others previously. The observed decrease in DCF rates with depth (Figure 2A) during the summer cruises may be partly attributed to a decline in the abundance of chemoautotrophs with depth. For example, Agogu   et al., (2008) reported a decline in archaeal *amoA* gene copy numbers with depth in the eastern North Atlantic. Normalizing DCF rates to chemoautotrophic microbial cell abundance (or gene copy) could reveal a different vertical pattern. Another possible explanation for the decline in DCF rates with depth may be related to the weakening flux of sinking organic matter with depth that limits the substrates that fuel DCF (discussion below). The integrated photic DCF was typically lower than the rates reported in the central and western Mediterranean Sea (La Cono et al., 2018). The aphotic DCF rates were ~3.5 fold higher during the mixed than during the stratified period (Table 1, Fig 2A).

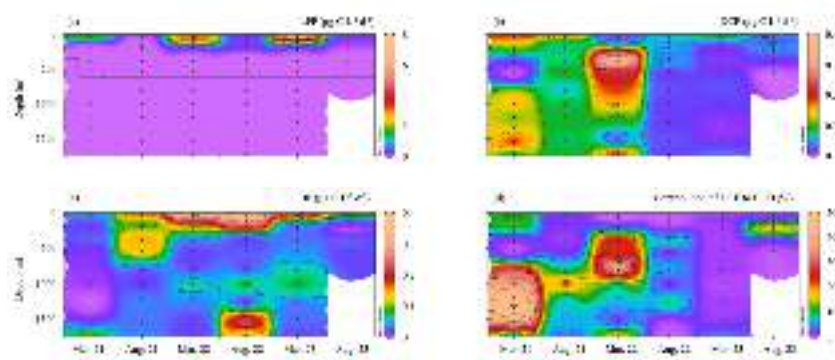


Figure 1: Spatial and temporal variability in rates of LPP (a), DCF (b), BP (c) and the contribution of DCF to bacterial carbon demand (BCD) (d) at the offshore SE Mediterranean Sea (Lat. 33.15 N, Lon. 34.16 E) between 2021-2023. BCD was calculated assuming a bacterial gross efficiency of 0.20 (Gasol et al., 1998).

Table 1: Integrated rates and contribution of DCF to metabolic processes in the photic (0-180) and aphotic (>180 m) depths of the pelagic southeast Mediterranean Sea BDL. The values represent the minimum and maximum ranges observed across the cruises, with the averages and their corresponding standard deviations provided in parentheses. BDL = Below detection limit.

Variable	Season	Photic (0-180 m)	Aphotic (180-1750 m)
LPP (mg C m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Mixed	158-649 (368 ± 205)	BDL
	Stratified	4-69 (32 ± 26)	BDL
DCF (mg C m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Mixed	6-27 (15 ± 8)	17-342 (152 ± 127)
	Stratified	7-19 (14 ± 5)	8-127 (59 ± 48)
BP (mg C m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Mixed	6-58 (28 ± 21)	12-65 (33 ± 22)
	Stratified	9-55 (30 ± 20)	7-123 (81 ± 55)
DCF contribution to BCD (%) *	Mixed	23-221 (109 ± 88)	49-594 (213 ± 200)
	Stratified	8-31 (18 ± 9)	8-42 (23 ± 13)
DCF contribution to total PP (%)	Mixed	1-15 (6 ± 5)	---
	Stratified	12-81 (40 ± 32)	---

* Assuming bacterial gross efficiency of 0.2 (Gasol et al., 1998) and that the available DOC for bacteria is 20% of the total primary productivity at the photic layer (Teira et al., 2003).

The higher aphotic DCF in the mixed versus the stratified periods may be related to more bioavailable carbon that is transported from the photic layer as marine snow and supplies organic carbon to heterotrophic activity (mostly during in the winter when LPP is coinciding higher LPP). However, given the oligotrophic nature of the southeast Mediterranean Sea, including during the winter (Berman-Frank and Rahav, 2012; Reich et al., 2022), most of the organic carbon (both particulate and dissolved

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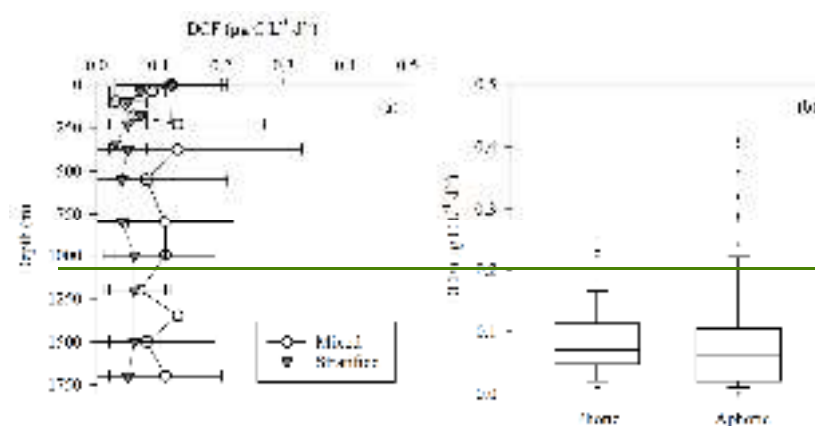
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originating from LPP) is recycled within the photic layer ~~and only~~. Only a small fraction
fluxes down to the aphotic zone) ~~as and~~ has been recorded in sediment traps (Alkalay
et al., 2024).

3.2 Bacterial productivity in relation to DCF and BCD - Another possible mechanism
that may, potentially, explain higher DCF rates during the winter versus the summer is
anaplerosis. The extent of anaplerotic reactions is primarily driven by the availability
of labile organic carbon to heterotrophs (Dijkhuizen and Harder 1984). Therefore,
assuming anaplerosis drives DCF, we expect it will be positively coupled to BP.

Yet, our results do not support the likelihood of significant anaplerosis reactions,
~~mainly because, predominantly evident from~~ the spatiotemporal distribution of aphotic
BP (Fig 1C) ~~differs~~ differing considerably from that of the DCF (Fig 1B) and does not
correlate with it (Fig 3A). In fact, BP seems to be coupled with LPP at the photic layer
reaching $\sim 0.4 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (not shown). ~~Except for~~ Excluding some sporadic
measurements, aphotic BP rates were usually homogeneous and typically $< 0.1 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$
 d^{-1} (Fig 1C). ~~Further~~ Moreover, the highest integrated aphotic BP was measured during
the summers of 2021 and 2022 and not during the winter cruises when generally higher
DCF was recorded (Table 1, Fig 2A).



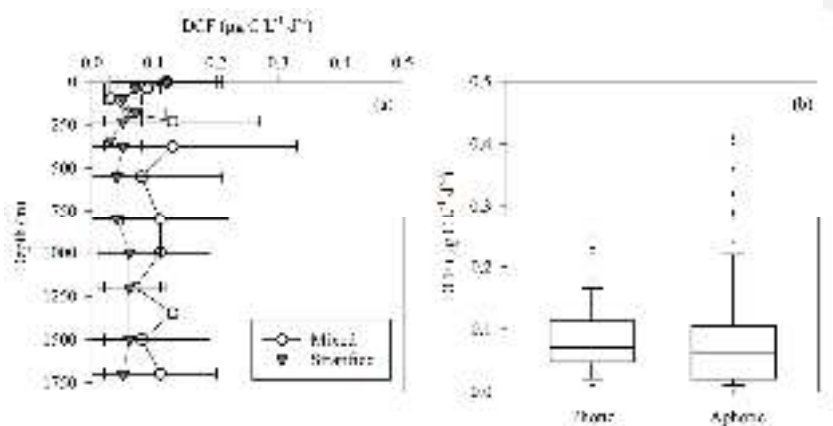


Figure 2: Dark carbon fixation rates in the southeastern Mediterranean Sea. Averaged vertical distribution of DCF in the offshore southeast Mediterranean Sea during the mixed (white) and stratified (gray) periods (a), and a box plot showing the DCF rates at the photic (0-180 m) and aphotic (>180 m) water depths (b).

Despite the lack of a clear positive relationship between DCF and BP, DCF may contribute to bacterial carbon demand (BCD) ~~at~~ⁱⁿ the aphotic zone. Thus, we use a ~~literary literature~~ standard, a bacterial growth efficiency of 0.20 (DevalGasol et al., 2004, 1998) to calculate BR and BCD: (see the 'material and methods' section for more details). This ~~resulted in calculation yielded~~ bacterial respiration (BR) ranging from 29-494 $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (average $209 \pm 172 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$), and the concurrent BCD ranges from 36 to 648 $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (average $262 \pm 121 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). Under these circumstances, exudation of DOC from primary productivity at the photic layer estimated as 20% of the rates (Teira et al., 2003) ~~and~~ equals ~~to~~ $\sim 1\text{-}130 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$.

This new DOC, ~~thethat~~ originated from the photic zone ~~therefore~~ cannot support the aphotic BCD in our system in all of our observations. However, if we consider the

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contribution of DOC produced by aphotic DCF, part of the missing carbon ~~can~~ may be
 'bridged' accounted for. Thus, when considering aphotic DCF in addition to the
 sequestered DOC from the photic layer, the 'abnormally high' aphotic BCD could be
 explained in full ($\geq 100\%$) in $\sim 35\%$ of the observations (Fig 1D). In the other 65% of
 the observations the missing carbon sources needed to support the aphotic BCD remains
 an enigma. ~~Evidences suggest~~ We note that these calculations are based on global
 averages and assumptions and therefore may be subject to some uncertainties. For
 example, BGE can vary between seasons and sites (del Giorgio and Cole, 1998). In the
 Mediterranean Sea, long-term measurements of BGE ranged from 0.21 (similar to our
 calculations and the global average used by Herndl and Reinthaler, 2013) to 0.29
 (Zweifel et al., 1993). If the 0.29 value is used, the contribution of DCF to the aphotic
 BCD increases to $\sim 45\%$ of the observations rather than $\sim 35\%$ when using BGE of 0.2.
 Similarly, if we apply an exported DOC estimate of $\sim 4\%$ from the photic zone, as
 reported for the Ionian Sea/western Mediterranean (Moutin and Raimbault, 2002), the
 relative contribution of DCF to aphotic BCD would be even higher than in our current
 calculations, which assume $\sim 20\%$ DOC export (Teira et al., 2003). These uncertainties
 warrant future investigation. Yet, even when using conservative estimates for BGE and
 DOC export as done here, the contribution of DCF to aphotic BCD remains substantial.
 Evidence suggests that dissolved methane may be more abundant in oxygenated
 environments than previously thought (Grossart et al., 2011). Methane can potentially
 be one of the missing energy sources for marine microbes and support high BCD
 (Brankovits et al., 2017) as observed at the aphotic southeast Mediterranean Sea (Fig
 1D). In agreement, methanotrophs were found in aphotic cold seeps at the southeast
 Mediterranean Sea (Sisma-Ventura et al., 2022a), as well as across the aphotic water
 column in our samples (see discussion below).

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3.3 Interannual variability in aphotic DCF - Interannual variability in DCF, but not in LPP or BP, was observed with higher rates recorded in March 2021-March 2022 and lower rates observed in August 2022-August 2023 (Fig 1B). ~~The drivers of this variability are unknown and may be related to differences in nutrients availability that fuels chemoautotrophic microbes of the aphotic layer between these two periods. While the absolute concentrations of PO_4^{3-} or $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$ in the deep aphotic water were similar overall between periods (not shown) and, therefore, not likely to affect the DCF rates, organic nutrients that were not considered here may limit chemoautotrophy. In support, recent studies from the northern Red Sea and South China Sea showed that DCF at the surface water~~Inorganic nutrients such as PO_4^{3-} or $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$ are unlikely to explain this variability as their ambient levels were similar between periods (<https://isramar.ocean.org.il/isramar2009/>). Alternatively, we surmise that differences in the bioavailability and concentration of sinking organic particles, possibly attributed by the BiOS (Bimodal Oscillating System) oscillation circulation of deep water between the Adriatic and Ionian seas, could potentially explain the higher aphotic chemoautotrophic activity in March 2021-March 2022 versus August 2022-August 2023. This mechanism is known to influence the bioavailability of organic nutrients in the deep Mediterranean Sea by modulating deep-water circulation and ventilation patterns (Civitaresse et al., 2010). These shifts affect the transport and residence time of organic matter (Civitaresse et al., 2023), thereby potentially altering availability of organic nutrients to aphotic microbial populations, including to chemoautotrophs. Supporting this hypothesis are recent studies from the northern Red Sea and South China Sea showing that DCF is limited by labile organic nutrients such as phosphonates and even carbon-rich molecules (Reich et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2017). Aphotic free-living chemoautotrophs are likely to encounter an increasingly refractory pool of

316 dissolved organic matter for metabolism that may result in lower DCF rates, as shown
 317 in exported material through the water column (Santinelli-Bar-Zeev et al. 2015,
 318 2013). Particle-attached chemoautotrophs may have access to higher concentrations of
 319 organic substrates, and therefore. Therefore we surmise they these microbes would
 320 preferentially have a preferential particle-attached lifestyle in the deep ocean. The
 321 patchy nature of particulate matter sinking and lateral transport during wintertime
 322 (Alkalay et al., 2024) and aggregate concentrations (Bar-Zeev et al., 2012) in the deep
 323 southeast Mediterranean Sea could also potentially explain the interannual variability
 324 in DCF between periods. Understanding how chemoautotrophs transform labile
 325 dissolved organic matter into refractory dissolved organic matter, awhich is an essential
 326 process known as in the ‘microbial carbon pump’ (Herndl and Reinthaler, 2013), is
 327 crucial as it influences the efficiency of the biological pump (Jiao et al., 2010).

328 Oxidizing reduced inorganic compounds as electron donors (e.g., NO_2^- or NH_4^+) may
 329 provide chemoautotrophic prokaryotes sufficient energy to fix DIC (Hügler and
 330 Sievert, 2011). We therefore measured (March and August 2023 cruises) the vertical
 331 distribution of NO_2^- and NH_4^+ (only in the March and August 2023 cruises) and
 332 examined if these chemical species are coupled or uncoupled with DCF at the aphotic
 333 zone. Indeed, our Our results show a negative-linear relationship between DCF and
 334 NO_2^- (Fig 3B) and NH_4^+ (Fig 3C), suggesting nitrification. This is potentially an
 335 important metabolic pathway yielding because chemoautotrophs consume NO_2^- and
 336 NH_4^+ during nitrification to yield energy to fix DIC in the aphotic zone. (REF), thereby
 337 reducing nutrient standing stocks in the water. We surmise that this ‘depletion’ may,
 338 theoretically, explain the observed negative correlation between nutrient levels and
 339 chemoautotrophic activity. In agreement, both ammonia and nitrite oxidizers were
 340 found in the aphotic zone of all cruises (DNA level, discussion below), further

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highlighting their potential role as contributors to DCF in the southeast Mediterranean Sea. Nitrification measurements along with metagenomic tools, DCF (and BP) in aphotic water should be ~~done~~included in future dedicated studies to better refute or reinforce that oxidation of NO_2^- or NH_4^+ may provide chemoautotrophic prokaryotes the energy to fix DIC.

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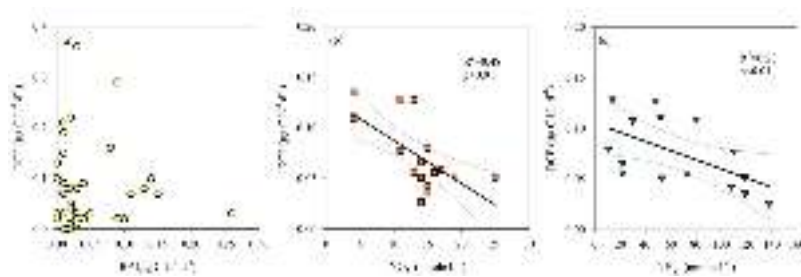


Figure 3: Possible relationships examined via linear correlations The relationship between aphotic DCF and BP (a), NO_2^- (b) and NH_4^+ (c). Note that NO_2^- and NH_4^+ was measured only during the 2023 cruises. The 95% confidence interval is shown in gray.

3.4 Potential chemoautotrophs based on microbial community structure - Analyses of 16S rRNA gene amplicons suggest that diverse bacteria and archaea may drive DCF in the aphotic southeast Mediterranean Sea (Fig 4A). Microbes found in our collected genetic material primarily include the order Nitrosopumilales ammonia-oxidizing archaea, which become dominant below DCM (up to ~30% read abundance near the bottom), corresponding to previous estimates based on *in-situ* fluorescent hybridization (De Corte et al., 2009). Nitrite-oxidizing Nitrospirales comprised ~1% read abundance at depths below 300 m. Among these lineages, analyses of indicator species identified seasonal variation in abundance of the orders Nitrosopumilales and Nitrososphaeria that were more prominent in the stratified period than in wintertime (p-value<0.05).

361 when the water column is mixed, while the deep-sea community in general exhibited
362 only mild seasonal changes (Fig 4B). These ammonia oxidizers may thus drive
363 ammonia depletion during summertime at the southeast Mediterranean Sea.
364 Additionally, we identified consistent occurrence of UBA10353 (Arenicellales,
365 including the UBA868 group) and SAR324 gammaproteobacterial groups at depths
366 below the deep chlorophyll maxima (Fig 4A). Members from these ubiquitous clades
367 are mixotrophs that can fix inorganic carbon conserving energy from sulfur oxidation
368 (Baltar et al., ~~2022~~2023; Jaffe et al., 2024; Swan et al., 2011). We did not find the
369 SUP05/Arctic96BD-19 gammaproteobacterial sulfur oxidizers that occur in productive
370 dark oxygenated waters (Swan et al., 2011). We note that Methylococcales methane
371 oxidizers were typical in the near-bottom water layer, as found previously in the
372 southeast Mediterranean Sea basin (Sisma-Ventura et al., 2022a; Techtmann et al.,
373 2015), suggesting methylotrophy as a potential mechanism of 1-carbon molecule
374 acquisition in the dark southeast Mediterranean Sea. While this DNA-based community
375 analysis provides insight into the potential contributors to DCF, it does not reflect a
376 direct link as we cannot determine which of the identified microbes are responsible for
377 the measured DCF rates. We stress that future studies should examine the link between
378 DCF and specific microbial groups such as archaea by targeting RNA-level expression
379 and functional genes (e.g., *amoA* and *amoB*), as demonstrated by (Agogue et al., 2008)

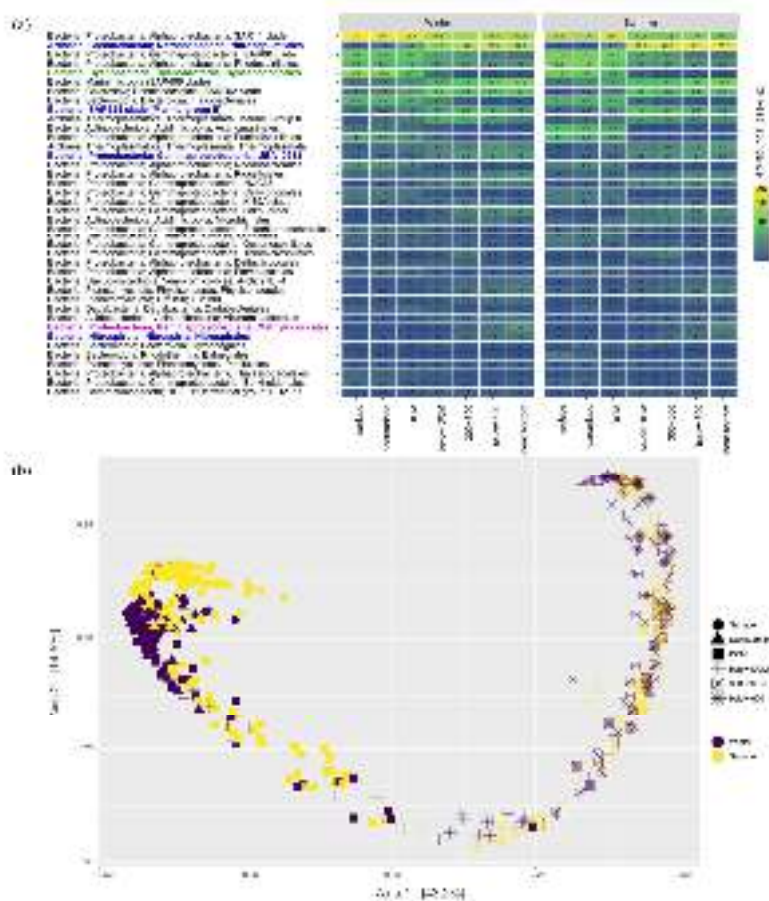


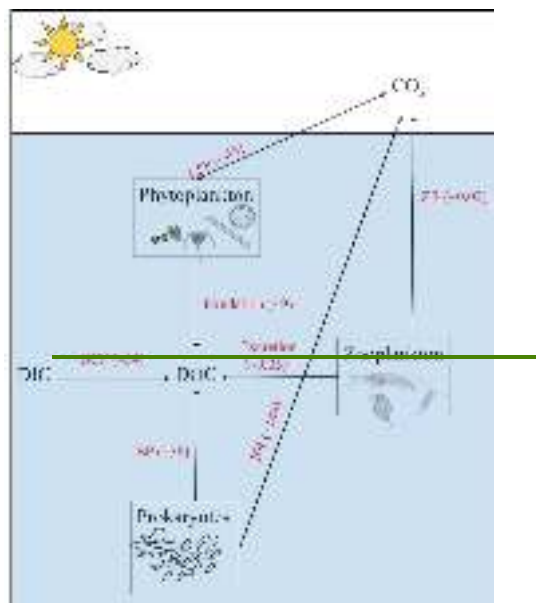
Figure 4: (a) Read abundance of the 40 most abundant taxa (order level) from different depths offshore the Southeastern Mediterranean Sea. Surface samples are within the range of 1-5 m depth; near surface are between 20 and deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM); below DCM corresponds to 180-240 m depths; near bottom samples were taken circa 5 meters above the seafloor. Potential DCF microbes are shown in blue, Methylococcales methanotrophs are marked in magenta, and photosynthetic Synechococcales are shown in green for reference. (b) A principal component analysis

showing the differences in the structure of microbial populations (40 most abundant taxa) based on 16S rRNA gene read mapping.

4 Conclusions

Based on the conceptual model in Figure 5 that summarizes the annual microbial carbon exchanges in the southeast Mediterranean sea's offshore area, ~~it is clear that~~ DOC supplied by LPP is negligible and cannot explain the 'high' BCD in the area, especially in the aphotic zone that is considered a 'microbial hotspot' with relatively high bacterial activity per cell (Hazan et al., 2018; Rahav et al., 2019). ~~Therefore, our back of the envelope calculations highlights~~Our observations suggest that DCF may provide a substantial amount of the missing carbon, at least in the southeast Mediterranean Sea, while source/s for the remaining missing carbon are currently unknown and warrant more research.

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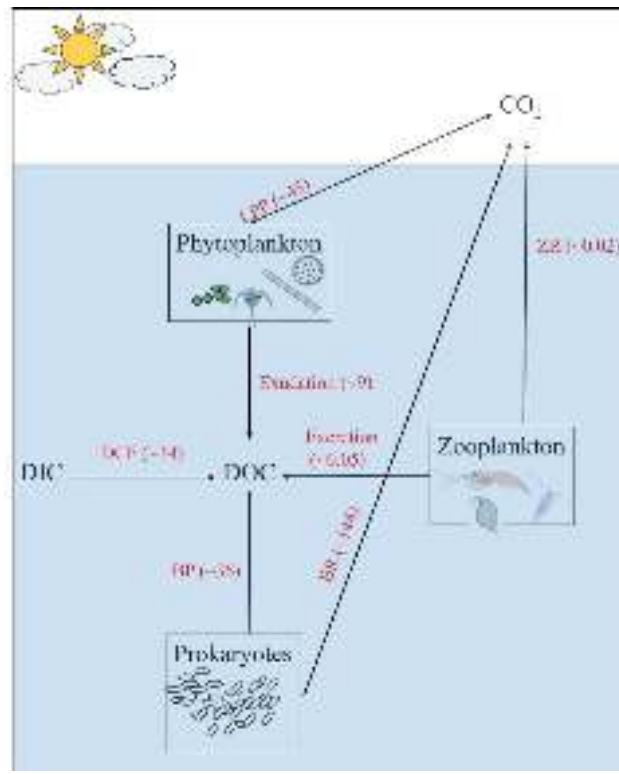


Figure 5: A schematic illustration showing microbial carbon exchange in the southeast Mediterranean Sea. Values shown are the annual averages of LPP, DCF and BP. DOC exudation from LPP was assumed to be 20% of the rates. BR was calculated from BP and assuming BGE=0.20, Zooplankton's respiration (ZR) and excretion were compiled from Belkin et al. (2022). The numbers in brackets show the integrated values over 1750 m and expressed as $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$.

Regardless of the yet missing DOC sources, our results demonstrate the pivotal role DCF plays in compensating metabolic imbalances in carbon sources at the aphotic southeast Mediterranean Sea. Similarly, DCF was shown to be a significant process supporting microbial respiration and/or activity in aphotic layers (Baltar et al., 2009;

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414 Herndl et al., 2005; Yakimov et al., 2011), as well as in hydrothermal vents (Mattes et
 415 al., 2013) and cold seeps (Nakagawa et al., 2007). Note that, while our estimates of
 416 DCF contribution to aphotic BCD are based on widely accepted assumptions, they are
 417 subject to some uncertainties, particularly regarding BGE that may be changed on both
 418 spatial and temporal scales, as well as the fraction of DOC exported from the photic
 419 zone that may also change between seasons and water provinces (see discussion below).
 420 These uncertainties underscore the need for more precise and region-specific
 421 measurements of BGE and DOC fluxes to better constrain the role of DCF in deep
 422 ocean carbon cycling.
 423 ~~We note that despite the contribution of DCF to the DOC pool, Another potential~~
 424 uncertainty in measuring aphotic metabolic rates such as DCF or BP lies in the unclear
 425 effects of hydrostatic pressure on the activity of bulk microbial communities (Riebesell
 426 et al., 2009; Tamburini et al., 2013). Laboratory-based manipulations that do not
 427 account for *in situ* pressure conditions may alter DCF rates, potentially misrepresenting
 428 the actual contribution of chemoautotrophs to aphotic BCD. This highlights the urgent
 429 need for more detailed investigations into how hydrostatic pressure influences
 430 microbial activity in the deep ocean.
 431 Additionally, despite the contribution of DCF to the DOC pool (taking into account the
 432 uncertainties associated with it discussed above), as well as the other sources, very little
 433 of fixed carbon as particulate organic matter (POC) ends up in sediment traps located
 434 above the seabed (2-6%). This suggests that most of the fixed carbon arriving from
 435 DCF (as well as LPP other potential sources) is recycled in the water column and does
 436 not reach the seabed. The rapid microbial recycling of nutrients was mostly investigated
 437 in the photic layer of the southeast Mediterranean Sea (e.g., PO₄, Thingstad et al., 2005,
 438 2005) and little is known about the processes, which are often cryptic (e.g., NO₂⁻

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oxygenation), occurring in the aphotic layers. ~~Our study highlights the need for adding DCF measurements to global carbon budgets. Moreover, understanding the factors affecting DCF in the photic and aphotic layers may provide science-based operational opportunities to increase atmospheric inorganic carbon sequestration.~~

Understanding the ‘dark end’ of the biological pump in oligotrophic oceans, which plays an important (yet variable) role in oceanic carbon cycling and sequestration, will require a multidisciplinary approach that take into account all the uncertainties discussed above in light of our (and others) observations of DCF, especially in the context of ongoing and significant changes in the marine environment. Our study supports the need for adding DCF measurements to global carbon budgets as also mentioned by Baltar and Herndl (2010).

Data availability statement

The raw physiological data used to generate figures 1-3 can be downloaded from the PANGAEA repository: Reich, Tom (2025): Primal, chemo and bacterial productivity coupled with inorganic nutrient concentrations from an off shore, outgoing transect cruises. ~~PANGAEA~~; <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.975231>. Hydrological data can be downloaded from <https://isramar.ocean.org.il/isramar2009/>. Genomic data can be downloaded from the NCBI SRA archive project number PRJNA1215023.

Author contribution

TR: Formal experimental work and data analyses; Investigation; Data Curation; Visualization; Writing – Original Draft Preparation. NB: Resources; Writing – Review & Editing. GSV: Investigation; Writing – Review & Editing. HH:

463 Investigation. MRB: Investigation; Writing – Review. IBF: Conceptualization;
464 Funding Acquisition; Supervision; data interpretation, Writing – Review & Editing.
465 ER: Conceptualization; Formal Analysis; Funding Acquisition; Supervision;
466 Visualization; Writing – Review & Editing.

467

468 **Competing interests**

469 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

470

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477 H. Charney School of Marine Sciences, at the University of Haifa.

478

479 **Statements and Declarations**

480 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

481

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