

Virioplankton and virus-induced mortality of prokaryotes in the Kara Sea (Arctic) in summer

Alexander Ivanovich Kopylov^{Corresp., 1}, Elena Anatoliyevna Zabolotkina¹, Andrey Fiodorovich Sazhin^{Corresp., 2}, Nadezda Romanova², Nikolay Belyaev², Anastasia Drozdova²

¹ Papanin Institute for Biology of Inland Waters Russian Academy of Sciences, Borok, Yaroslavl region, Russia

² SHIRSHOV INSTITUTE OF OCEANOLOGY OF RUSSIAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, Moscow, Russia

Corresponding Authors: Alexander Ivanovich Kopylov, Andrey Fiodorovich Sazhin
Email address: kopylov@ibiw.ru, andreysazhin@yandex.ru

Among the Arctic seas, the largest volume of river runoff (~45% of the total river-water inflow into the Arctic Ocean) enters the Siberian Kara Sea. The viral communities of the Kara Sea are important for the functioning of the marine ecosystem. Studies of virus-prokaryote interactions on the Kara Sea shelf have been conducted only in spring and autumn. Here, we investigated the abundance of free viruses, viruses attached to prokaryotes, and pico-sized detrital particles; the morphology (shape and size) of the viruses, viral infection and virus-mediated mortality of prokaryotes in early summer, i.e., during a seasonal ice melting period and maximum inflow of river-water volumes with high concentrations of dissolved and suspended organic carbon. Seawater samples for microbial analyses were collected across the Kara Sea shelf zone on board the *Norilskiy Nickel* as a research platform from June 29 to July 15, 2018. Abundances of prokaryotes (range $(0.6\text{--}25.3) \times 10^5$ cells mL⁻¹) and free viruses (range $(10\text{--}117) \times 10^5$ viruses mL⁻¹) were correlated ($r = 0.63$, $p = 0.005$) with an average virus: prokaryote ratio of 23.9 ± 5.3 . The abundance of free viruses and viral-mediated mortality of prokaryotes were significantly higher in early summer than in early spring and autumn. Free viruses with a capsid diameter of 16–304 nm were recorded in the examined water samples. Waters in the Kara Sea shelf contained high concentrations of suspended organic particles 0.25–4.0 μm in size (range $(0.6\text{--}25.3) \times 10^5$ particles mL⁻¹). The proportions of free viruses, viruses attached to prokaryotes, and viruses attached to pico-sized detrital particles were $89.8 \pm 6.0\%$, $2.2 \pm 0.6\%$ and $8.0 \pm 1.3\%$, respectively, of the total virioplankton abundance (on average $(61.5 \pm 6.2) \times 10^5$ viruses mL⁻¹). Viruses smaller than 60 nm clearly dominated at all studied sites. The majority of free viruses were not tailed. We estimated that an average of 1.4% (range 0.4–3.5%) of the prokaryote community was visibly infected by viruses, suggesting that a significant proportion of prokaryotic secondary production,

11.4% on average (range 4.0–34.0%), was lost due to viral lysis. There was a negative correlation between the abundance of pico-sized detrital particles and the frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells: $r = -0.67$, $p = 0.0008$.

Virioplankton and virus-induced mortality of prokaryotes in the Kara Sea (Arctic) in summer

Alexander I. Kopylov^{1*}, Elena A. Zabolotkina¹, Andrey F. Sazhin^{2**}, Nadezhda D. Romanova², Nicolay A. Belyaev², Anastasia H. Drozdova²

¹ *Papanin Institute for Biology of Inland Waters Russian Academy of Sciences, Borok, Yaroslavl oblast, Russia*

² *Shirshov Institute of Oceanology of Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia*

Subjects: Ecology, Marine Biology, Hydrobiology, Microbiology

Corresponding author *: Alexander Kopylov

109, Borok, Nekouzsky district, Yaroslavl oblast, 152742, Russia

E-mail address: kopylov@ibiw.ru

Corresponding author **: Andrey Sazhin

36, Nakhimovskiy prospect, Moscow, 117997, Russia

E-mail address: andreysazhin@yandex.ru

ABSTRACT

Among the Arctic seas, the largest volume of river runoff (~45% of the total river-water inflow into the Arctic Ocean) enters the Siberian Kara Sea. The viral communities of the Kara Sea are important for the functioning of the marine ecosystem. Studies of virus–prokaryote interactions on the Kara Sea shelf have been conducted only in spring and autumn. Here, we investigated the abundance of free viruses, viruses attached to prokaryotes, and pico-sized detrital particles; the morphology (shape and size) of the viruses, viral infection and virus-mediated mortality of prokaryotes in early summer, i.e., during a seasonal ice melting period and maximum inflow of river-water volumes with high concentrations of dissolved and suspended organic carbon. Seawater samples for microbial analyses were collected across the Kara Sea shelf zone on board the *Norilskiy Nickel* as a research platform from June 29 to July 15, 2018. Abundances of prokaryotes (range $(0.6\text{--}25.3) \times 10^5$ cells mL⁻¹) and free viruses (range $(10\text{--}117) \times 10^5$ viruses mL⁻¹) were correlated ($r = 0.63$, $p = 0.005$) with an average virus: prokaryote ratio of 23.9 ± 5.3 . The abundance of free viruses and viral-mediated mortality of prokaryotes were significantly

higher in early summer than in early spring and autumn. Free viruses with a capsid diameter of 16–304 nm were recorded in the examined water samples. Waters in the Kara Sea shelf contained high concentrations of suspended organic particles 0.25–4.0 μm in size (range $(0.6\text{--}25.3) \times 10^5$ particles mL^{-1}). The proportions of free viruses, viruses attached to prokaryotes, and viruses attached to pico-sized detrital particles were $89.8 \pm 6.0\%$, $2.2 \pm 0.6\%$ and $8.0 \pm 1.3\%$, respectively, of the total virioplankton abundance (on average $(61.5 \pm 6.2) \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1}). Viruses smaller than 60 nm clearly dominated at all studied sites. The majority of free viruses were not tailed. We estimated that an average of 1.4% (range 0.4–3.5%) of the prokaryote community was visibly infected by viruses, suggesting that a significant proportion of prokaryotic secondary production, 11.4% on average (range 4.0–34.0%), was lost due to viral lysis. There was a negative correlation between the abundance of pico-sized detrital particles and the frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells: $r = -0.67$, $p = 0.0008$.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- PD* – pico-sized detrital particles
- N_{PD} – abundance of pico-sized detrital particles
- N_{PDV} – abundance of pico-sized detrital particles with attached viruses
- N_{PR} – abundance of prokaryotes
- N_{PRV} – abundance of prokaryotes with attached viruses
- V_{PR} – volume of prokaryotic cell
- B_{PR} – biomass of prokaryotes
- N_{VF} – abundance of free viruses
- VPR – virus : prokaryote ratio
- N_{VPR} – abundance of viruses attached to prokaryotic cells
- N_{VPD} – abundance of viruses attached to pico-sized detrital particles
- D_{VF} – capsid diameter of free viruses
- FVIC* – frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells
- N_{PRVIC} – abundance of visibly infected prokaryotic cells
- FIC* – frequency of infected prokaryotic cells
- VMPR* – viral-mediated mortality of prokaryotes

BS – burst size

INTRODUCTION

Studies conducted in different Arctic regions have demonstrated that viruses constitute the most abundant component of the plankton community and play a significant role in the functioning of cold-water microbial communities, as well as in marine communities in temperate and tropical climates (Middelboe, Nielsen & Bjørnsen, 2002; Hodges et al., 2005; Wells & Deming, 2006a; Suttle, 2007; Maranger et al., 2015; Sandaa et al., 2018). In polar regions viruses maintain their infectivity at low temperatures (Middelboe, Nielsen & Bjørnsen, 2002; Weinbauer, Brettar & Höfle, 2003), and viral lysis can be important in controlling prokaryotic abundance (Guixaboisxereu et al., 2002; Wells & Deming, 2006b). Viral lysis of prokaryotes may also influence the composition of the prokaryotic community (Weinbauer & Rassoulzadegan, 2004) and trigger the release of intracellular material upon lyses, which in turn stimulates the cycling of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) by heterotrophic prokaryotes (Bratbak, Thingstad & Heldal, 1994; Wilhelm & Suttle, 1999; Suttle, 2007). Coastal marine systems in the Arctic typically contain high concentrations of inorganic and organic particles, which enter the water column via melting of land and sea ice and runoff from large rivers (Lasareva et al., 2019; Maat, Prins & Brussaard, 2019). The high suspended particle load may substantially reduce the ability of viruses to infect prokaryotes as viruses are efficiently adsorbed by silt, clay, and organic particles (Murray & Jackson, 1992; Simon et al., 2002).

The Kara Sea is a heterogeneous and productive marine ecosystem within the Arctic Ocean, which plays a key role in the carbon cycle. The Kara Sea is mostly a shallow Arctic shelf basin influenced by river runoff: it receives 1300–1400 km³ of fresh water annually, accounting for 41% of total freshwater runoff to the Arctic Ocean (Makkaveev et al., 2015).

Knowledge of the patterns of the transformation of organic matter and remineralization of nutrients in the low water-temperature conditions on the Kara Sea shelf in the modern period demand detailed information on the structural and functional organization of microbial communities. These data are also necessary to assess possible future changes in the structure and functioning of prokaryotic and viral communities in the process of global warming, increased

runoff from Siberian rivers flowing into the Arctic regions, and increasing anthropogenic load on the Kara Sea shelf.

In recent years, data have been obtained on the abundance of planktonic prokaryotes and viruses and virus-mediated mortality of prokaryotes in different areas of the Kara Sea shelf in early spring and autumn (Kopylov et al., 2015, 2019). However, virioplankton and viral infections of heterotrophic prokaryotes in the Kara Sea in the phenological period of early summer remain unstudied.

A specific feature of this phenological period between spring and summer is that planktonic microbial communities in the western part of the sea function under melting land and sea ice conditions, whereas in the eastern part, under conditions of maximum inflow of water masses of the Ob and Yenisei rivers, which alter the salinity regime of this water area and transport a large amount of mineral and organic matter. The river runoff of the Siberian rivers has a pronounced seasonality. In May-June, the Ob River brings 136 km³ of fresh water or 32% of the total annual river flow to the Kara Sea, and the Yenisei River – 284 km³ or 45% of its annual river flow. During these two months, 1.338×10^9 g of dissolved organic carbon (*DOC*) or 32% of the annual *DOC* input enters the Kara Sea from the Ob River, 2.942×10^9 g *DOC* or 63% of the annual *DOC* input from the Yenisei River (Holmes et al., 2002). Accordingly, during this period, a much larger amount of dissolved *DOC* and biogenic elements enters the sea compared to other seasons (Holmes et al., 2002). Higher *DOC* concentrations and a relatively high water temperature, apparently, should contribute to a more intensive reproduction of heterotrophic bacteria and, accordingly, a greater activity of their obligate parasites – bacteriophage viruses”. The allochthonous dissolved and suspended organic matter entering the Kara Sea has a significant impact both on the functioning of prokaryotes and the structure and activity of viruses (Kopylov et al., 2022). The results obtained in this research can be used to fill the information gap on the state of planktonic prokaryotes and viruses during early summer and thereby reconstruct the seasonal cycle of the planktonic microbial community in this section of the Arctic shelf. Emerging data suggest that the planktonic microbial assemblages in the Kara Sea are active and diverse and can respond rapidly to changes in environmental conditions (Kopylov et al., 2017; Romanova & Boltenkova, 2020; Romanova et al., 2022).

Based on this research, we test the hypothesis that the abundance of free viruses is maximal in early summer, and not in other seasons: in spring; in midsummer, when the Ob and Yenisei floods end; or later, during the autumn flood of the rivers. We also assume that viral infection and virus-mediated mortality of prokaryotes is higher than in other seasons.

This determined the aim of our investigation, to assess for the first time the abundance and activity of planktonic viruses in the Kara Sea in early summer. The specific objectives were to determine (1) the abundance of free viruses and viruses attached to prokaryotic cells and pico-sized detrital particles, (2) morphological characteristics and capsid sizes of viral particles, (3) frequency of visibly infected cells and virus-mediated mortality of prokaryotes, and (4) significance of the relationship between viruses and abiotic and biotic variables.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Study sites and sampling

Water samples were collected from June 29 to July 15, 2018, on board the *Norilskiy Nickel* at 21 stations along the vessel's course, from the station in the Barents Sea near the Kara Strait to the one near the Taimyr Peninsula in the Yenisei estuary. Stations were located the Marine Area (MA), a part of the shelf that receives no river runoff, and the Coastal Area (CA), adjacent to the Ob and Yenisei estuaries (Fig. 1). Samples at stations 3 and 4 were taken in ship-made channels in an ice-covered water area; stations 5, 24, and 25 were located in open water among ice fields. Other stations were ice-free.

Temperature was measured with an SBE-39 probe and LCD thermometer (HANNA Checktemp-1). Salinity (in practical salinity units) was measured with a Kelilong PHT-028 salinity meter (China). Surface water samples (depth 0.5 m) for biological variables and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were collected by hand with a sterile 10-L bucket from the side of the ship. The 10-L buckets were rinsed with 0.1 M HCL prior to each DOC sampling. The DOC concentrations were measured with a Shimadzu TOC-Vcph carbon analyzer coupled with an SSM-5000A solid sample module (Belyaev, Peresypkin & Ponyaev, 2010).

Immediately after collection, water samples for microscopic studies were fixed with 25% glutaraldehyde (final concentration 1%). Samples for determining the abundance and biomass of

prokaryotes were stored in sterile vials in the dark at 2–4°C until completion of work at the station, no more than 1 h. After that, slides for epifluorescent microscopy were prepared and stored at –24°C for 1 month before analysis.

Samples for studying viruses were subsequently stored at –80°C until processing at an office laboratory.

Enumeration of prokaryotes and smallest organic particles

The abundances of prokaryotes (cocci and ellipsoids, rods and vibrios, and filaments were estimated separately) were determined by standard techniques using fluorochrome 4', 6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) and epifluorescence microscopy (Porter & Feig, 1980). From each station, a 7-mL sample was stained with DAPI at a final concentration of 1 µg mL⁻¹ and filtered onto a black nuclepore filter (pore size 0.2 µm). Filters were placed on glass slides and covered with Leica Type N immersion liquid and a cover glass.

Observation and counts were done under an epifluorescence microscope (Leica DM 5000 B) at a magnification of ×1000 in two replicates. On each filter, at least 400 prokaryotes were counted and the dimensions of at least 100 cells were measured. The wet biomass was estimated based on the individual cell volume using Image Scope Color, version Image Scope M 2009, FEI Electron Optics B.V. The carbon content in prokaryotic cells (C , fg C cells⁻¹) was calculated by the following allometric equation: $C = 120 \times V^{0.72}$, where V is the mean volume of prokaryotic cells, µm³ (Norland, 1993).

Yellow pico-sized organic particles (0.25–4.0 µm in size), clearly distinguished from prokaryotic cells, were also counted on DAPI-stained filters by epifluorescence microscopy (Porter & Feig, 1980; Mostajir, Dolan & Rassoulzadegan, 1995; Wells & Deming, 2003). On each filter, at least 400 pico-sized detrital particles were counted. The specific gravity of detritus particles was assumed to equal to 1.

Enumeration of viruses

The viral particles were counted under an epifluorescence microscope using SYBR Green I fluorochrome and Whatman Anodisc aluminum oxide membrane filters (pore size 0.02 µm)

(Noble & Fuhrman, 1998). Depending on the viral abundance, between 0.2 and 1.0 mL of water was filtered onto the Anodisc filters. Counts were done under an Olympus BX51 epifluorescence microscope (Olympus, Japan) using imaging Software cell^F (Olympus cell^{*} Family, Olympus Soft Imaging Solutions GMBH, Germany) at $\times 1000$ magnification. For each water sample, two filters were analyzed; counts yielded a minimum of 800 viruses. The carbon content in viral particles was taken as $0.055 \text{ fg C virus}^{-1}$ (Steward et al., 2007).

Viruses were also enumerated using transmission electron microscopy as described earlier (Suttle, 1993; Brum, Schenck & Sullivan, 2013). In glutaraldehyde-fixed samples, viruses, prokaryotes and smallest detrital particles contained in 50-mL samples were harvested by centrifugation onto Pioloform (SPI, USA) and carbon-coated 400-mesh nickel grids, using an OPTIMA L-90k ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter, USA) at $100\,000 \times g$ for 2 h. Two grids were thus prepared for each water sample.

The grids were then positively stained for 30 s at room temperature with 1% (wt/vol) solutions of uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and rinsed three times with deionized distilled water. The grids were further analyzed under a JEM 1011 electron microscope (Jeol, Japan) at $\times 50\,000$ – $150\,000$ magnification.

Viruses were identified on the basis of morphology (round or hexagonal capsid structures, tailed and nontailed), size and staining characteristics. Viruses were classified as myoviruses, podoviruses, siphoviruses or icosahedral nontailed viruses (referred to as nontailed viruses hereafter) based on their morphology as defined by the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (King et al., 2012). The following six classes of virus capsid size were examined to characterize viral populations: <40 , 40 – 60 , >60 – 100 , >100 – 150 , >150 – 200 , and >200 nm. No less than 300 viral particles were analyzed per sample.

Transmission electron microscopy was used to measure the proportion of prokaryotic cells with attached viruses, the proportion of smallest detrital particles (0.25 – $4.0 \mu\text{m}$) with attached viruses, and the abundance of viruses attached to a single prokaryotic cell and to a single detrital particle. No less than 800 detrital particles were analyzed per sample.

Virally infected prokaryotes and subsequent mortality

The method of transmission electron microscopy was used to estimate the frequency of visibly infected cells (*FVIC*, estimated as the share (%) of total prokaryotic abundance) and the mean number of fully matured phages in prokaryotes (i.e., burst size (*BS*), viruses cell⁻¹) (Weinbauer, 2004). At least 1200 prokaryotic cells per sample were examined to determine *FVIC*. Because viruses inside prokaryotic cells become visible during the last ~10% of the lytic cycle (Proctor, Okubo & Fuhrman, 1993), *FVIC* were converted to the frequency of infected prokaryotes (*FIC*) using the equation: $FIC = 7.1 \times FVIC - 22.5 \times FVIC^2$ (with data given as percentages) (Binder, 1999). Virus-induced mortality of prokaryotes (*VMPR*, expressed as a percentage of the production of prokaryotes,) was estimated from *FIC* following the model of (Binder, 1999) with $VMPR = (FIC + 0.6 \times FIC^2) / (1 - 1.2 \times FIC)$ and is given as a percentage. In this model, it is assumed that in a steady system, infected and uninfected prokaryotes are grazed at the same rate and that the latent period is equal to the prokaryotic generation time (Proctor, Okubo & Fuhrman, 1993; Middelboe, 2000).

Statistical analyses

Correlations between the parameters were analyzed using Spearman's correlation coefficient calculated by Past 4.03 software (Hammer, Harper & Ryan, 2001) with regard for the prerequisites for the analyzed data.

RESULTS

Environmental Parameters

Table 1 shows values of the physical and chemical variables of the different surface seawater samples collected at stations in the Barents Sea, Kara Strait, and the Marine and Coastal areas of the Kara Sea. The water temperature and *DOC* values, on average for the area, were 2.7 and 3.7 times, respectively, higher in the CA than in the MA. At the same time, the average salinity and alkalinity values were 2.8 and 1.7 times lower in the CA than in the MA, respectively (Fig. 2). CA affected by the Ob and Yenisei runoff was also characterized by higher nutrient

concentrations and abundance of detrital particles with a size of 0.25–4.0 μm (Fig. 2). The minimum and maximum chl *a* concentrations differed 150-fold in the Kara Sea (Table 1). The chl *a* concentration was twice as high in the CA than in the MA (Fig. 2). The chl *a* and nutrient concentrations were used to estimate the trophic conditions (Primpas & Karydis, 2011). Oligotrophic conditions were found most studied stations in the MA. The chl *a* and nutrient concentrations in the CA corresponded to oligo-mesotrophic waters.

Abundance of prokaryotes and pico-sized organic particles

The abundance (N_{PR}), average cell volume of prokaryotes, and biomass (B_{PR}) of prokaryotes varied widely in the surface water layer (Table 2). The minimum and maximum N_{PR} and B_{PR} values differed by 39 and 34 times across the transect, respectively. The highest values were recorded in the eastern part of the CA (stations 12, 18). The average cell volume of prokaryotes was 0.034 μm^3 in the Barents Sea, 0.042 μm^3 in the Kara Strait, $0.049 \pm 0.004 \mu\text{m}^3$ in MA, and $0.035 \pm 0.002 \mu\text{m}^3$ in CA.

As a result, over the entire period (June 29–July 15), N_{PR} and B_{PR} were on average 7.6×10^5 cells mL^{-1} and 7.82 mg C m^{-3} in the Barents Sea, $1.8 \pm 0.4 \times 10^5$ cells mL^{-1} and 2.36 ± 0.38 mg C m^{-3} in MA, and $11.4 \pm 2.4 \times 10^3$ cells mL^{-1} and 12.15 ± 2.60 mg C m^{-3} in CA.

For the overall data set, N_{PR} was positively correlated with *T*, *Si*, *DOC*, and chl *a*, but negatively with *S* and *Alk*. There were no significant correlations between N_{PR} and ($\text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$), PO_4 , N_{PD} .

The amount of pico-sized organic particles was high in the studied waters. These yellow particles are pico-sized detritus (Mostajir, Dolan & Rassoulzadegan, 1995; Wells & Deming, 2003). The abundance of detrital particles 0.25–4.00 μm (N_{PD}) in size varied between 1.75 and 20.59×10^5 particles mL^{-1} , and the wet weight, from 0.2 to 2.7 mg L^{-1} (Table 1). The average N_{PD} value in the MA was lower than in the CA by 1.4 times, and the wet weight was 3.2 times lower (Fig. 2).

Abundance of virioplankton and composition

The epifluorescence microscopy estimates of free viral concentrations (N_{VF}) ranged from 10×10^5 viruses mL^{-1} to 11.7×10^6 viruses mL^{-1} (Fig.3, Table 3). The N_{VF} values in the Barents Sea and

the Kara Strait were lower than in the MA and CA (Fig. 4). The abundance N_{VF} in the Kara sea was on average $58.6 \pm 5.7 \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} . The virus : prokaryote ratio (VPR) in MA, on average 37.0 ± 7.2 , was significantly higher than in the CA, on average 7.6 ± 1.7 (Fig. 4). As a result, the average VPR value on the Kara Sea shelf was 23.9 ± 5.3 .

For the overall data set, N_{VF} was positively correlated only with N_{PR} and DOC and negatively with S (Table 4). Negative correlations were found between VPR , N_{PR} , T , and DOC (Table 4).

For the 6300 viruses and 21 samples examined, only four viral morphotypes were observed: myoviruses (morphotypes with contractile tails of various shape), siphoviruses (morphotypes with long noncontractile, often flexible tails), podoviruses (morphotypes with short tails), and nontailed viruses (Fig. 3). Nontailed viruses dominated at all stations (57.0–82.0%), while podoviruses, myoviruses, and siphoviruses were the next most abundant morphotypes, in that order. The proportion of podoviruses was similar for all sites (17.3–17.9%). The proportion of nontailed viruses out of the total viruses observed in the CA ($65.9 \pm 1.9\%$) was lower than in the MA ($72.6 \pm 2.0\%$); conversely, the proportions of myoviruses and siphoviruses out of the total viruses observed in the eastern Kara Sea were higher than those in the western, 1.6 and 2.6 times, respectively (Fig. 5).

The capsid diameter (D_{VF}) of free viral particles varied from 16 to 304 nm (Table 3). The average capsid diameter varied between 37 and 64 nm per water sample, averaging 50 ± 7 nm for the 21 samples. The average D_{VF} values in the MA and CA were close, 53 ± 2 and 51 ± 2 nm, respectively. On the Kara Sea shelf, the proportion of viruses with sizes of <40, 40–60, >60–100, >100–150, >150–200, and >200 nm out of the total virioplankton abundance was, on average, 40.54 ± 14.85 , 36.89 ± 6.21 , 18.67 ± 10.26 , 3.11 ± 2.71 , 0.64 ± 1.09 and $0.15 \pm 0.37\%$, respectively, for all water samples. Thus, from June 29 to July 15, 2018, viruses with a capsid diameter of ≤ 60 nm amounted to 77.43% of the total abundance of free viruses.

The abundance of prokaryotes with viruses attached to their cells (N_{PRV}) varied from 0.2×10^5 cells mL^{-1} to 11.2×10^5 cells mL^{-1} , on average $1.6 \pm 0.5 \times 10^5$ cells mL^{-1} , which was 10.9–40.7%, on average $24.0 \pm 1.4\%$, of the total abundance of prokaryotes (Fig. 3, Table 5). There were from one to 12 viral particles attached to the surface of a cell of prokaryotes. From 1.2 ± 0.1 to 1.9 ± 0.3 viruses cell^{-1} were on the surface of a bacterial cell on average per water sample. The abundance

of viruses attached to prokaryotes (N_{VPR}) varied between 0.1×10^5 and 10.3×10^5 viruses mL^{-1} , averaging $(1.6 \pm 0.1) \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} . The average N_{VPR} value in the CA was seven times higher than in the MA (Fig. 4). The capsid diameter of viruses attached to prokaryotes varied from 16 to 167 nm. The average capsid diameters of viruses attached to prokaryotes per water sample varied between 45 and 88 nm, averaging 61 ± 0.4 nm for all samples (Table 5).

The abundance of pico-sized detrital particles with attached viruses (N_{PDV}) ranged between 0.7×10^5 to 4.2×10^5 particles mL^{-1} (on average $2.0 \pm 0.2 \times 10^5$ particles mL^{-1}) and was from 7.1 to 75.0% (on average $28.6 \pm 3.5\%$) of N_{PD} (Fig. 3, Table 6). The average amount of N_{PDV} in the Barents Sea and in the MA was two- and 1.4-fold lower than in CA, respectively. From one to 17 viruses were attached to the surface of a single detrital particle. As a result, the abundance of viruses attached to detrital particles (N_{VPD}) in the Kara Sea was, on average, $5.4 \pm 0.8 \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} . The average abundances N_{VPD} in the Barents Sea and in the MA were 3.4 and 2.0 times lower than in the CA, respectively. The capsid diameter of viruses attached to detrital particles ranged from 21 to 137 nm. The average capsid diameters of viruses attached to PD (pico-sized detrital particles) per water sample were 25–72 nm, averaging 56 ± 3 nm for all samples (Table 6).

As a result, the total abundance of virioplankton (N_{VT}) was $(14\text{--}140) \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} , averaging $62 \pm 6 \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} . Thus, the proportion of free viruses in N_{VT} was 72.0–98.1 (on average 89.8 ± 6.0) % and was significantly higher than the proportion of viruses attached to prokaryotes, 0.3–7.6 (on average 2.2 ± 0.6) % and viruses attached to detrital particles 1.6–26.5 (on average 8.0 ± 1.3) %. The largest contribution of free viruses to the formation N_{VT} was found at station 3 in the MA; viruses attached to prokaryotic cells, at station 12 in the CA; and viruses attached to detrital particles, at station 23 in the CA.

The total biomass of virioplankton (B_{VT}) varied between 0.08 and 0.77 mg C m^{-3} , averaging $0.33 \pm 0.03 \text{ mg C m}^{-3}$, and the proportion of virioplankton biomass of the prokaryotic biomass (B_{VT}/B_{PR}) varied between 2.1 and 35.0% (on average $10.1 \pm 1.9\%$). The B_{VT} and B_{VT}/B_{PR} values were, on average, 0.22 mg C m^{-3} and 3.2% in the Barents Sea; 0.11 mg C m^{-3} and 12.6% in the Kara Strait; $0.30 \pm 0.03 \text{ mg C m}^{-3}$ and $15.4 \pm 0.9\%$ in the MA; $0.43 \pm 0.06 \text{ mg C m}^{-3}$ and $4.2 \pm 0.3\%$ in the CA.

Viral infection and virus-mediated mortality of prokaryotes

The frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells ($FVIC$) in the Kara Sea ranged from 0.4 to 3.5% N_{PR} , averaging $1.3 \pm 0.2\%$ N_{PR} (Fig. 3, Table 7). The average $FVIC$ values in the MA and CA were close or slightly less than those in the Kara Strait and Barents Sea (Fig. 4). There was no significant positive correlation between N_{PR} and $FVIC$. A negative correlation was found between the abundance of N_{PD} and $FVIC$ (Table 4).

Calculations based on the $FVIC$ estimates showed that the proportion of virus-infected cells of N_{PR} (FIC) varied from 2.9 to 22.1% of N_{PR} (on average $9.2 \pm 0.9\%$ of N_{PR}), and the viral-mediated mortality of prokaryotes ($VMPR$) was 4.0–34.0% (on average $11.4 \pm 1.5\%$) of the prokaryotic production. The abundance of visibly infected prokaryotic cells (N_{PRVIC}) was $(1-36) \times 10^3$ cells mL^{-1} , on average, $8 \pm 2 \times 10^3$ cells mL^{-1} . The minimum and maximum N_{PRVIC} / N_{PRV} ratios differed by seven times (Table 7) and the N_{PRV} / N_{PRVIC} ratio varied from 8 to 58. A strong positive correlation was found between N_{PRV} and N_{PRVIC} , $r = 0.89$, $p < 0.005$, $n = 21$. Whereas the average abundance of viral infected prokaryotic cells in the MA was six times lower than in the CA, the N_{PRVIC} / N_{PRV} values in these areas did not differ significantly, 5.8 ± 1.0 and $4.9 \pm 1.1\%$, respectively.

The number of phages in viral-infected prokaryotic cells (BS) fluctuated from 4 to 35 phages cell^{-1} , averaging 7.1 ± 0.7 phages cell^{-1} (Table 7).

Cocci+ellipsoid cells (58–71%) made the main contribution to the total abundance of prokaryotes; rods and vibrios (28–41%) and filaments (0–3.0%) were less abundant (Fig. 6). Rods and vibrios accounted for the largest fraction of virus-infected prokaryotes (69–94% of the total abundance of infected prokaryotes), with lower numbers observed for cocci, ellipsoids, and filaments (6–28% and 0–3%) (Fig. 6). That is, the phages infected prokaryotic cells of different morphology at a different rate. The proportion of virus-infected rods and vibrios in the total abundance of prokaryotes with the corresponding morphology was highest in the Barents Sea. The proportion of virus-infected cocci and ellipsoids in the total abundance of prokaryotes with the corresponding morphology was lowest in the CA.

Percentage of infected cells to the number of cocci and ellipsoids in the MA was higher than in the CA, but the percentage of infected cells to the number of cocci and ellipsoids in the MA was lower than in the CA (Fig. 6).

DISCUSSION

Abundance and biomass of viruses

In the current study, a high abundance of free viruses (N_{VF}) was detected in the Kara Sea in early summer. N_{VF} consistently correlated with the abundance of prokaryotes (N_{PR}), whereas other physical, chemical, and biological parameters correlated only weakly or not at all with N_{VF} . Other researchers have also observed that virus-like particles were significantly correlated with bacterial abundance, but correlations with other physicochemical or biological parameters were insignificant (Stopar et al., 2003). The typical viral life cycles (lytic and lysogenic) and replication rates are closely linked with host metabolism. Consequently, the factors regulating the physiology of the host, as well as its production and removal are also important in governing virus dynamics (Mojica, Brussaard, 2014; Zhang et al., 2021). A strong positive correlations between N_{VF} and N_{PR} suggest that a significant amount of bacteriophages are present in the virioplankton (Steward, Smith & Azam, 1996; Wommack & Colvell, 2000; Auguet et al., 2005).

Comparison of the results of studies of planktonic free viruses on the Kara Sea shelf conducted at different times of the year showed that in in early summer, the average N_{VF} $58.6 \pm 5.7 \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} and VPR 23.9 ± 4.9 values (present study) were higher than those obtained in early spring, $10.8 \pm 0.2 \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} and 6.9 ± 0.8 (Kopylov et al., 2019) and in autumn, $17.3 \pm 0.8 \times 10^5$ viruses mL^{-1} and 5.0 ± 0.5 (Kopylov et al., 2015; Kopylov et al., 2017). The N_{VF} in the Kara Sea are within the range of N_{VF} $((0.1-64.1) \times 10^6$ viruses mL^{-1} and VPR 0.8–70.0% values recorded in the central Arctic Ocean and other Arctic seas (Steward, Smith & Azam, 1996; Hodges et al., 2005; Steward et al., 2007; Clasen et al., 2008; Venger et al., 2016). In early summer, in Kara Strait and Kara Sea of viral biomass (B_V) was $10.7 \pm 4.7\%$ of prokaryotic biomass (B_{PR}) (present study). In early spring, the $B_V : B_{PR}$ ratio was significantly lower, $2.2 \pm 1.3\%$ (Kopylov et al., 2019). For comparison, the viral biomass in the central Arctic Ocean was about 6% of the prokaryotic biomass (Steward et al., 2007).

Morphological characteristics

Only four morphotypes (myoviruses, siphoviruses, podoviruses, and nontailed viruses) were observed in this study, indicating that other morphotypes (for example, lemon-shaped or filamentous) made up <1% of these marine viral assemblages. Nontailed viruses appear to dominate numerically in the Kara Sea, since they constituted, on average, 65.9–72.6% of the viral particles observed. Similar to the results obtained in other marine habitats (Stopar et al., 2003; Auguet, Montanie & Lebaron, 2006), Brum, Schenck & Sullivan (2013) found that nontailed icosahedral viruses dominate in the upper water column of the global oceans, making up 51–92% of viral assemblages.

The majority of pelagic viruses in this study were less than 60 nm in diameter. Similar results were reported for estuarine and marine waters at different latitudes (Bergh et al., 1989; Cochlan et al., 1993; Weinbauer & Peduzzi, 1994; Alonso et al., 2001; Auguet, Montanie & Lebaron, 2006). In Kara Sea waters, the capsid size of viruses attached to prokaryotic cells rarely exceeded 100 nm, 61 ± 2 nm on average. Viruses of eukaryotic algae typically have a larger capsid size (100–180 nm, on average 152 nm) (Van Etten, Lane & Meints, 1991), whereas the majority of icosahedral nontailed phages observed had head sizes <70 nm, making it likely that these could be bacteriophages (Hanson, Berges & Young, 2017).

In summer 2018, the proportion of viral particles with a capsid diameter <100 nm (mainly bacteriophages) of N_{VF} (96%) is higher than in spring 2016 (80%); conversely, the proportion of viruses with a capsid diameter >100 nm (hosts of which are mainly algae and other eukaryotic organisms) is significantly lower in summer (4%) than in spring (20%). As a result, the average capsid diameter of viruses in summer (51.7 ± 1.3 nm, present study) was lower than in spring (79.8 ± 1.3 nm (Kopylov et al., 2019)). The presence of a large number of phycoviruses in Kara Sea shelf waters in early spring 2016 was probably due to the end of the diatom bloom on the lower surface of ice. This was evidenced by both the appearance of the lower edge of the ice, colored brown, and the remains of characteristic colonies of ice algae (mainly *Nitzschia frigida* Grunow, 1880) in surface water samples. In addition, during this period, the bloom of *Phaeocystis pouchetii* (Hariot) Lagerheim, 1896 had begun, already forming numerous colonies (Sazhin et al., 2017).

Viral infection and virus-mediated mortality of prokaryotes

In Arctic waters, the *FVIC* and *VMPR* values most often vary from 0.5% of N_{PR} and 3.7% of P_{PR} (central Arctic region (Steward et al., 2007)) to 2.1% N_{PR} and 20.2% of P_{PR} (coastal waters of the Novaya Zemlya archipelago (Venger et al., 2016)). Thus, in summer, the average *FVIC* and *VMPR* values in surface waters on the Kara Sea shelf are in the middle of the range of values determined in different regions of the Arctic (Steward, Smith & Azam, 1996; Middelboe, Nielsen & Bjørnsen, 2002; Boras et al., 2010).

As is known, the frequency of contacts between viral particles and prokaryotic cells depends on their respective abundance, the physical and chemical parameters of the water, and the size of a given prokaryotic cell and given viral capsid (Murray & Jackson, 1992). It is possible that the relatively larger size of rods and vibrios (from 0.6×0.2 to $1.7 \times 0.6 \mu\text{m}$) and filamentous prokaryotes (from 1.1×0.3 to $2.7 \times 0.8 \mu\text{m}$) compared to the cocci and ellipsoids cell (from 0.3×0.2 to $1.0 \times 0.6 \mu\text{m}$) contributes to a higher frequency of contacts between these morphological types of prokaryotes and viruses and, as a consequence, to the higher probability of viral infection of these prokaryotes.

A high concentration of *PD* with less than $4 \mu\text{m}$ in size was found in surface waters of the Kara Sea shelf; their abundance exceeded that of prokaryotes. A large amount of *PD* with attached viruses was detected. The average abundance of viruses attached to pico-sized *PD* exceeded fivefold the average abundance of viruses attached to prokaryotes, suggesting that adsorption of viral particles to pico-sized *PD* reduced both the abundance of free viruses and the level of viral infection of prokaryotes. A negative correlation was found between the abundance of *PD* and *FVIC* $r = -0.67$, $p = 0.0008$.

By adsorption to nonliving organic particles, the viruses are thus, at least temporarily, unavailable for infection of new host cells, and adsorption of viruses to organic particles is expected to have a profound inhibitory effect on virally mediated mortality of microorganisms (Brussaard, Kuipers & Veldhuis, 2005; Mojica & Brussaard, 2014).

The low abundance of viruses during the transitional period from spring to summer is explained by adsorption of viruses to suspended inorganic particles entering Arctic coastal waters with runoff from adjacent land and to detrital particles formed in large quantities after the phytoplankton bloom (Schoemann et al., 2005).

Recently, it was experimentally demonstrated that different virus populations strongly adsorb to fine-grained glacial sediments. Moreover, production of progeny was strongly delayed in the presence of glacial sediments (Maat, Prins & Brussaard, 2019; Maat, Visser & Brussaard, 2019). In the CA, the abundance of prokaryotes was 6.3 times higher than in the MA. At the same time, the abundance of free viruses in the CA was 1.4 times higher than in MA. A higher concentration of suspended particles in waters of the eastern Kara Sea may be one of the possible reasons for the relatively low concentration of free viruses in the CA, as well as in some other marine habitats (Hewson & Fuhrman, 2003; Maat, Visser & Brussaard, 2019). According to our data, the weight of detrital particles with a size of $0.254.0 \mu\text{m}$ on average for the area is three times higher in the CA than in the MA. The lowest ($0.2\text{--}0.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) suspended particulate matter (SPM, particle size from 0.47 to 1 mm) were detected in the western Kara Sea, whereas the SPM concentration reaches 10 mg L^{-1} in the eastern part (Burenkov, Goldin & Kravchishina, 2010). Based on our data, the average abundance of viruses attached to detrital particles less than $4 \mu\text{m}$ in size were twice as high in the CA as in the MA. It was shown earlier that the low viral abundance generally observed in the presence of high suspended particle load might be caused by adsorption to suspended particles (Simon et al., 2002). We hypothesize that, higher concentrations of suspended particles entering the CA in large amounts with Ob and Yenisei runoff and, correspondingly, higher adsorption of viruses to these particles resulted in the reduced abundance of free-living viruses and hence a lower specific contact rate between prokaryotes and viruses, decreasing the frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells.

CONCLUSIONS

In late June–early July (i.e., at the end of the phenological spring–early summer), viruses are an essential component of the planktonic microbial community on the Kara Sea shelf, averaging about 10% of the prokaryotic biomass. The abundance of free viruses in very early summer was higher than those found on the Kara Sea shelf in early spring and autumn. A strong positive correlation was found between the abundance of prokaryotes and free viruses. Free viruses significantly prevailed in the total abundance of virioplankton. Nontailed viruses quantitatively constituted the majority of free viruses in Kara Sea water samples. The predominant viral particles had a capsid diameter of $16\text{--}60 \text{ nm}$.

A large number of viruses were attached to detrital particles with a size of 0.25–4.0 μm . The negative correlation between the frequency of virus-infected prokaryotic cells and the abundance of pico-sized detrital particles suggests that the latter are an important factor reducing the level of viral infection of prokaryotes. According to the obtained values of viral-mediated mortality of prokaryotes, in early summer, viruses in general play an appreciable role in controlling the abundance of prokaryotes on the Kara Sea shelf.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank S.I. Metelev, G. Bykov, and Z. Bykova of the Centre for Electron Microscopy, Papanin Institute for Biology of Inland Waters, Russian Academy of Sciences, for their help in preparing material for electron microscopy. The authors are deeply grateful to Dr. Aaron Carpenter for correcting the English translation. The authors are also grateful to three anonymous reviewers for their thorough work with the manuscript.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND DECLARATIONS

Funding

The research was supported by Russian Science Foundation project no. 22-17-00011.

Grant Disclosures: <https://rscf.ru/project/22-17-00011>.

Competing Interests

The authors declare that there are no competing interests.

Author Contributions

Alexander I. Kopylov conceived, designed, and performed experiments, wrote the paper, prepared tables, and approved the final draft.

Elena A. Zobotkina conceived, designed, and performed experiments, analyzed data, prepared figures, reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.

Andrey F. Sazhin conceived, designed, and performed experiments, analyzed data, and approved the final draft.

Nadezhda D. Romanova conceived, designed, and performed experiments, analyzed data, and approved the final draft.

Anastasia M. Drozdova and Nicolay A. Belyaev performed experiments, analyzed data, and approved the final draft.

REFERENCES

- Alonso MC, Jimenez-Gomez F, Rodriguez J, Borrego JJ. 2001. Distribution of virus-like particles in an oligotrophic marine environment (Alboran sea, Western Mediterranean). *Microbial Ecology* 42: 407–415. DOI: 10.1007/s00248-001-0015-y.
- Auguet JC, Montanié H, Delmas D, Hartmann HJ, Huet V. 2005. Dynamic virioplankton abundance and its environmental control in the Charente estuary (France). *Microbial Ecology* 50: 337–349. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-005-0183-2>.
- Auguet JC, Montanié H, Lebaron P. 2006. Structure of virioplankton in the Charente Estuary (France): transmission electron microscopy versus pulsed field gel electrophoresis. *Microbial Ecology* 2006: 197–208. DOI: 10.1007/s00248-005-0043-0
- Belyaev NA, Peresypkin VI, Ponyaev MS. 2010. The organic carbon in the water, the particulate matter, and the upper layer of the bottom sediments of the west Kara Sea. *Oceanology* 50: 706–715. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S0001437010050085>.
- Bergh Ø, Borsheim KY, Bratbak G, Heldal M. 1989. High abundance of viruses found in aquatic environments. *Nature* 340: 467–468. <https://doi.org/10.1038/340467a0>
- Binder B. 1999. Reconsidering the relationship between virally induced bacterial mortality and frequency of infected cells. *Aquatic Ecology* 18: 207–215. DOI: 10.3354 /AME018207.
- Boras JA, Sala MM, Arrieta JM, Sa EL, Felipe J, Agustí S, Duarte CM, Vaqué D. 2010. Effect of ice melting on bacterial carbon fluxes channeled by viruses and protists in the Arctic Ocean. *Polar Biology* 33: 1695–1707. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00300-010-0798-8>.
- Bratbak G, Thingstad TF, Heldal M. 1994. Viruses and the microbial loop. *Microbial Ecology* 28: 209–221. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00166811>.

555 Brum JR, Schenck RO, Sullivan MB. 2013. Global morphological analysis of marine viruses
556 shows minimal regional variation and dominance of nontailed viruses. *The ISME Journal* 7:
557 1738–1751. doi:10.1038/ismej.2013.67

558 Brussaard CPD, Kuipers B, Veldhuis MJW. 2005. A mesocosm study of *Phaeocystis globosa*
559 population dynamics – I. Regulatory role viruses in bloom control. *Harmful Algae* 4: 859–874.
560 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2004.12.015>.

561 Burenkov VT, Goldin YuA, Kravchishina MD. 2010. Distribution of suspended particulate
562 matter concentration in the Kara Sea in September 2007 based on wessel and satellite data.
563 *Oceanology* 50: 842–849. DOI:10.1134/S0001437010050164

564 Carstens EB. 2012. Introduction to Virus Taxonomy. In: King AMQ, Adams MJ, Carstens EB,
565 Lefkowitz EJ, eds. *Virus Taxonomy: Ninth Report of the International Committee on Taxonomy*
566 *of Viruses*. San Diego: Academic Press. 3–20. [https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384684-](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384684-6.00114-2)
567 [6.00114-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-384684-6.00114-2)

568 Clasen JL, Brigden SM, Payet JP, Suttle CA. 2008. Evidence that viral abundance across oceans
569 and lakes is driven by different biological factors. *Freshwater Biology* 53: 1090–1100.
570 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2427.2008.01992.x>.

571 Cochlan WP, Wikner J, Steward GF, Smith DC, Azam F. 1993. Spatial distribution of viruses,
572 bacteria and chlorophyll a in neretic, oceanic and estuarine environments. *Marine Ecology*
573 *Progress Series* 92: 77–87. DOI: 10.3354/meps092077.

574 Guixa-Boixereu N, Vaqué D, Gasol JM, Sánchez-Cámara J, Pedrós-Alió C. 2002. Viral
575 distribution and activity in Antarctic waters. *Deep Sea Research II* 49: 827–845.
576 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645\(01\)00126-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645(01)00126-6).

577 Hammer Ø, Harper DA, Ryan PD. 2001. PAST: Paleontological statistics software package for
578 education and data analysis. *Palaeontologia electronica* 4(1) 4: 9.

579 Hanson AM, Berges JA, Young EB. 2017. Virus morphological diversity and relationship to
580 bacteria and chlorophyll across a freshwater trophic gradient in the Lake Michigan watershed.
581 *Hydrobiologia* 794: 93–108. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10750-016-3084-0>

582 Hewson L, Fuhrman LA. 2003. Viriobenthos production and virioplankton sorptive scavenging
583 by suspended sediment particles in coastal and pelagic waters. *Microbial Ecology* 46: 337–347.
584 DOI: 10.1007/s00248-002-1041-0

Hodges LR, Bano N, Hollibaugh JT, Yager P. 2005. Illustrating the importance of particulate organic matter to pelagic microbial abundance and community structure – an Arctic case study. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* 40: 217–227. DOI: 10.3354/ame040217.

Holmes RM, McClelland JM, Peterson BJ, Tank SE, Bulygina E, Eglinton TI, Gordeev VV, Gurtovaya TY, Raymond PA, Repeta DJ et al. (2012) Estuaries and Coasts 35: 369–382. DOI: 10.1007/s12237-011-9386-6

Kopylov AI, Zabolotkina EA, Sazhin AF, Romanova ND. 2015. Virioplankton in the Kara Sea: the impact of viruses on mortality of heterotrophic bacteria. *Oceanology* 55(4): 561–572. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S0001437015040104>.

Kopylov AI, Zabolotkina EA, Romanenko AV, Sazhin AF, Romanova ND. 2017. Virio- and bacterioplankton in the estuary zone of the Ob River and adjacent regions of the Kara Sea shelf. *Oceanology* 57(1):105–113. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S0001437017010052>.

Kopylov AI, Sazhin AF, Zabolotkina EA, Romanenko AV, Romanova ND, Boltchenkova MA. 2019. Virioplankton of the Kara Sea and the Yenisei River estuary in early spring. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science* 217: 37–44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2018.10.015>.

Kopylov AI, Zabolotkina EA, Sazhin AF, Kosolapov DB, Romanenko AV, Romanova ND. 2022. Structure of virioplankton and viral lysis of prokaryotes on the shelf of Siberian Arctic seas: impact of large river runoff. *Polar Biology* 45: 1581–1596. <https://doi.org/10.1007/soo300-022-03087-4>.

Lasareva EV, Parfenova AM, Romankevich EA, Lobus NV, Drozdova AN. 2019. Organic matter and mineral interactions modulate flocculation across arctic river mixing zones. *JGR Biogeosciences* 124: 1651–1664. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019jg005026>.

Maat DS, Prins MA, Brussaard CPD. 2019. Sediments from Arctic tide-water glaciers remove coastal marine viruses and delay host infection. *Viruses* 11(2): 123. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v11020123>.

Maat DS, Visser RJW, Brussaard CPD. 2019. Virus removal by glacier-derived suspended fine sediment in the Arctic. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* 521: 151–227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jembe.2019.151227>.

Makkaveev PN, Melnikova ZG, Polukhin AA, Stepanova SV, Khlebopashev PV, Chultsova AL. 2015. Hydrochemical characteristics of the waters in the western part of the Kara Sea. *Oceanology* 55(4): 485–496. DOI: 10.1134/S0001437015040116.

Maranger R, Vaqué D, Nguyen D, Hébert MP, Lara E. 2015. Pan-Arctic patterns of planktonic heterotrophic microbial abundance and processes: controlling factors and potential impacts of warming. *Progress in Oceanography* 139: 221–232. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pocean.2015.07.006>.

Middelboe M. 2000. Bacterial growth rate and marine virus-host dynamics. *Microbial Ecology* 40: 114–124. DOI: 10.1007/s002480000050

Middelboe M, Nielsen TG, Bjørnsen PK. 2002. Viral and bacterial production in the north water in situ measurements batch-culture experiments and characterization of a viral-host system. *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography* 49: 5063–5079. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645\(02\)00178-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645(02)00178-9).

Mostajir B, Dolan J, Rassoulzadegan F. 1995. A simple method for the quantification of a class a labile marine pico- and nano-sized detritus: DAPI Yellow Particles (DYP). *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* 9: 259–266. <https://doi.org/10.3354/ame009259>.

Mojica KDA, Brussaard CPD. 2014. Factors affecting virus dynamics and microbial host-virus interactions in marine environments. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology* 89: 495–515. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1574-6941.12343>.

Murray AG, Jackson GA. 1992. Viral dynamics: a model of the effects of size, shape, motion and abundance of single-celled planktonic organisms and other particles. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 89: 103–116. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps089103>.

Noble RT, Fuhrman JA. 1998. Use of SYBR Green for rapid epifluorescence count of marine viruses and bacteria. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* 14: 113–118. DOI:10.3354/AME014113.

Norland S. 1993. The relationship between biomass and volume of bacteria. In: Kemp PF, Sherr BF, Sherr EB, Cole JJ, eds. *Handbook of Methods in Aquatic Microbial Ecology* Boca Raton: Lewis Publ. 303–308.

Porter KG, Feig YS. 1980. The use DAPI for identifying and counting of aquatic microflora. *Limnology and Oceanography* 25(5): 943–948. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.1980.25.5.0943>.

Primpas I, Karydis M. 2011. Sealing the trophic index (TRIX) in oligotrophic marine environments. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment* 178: 257–269. DOI: 10.1007/s10661-010-1687-x

Proctor LM, Okubo A, Fuhrman JA. 1993. Calibration estimates of phage-induced mortality in marine bacteria: ultrastructural studies of marine bacteriophage development from one-step growth experiments. *Microbial Ecology* 25: 161–182. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00177193>.

Romanova ND, Boltenkova MA. 2020. Seasonal variability of bacterioplankton of the Yenisei Estuary. *Oceanology* 60(1): 74–82. DOI: 10.1134/S0001437020010191.

Romanova ND, Boltenkova MA, Polukhin AA, Bezzubova EM, Shchuka SA. 2022. Heterotrophic bacteria of the Ob River Estuary during Growing season: Spatial and Temporal variability. *Oceanology* 62: 369–378. <https://doi.org/10.1134/s000143/022030109>.

Sazhin AF, Mosharov SA, Romanova ND, Belyaev NA, Khlebopashev PV, Pavlova MA, Druzhkova EI, Flint MV, Kopylov AI, Zabolotkina EA, Ishkulov DG, Makarevich PR, Pasternak AF, Makkaveev PN, Drozdova AN. 2017. The plankton community of the Kara Sea in early spring. *Oceanology* 57: 222–224. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S0001437017010179>.

Sanda R-A, Storesund JE, Olesin E, Paulsen ML, Larsen A, Bratbak G, Ray JL. 2018. Seasonality drives microbial community structure, shaping both eukaryotic and prokaryotic host–viral relationships in an arctic marine ecosystem. *Viruses* 10: 715. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v10120715>.

Schoemann V, Becquevort S, Stefels J, Rousseau W, Lancelot C. 2005. *Phaeocystis* blooms in the global ocean and their controlling mechanisms: a review. *Journal of Sea Research* 53: 43–66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seares.2004.01.008>.

Simon M, Grossart HP, Schweitzer B, Ploug H. 2002. Microbial ecology of organic aggregates in aquatic ecosystems. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* 28: 175–211. DOI:10.3354/ame028175.

Steward GF, Fandino LB, Hollibaugh JT, Whitledge TE, Azam F. 2007. Microbial biomass and viral infections of heterotrophic prokaryotes in the sub-surface layer of the Central Arctic Ocean. *Deep Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers* 54: 1744–1757. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2007.04.019>.

Steward GF, Smith DC, Azam F. 1996. Abundance and production of bacteria and viruses in the Bering and Chukchi Seas. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 131: 287–300. DOI:10.3354/meps131287.

Stopar D, Černe A, Žigman M, Poljšak-Prijatelj M, Turk V. 2003. Viral abundance and high proportion of lysogens suggests that viruses are important members of the microbial community in the Gulf of Trieste. *Microbial Ecology* 46: 249–256. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03036884>

676 Suttle CA. 1993. Enumeration and isolation of virus. In: Kemp PF, Sherr BF, Sherr EB, Cole JJ,
677 eds. *Handbook of Methods in Aquatic Microbial Ecology* Boca Raton: Lewis Publ, 121–134.

678 Suttle CA. 2007. Marine viruses – major players in the global ecosystem. *Nature Reviews*
679 *Microbiology* 5: 801–812. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro1750>.

680 Van Etten JL, Lane LG, Meints RH. 1991. Viruses and virus like particles of eukaryotic algae.
681 *Microbiological Reviews* 55(4): 586–620. DOI:10.1128/MMBR.55.4.586-620.1991.

682 Venger MP, Kopylov AI, Zabotkina EA, Makarevich PR. 2016. The influence of viruses on
683 bacterioplankton of the offshore and coastal parts of the Barents Sea. *Russian Journal of Marine*
684 *Biology* 42(1): 26–35. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S106307401601017X>.

685 Wells LE, Deming JW. 2003. Abundance of Bacteria, the Cytophaga-Flavobacterium cluster and
686 Archaea in cold oligotrophic waters and nepheloid layers of the Northwest Passage, Canadian
687 Archipelago. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* 31: 19–31. <https://doi.org/10.3354/ame031019>.

688 Wells LE, Deming JW. 2006a. Characterization of cold-active bacteriophage on two
689 psychrophilic marine hosts. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* 45: 15–29. DOI:10.3354/ame045015.

690 Wells LE, Deming JW. 2006b. Significance of bacterivory and viral lysis in bottom waters of
691 Franklin Bay, Canadian Arctic, during winter. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology* 43: 209–221.
692 DOI:10.3354/ame043209.

693 Weinbauer MG, Brettar L, Höfle MG. 2003. Lysogeny and virus-induced mortality of
694 bacterioplankton in surface, deep, and anoxic marinewaters. *Limnology and Oceanography* 48:
695 1457–1465. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2003.48.4.1457>.

696 Weinbauer MG, Peduzzi P. 1994. Frequency, size and distribution of bacteriophages in different
697 marine bacterial morphotypes. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 108: 11–20.
698 DOI:10.3354/meps108011

699 Weinbauer MG, Rassoulzadegan F. 2004. Are viruses driving microbial diversification and
700 diversity? *Environmental Microbiology* 6: 1–11. [https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1462-](https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1462-2920.2003.00539.x)
701 [2920.2003.00539.x](https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1462-2920.2003.00539.x).

702 Wilhelm SW, Suttle CA. 1999. Viruses and nutrient cycles in the sea. *Bioscience* 49: 781–788.
703 <https://doi.org/10.2307/1313569>.

704 Wommack KE, Colvell RR. 2000. Virioplankton: Viruses in Aquatic Ecosystems. *Microbiology*
705 *and Molecular Biology Reviews* 64: 69–114. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19475721003743843>.

706 Zhang R, Weinbauer MG, Peduzzi P (2021) Aquatic viruses and climate change. Current Issues
707 in Molecular Biology 41: 357-380. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21775/cimb.041.357>

Table 1 (on next page)

The physical and chemical properties of the sampling locations in the Barents Sea and the Kara Sea from June 29 to July 15, 2018

* ND - no data **detrital particles 0.25 to 4.0 μm in size A/k : Alkalinity, B_{PD} : Mass of detrital particles, DOC : Concentration of dissolved organic carbon, N_{PD} : Abundance of detrital particles, S : Salinity, SIC : Sea ice cover, T : Temperature

1

Stn. name	Longitude E°	Latitude N°	Date	SIC, %	T, °C	S, psu	Alk, mg-eq L ⁻¹	NO ₂ +NO ₃ , μM	PO ₄ , μM	Si, μM	N _{PD} , 10 ⁵ particles mL ⁻¹	B _{PD} , mg L ⁻¹	DOC, mg L ⁻¹
Barents Sea													
1	56°29	70°18	29.06.2018	0	6.4	28.98	2.312	0.21	0.09	10.51	3.1	0.5	2.62
25	56°68	70°22	15.07.2018	0	8.9	29.70	ND*	1.59	0.06	14.16	3.9	0.7	2.92
Kara Strait													
2	58°15	70°50	29.06.2018	0	1.2	33.42	ND	0.95	0.07	0.06	6.1	1.1	1.42
Kara Sea, Marine Area													
3	60°08	70°83	29.06.2018	100	-0.7	27.12	1.789	1.56	0.10	1.76	5.9	0.9	1.39
4	62°50	70°87	29.06.2018	100	-1.0	26.93	1.781	3.03	0.14	2.89	10.2	1.0	2.34
5	64°30	70°92	29.06.2018	25	1.6	30.41	2.274	0.44	0.19	2.83	15.6	1.6	1.66
6	67°68	71°79	29.06.2018	0	2.1	31.92	2.228	0.07	0.20	1.64	17.3	1.7	2.11
7	68°46	73°02	30.06.2018	0	1.9	32.23	2.266	0.11	0.24	5.29	2.5	0.4	2.38
8	70°82	73°74	30.06.2018	0	1.4	30.22	2.001	4.35	0.52	35.99	8.3	1.3	3.94
21	67°85	72°14	14.07.2018	0	4.8	30.67	1.933	0.11	0.07	2.08	16.1	1.3	3.30
22	66°92	71°55	14.07.2018	0	2.5	32.00	1.758	0.06	0.10	2.33	7.7	0.7	2.13
23	64°08	71°01	14.07.2018	25	2.4	32.56	2.031	0.06	0.07	1.38	1.8	0.3	1.98

24	60°78	70°80	15.07.2018	25	1.5	32.80	ND	0.09	0.13	1.01		0.2	
											2.2		1.62
Kara Sea, Coastal Area.													
9	73°57	73°89	30.06.2018	0	3.9		1.47	5.91	1.01	62.48		2.5	
						15.48					10.8		7.93
10	76°06	73°88	30.06.2018	0	3.2		1.637	2.09	0.21	69.59		2.7	
						14.00					1.2		5.87
11	78°06	73°54	30.06.2018	0	5.1		1.342	3.87	0.46	90.23		2.5	
						4.90					8.0		11.46
12	80°13	73°00	01.07.2018	0	7.9		0.462	7.24	0.91	78.46		2.3	
						0.25					6.3		9.64
17	79°52	73°27	13.07.2018	0	7.1		0.644	0.35	0.20	73.49		2.5	
						2.17					20.5		9.48
18	78°14	73°68	13.07.2018	0	6.9		1.385	0.17	0.33	64.68		2.2	
						13.48					15.0		7.85
19	76°00	73°80	13.07.2018	0	4.0	11.06	1.289	7.95	0.37	92.62		2.5	
											17.5		9.36
20	73°11	73°79	14.07.2018	0	3.4	25.13	1.531	0.68	0.26	3.66		2.0	
											20.4		6.96

Table 2 (on next page)

Chlorophyll *a* concentration, abundance, mean volume cell and biomass of prokaryotes in the surface water layer on the Barents Sea and Kara Sea

Chl *a*: Chlorophyll *a* concentration, N_{PR} : abundance of prokaryotes, V_{PR} : mean volume cell of prokaryotes, B_{PR} : biomass of prokaryotes

1

Stations	Chl <i>a</i> , μg L ⁻¹	<i>N</i> _{PR} , 10 ⁵ cells mL ⁻¹	<i>V</i> _{PR} , μm ³	<i>B</i> _{PR}	
				mg m ⁻³	mg C m ⁻³
Barents Sea					
1	0.570	5.3	0.032	16.72	5.26
25	0.621	10.0	0.035	34.53	10.59
Kara Strait					
2	0.282	0.7	0.042	2.99	0.87
Kara Sea, Marine Area					
3	0.441	0.9	0.077	7.09	1.74
4	0.883	0.8	0.057	4.65	1.24
5	2.453	0.6	0.043	2.82	0.82
6	3.433	1.3	0.041	5.15	1.51
7	10.365	2.2	0.036	8.0	2.44
8	3.823	4.6	0.035	16.13	4.95
21	0.272	3.0	0.051	15.31	4.23
22	0.065	1.4	0.059	8.06	2.14
23	0.180	1.9	0.055	10.36	2.80
24	0.318	1.7	0.033	5.56	1.73
Kara Sea, Coastal Area					
9	8.742	7.4	0.021	15.79	5.59
10	9.688	8.3	0.038	31.32	9.39
11	2.617	8.4	0.033	27.66	8.63
12	2.961	25.3	0.036	90.95	27.68
17	4.418	11.8	0.037	43.26	13.07
18	3.756	18.7	0.036	66.21	20.34
19	6.722	7.7	0.034	26.08	8.07
20	1.534	3.5	0.045	15.57	4.45

2

Table 3 (on next page)

Abundance of free viruses (N_{VF}), ratio of abundance of free viruses to abundance of prokaryotes (VPR), capsid diameter of free viruses (D_{VF})

1

Station	N_{VF} , 10 ⁵ viruses mL ⁻¹	VPR	D_{VF} , nm	
			Mean±SE	Min–max
Barents Sea				
1	37	7.0	38±1	18–76
25	36	3.7	53±2	16–155
Kara Strait				
2	21	29.4	48±3	17–196
Kara Sea, Marine Area				
3	53	57.2	52±2	23–106
4	63	77.0	64±3	26–177
5	47	73.0	61±3	16–155
6	37	29.4	54±2	21–129
7	68	30.7	49±3	26–304
8	66	14.6	47±1	16–80
21	74	24.7	50±2	16–205
22	40	28.9	42±2	16–133
23	10	5.2	57±2	21–155
24	50	29.8	50±2	16–155
Kara Sea, Coastal Area				
9	38	5.2	48±2	17–115
10	51	6.2	54±2	20–123
11	103	12.3	62±3	17–184
12	117	4.6	53±2	16–194
17	57	4.8	46±2	16–133
18	82	4.4	54±3	16–202
19	36	4.7	47±2	19–150
20	63	18.2	45±2	16–124

2

Table 4 (on next page)

Simple (r_s , Spearman rank) correlation coefficients between the abundances prokaryotes and viruses, the virus to prokaryotic ratio, frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells (*FVIC*) and environmental parameters for the whole data set

Only significant correlations are presented. Levels of significance * <0.05 , ** < 0.01 , *** < 0.001 . N_{PR} : abundance of prokaryotes, N_{VF} : viral abundance, VPR: the virus to prokaryotic ratio, FVIC: frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells, T: temperature, S: salinity, Alk: alkalinity, Si: silicate concentration, N_{PD} : the abundance of detrital particles 0.25 to 4.0 μm in size, Chl *a*: chlorophyll *a* concentration, DOC: concentration of dissolved organic carbon, $n=21$

1

Parameter	N_{PR}	N_{VF}	VPR	$FVIC$
N_{PR}		0.63, **	-0.88***	
T	0.86***		-0.84***	
S	-0.73***	-0.45*		
Alk	-0.72***			
Si	0.83***			
N_{PD}				-0.74***
$Chl\ a$	0.48*			
DOC	0.87***	0.48*	-0.695**	

2

Table 5 (on next page)

Characteristics of prokaryotes with attached viruses and viruses attached to prokaryotes

N_{PRV} – the abundance of prokaryotes with attached viruses, N_{PRV}/N_{PR} – proportion of prokaryotes with attached viruses of the total abundance of prokaryotes, N_{VPR}/N_{PRV} – abundance of viruses on the surface of a single prokaryotic cell, N_{VPR} – abundance of viruses attached to prokaryotes, D_{VPR} – average capsid diameter of viruses attached to prokaryotes

Station	N_{PRV} , 10^5 cells mL^{-1}	N_{PRV}/N_{PR} , %	N_{VPR}/N_{PRV} , viruses cell^{-1}	N_{VPR} , 10^5 viruses mL^{-1}	D_{VB} , nm	
					Mean±SE	min–max
Barents Sea						
1	1.0	18.20	1.5±0.9	1.5	50±1	29–74
25	1.2	12.50	1.2±0.5	1.5	62±1	46–93
Kara Strait						
2	1.4	19.38	1.6±1.3	2.2	50±1	24–68
Kara Sea, Marine Area						
3	0.2	23.5	1.5±0.8	0.3	60±3	22–90
4	0.2	26.9	1.4±1.2	0.3	78±1	65–101
5	0.2	30.5	1.5±0.8	0.3	62±1	47–79
6	0.3	22.9	1.5±0.7	0.4	63±1	36–89
7	0.7	32.6	1.9±1.4	1.4	70±2	41–139
8	1.0	20.9	1.5±1.0	1.4	56±2	22–77
21	0.7	22.3	1.7±1.2	1.1	66±2	43–97
22	0.3	24.7	1.6±1.1	0.5	45±2	27–97
23	0.2	10.9	1.7±1.3	0.4	47±1	31–63
24	0.4	26.5	1.5±0.8	0.7	65±1	42–92
Kara sea, Coastal Area						
9	2.1	28.1	1.6±1.1	3.4	88±2	55–120
10	1.6	19.0	1.4±0.8	2.2	64±2	39–113
11	2.2	26.3	1.3±0.6	2.9	71±3	25–147
12	10.3	40.7	1.5±0.7	15.4	69±4	27–169
17	3.3	27.9	1.4±0.6	4.6	50±1	36–66
18	5.2	27.9	1.6±1.0	8.3	58±2	37–96
19	1.6	21.2	1.3±0.5	2.1	61±2	32–110
20	0.7	20.8	1.5±0.7	1.1	49±1	32–67

Table 6 (on next page)

Characteristics of detrital particles with attached viruses and viruses attached to detrital particles

N_{pDV} – the abundance of detrital particles with attached viruses, D_{pD} – the diameter of detrital particles, N_{vPD}/N_{pDV} – the average number of viruses on a single particle, N_{vPD} – the abundance of viruses attached to detrital particles, D_{vPD} – the capsid diameter of a virus attached to particles

Station	N_{PDV} , 10 ⁵ particles mL ⁻¹	D_{PD} , μm		N_{VPD}/N_{PDV} viruses mL ⁻¹	N_{VPD} , 10 ⁵ viruses mL ⁻¹	D_{VPD} , nm	
		min	max			Mean±SE	Min–max
Barents Sea							
1	1.5	0.25	3.0	2.1±1.5	3.2	48±1	30–67
25	1.0	0.45	3.5	1.1±0.5	1.1	25±1	25–45
Kara Strait							
2	2.0	0.25	4.0	2.6±1.3	5.2	55±2	39–84
Kara Sea, Marine Area							
3	1.9	0.5	4.0	1.9±1.4	3.6	72±2	35–87
4	0.7	0.3	3.0	1.4±0.6	1.0	55±2	41–81
5	2.9	0.3	2.5	1.8±1.2	5.2	45±1	26–71
6	4.0	0.3	2.5	2.0±1.4	8.0	56±2	33–79
7	1.0	0.3	4.0	2.4±1.7	2.4	69±2	36–88
8	0.9	0.5	4.0	3.2±1.7	2.9	69±4	40–137
21	2.8	0.5	1.5	2.0±1.5	5.6	47±1	25–59
22	2.0	0.25	2.0	2.4±1.7	4.8	67±2	44–111
23	0.8	0.25	4.0	2.2±1.9	1.8	51±2	21–85
24	0.9	0.3	2.5	2.4±1.7	2.2	55±1	38–76
Kara Sea, Coastal Area							
9	2.2	0.5	4.0	2.3±1.7	5.1	49±1	26–63
10	0.9	1.0	3.0	4.2±2.0	3.7	70±1	56–92
11	3.4	0.3	4.0	4.3±2.0	14.6	66±4	25–119
12	4.2	0.25	4.0	2.9±1.4	12.2	56±2	30–93
17	2.8	0.3	4.0	3.2±1.3	9.0	47±1	26–75
18	2.4	0.3	2.5	3.0±1.4	7.2	47±1	36–56
19	1.9	1.0	4.0	2.0±1.4	3.8	68±2	34–108
20	2.0	0.25	2.5	2.0±1.2	4.0	50±1	36–69

Table 7 (on next page)

Frequency of visibly infected prokaryotes and infected prokaryotes, virus-mediated prokaryotic mortality, number of phages inside cells and ratio of the number of infected cells to the number of cells with attached viruses

FVIC – the frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells, *FIC* – the frequency of infected prokaryotic cells, *VMB* – the virus-mediated prokaryotic mortality, *BS* – the number of mature phages inside prokaryotic cells, N_{PRVIC}/N_{PRV} – the ratio of the abundance of infected cells to the abundance of cells with attached viruses, %

Station	$FVIC$,	FIC , % of	$VMPR$, %	BS , viruses cell ⁻¹		N_{PRVIC}/N_{PRV} , %
	% OT N_{PR}	N_{PR}	of P_{PR}	Mean±SE	Max	
Barents Sea						
1	2.2	14.5	19.2	5.7±0.1	8	11
25	1.4	9.0	10.6	10.0±0.4	15	18
Kara Strait						
2	1.8	12.0	15.1	6.0±0.2	8	20
Kara Sea. Marine Area.						
3	1.9	12.7	16.1	7.0±0.2	11	17
4	1.3	8.8	10.4	6.0±0.2	9	28
5	1.4	9.0	10.6	6.0±0.3	11	28
6	0.4	2.8	2.9	4.0	4	147
7	3.5	22.1	34.0	5.0±0.2	9	14
8	1.2	8.2	9.5	5.8±0.3	10	26
21	0.8	5.5	6.1	6.0±0.2	8	56
22	0.8	5.5	6.1	6.3±0.1	8	40
23	1.2	8.2	9.5	17.0±0.7	24	30
24	1.2	8.2	9.5	5.5±0.1	7	42
Kara Sea. Coastal Area						
9	1.0	6.9	7.8	6.3±0.2	9	40
10	2.5	16.3	22.3	9.4±0.8	32	10
11	1.4	10.1	12.2	15.2±1.1	35	26
12	1.4	10.1	12.2	7.0±0.3	11	37
17	0.7	4.9	5.4	5.0±0.1	6	28
18	1.0	6.9	7.8	5.3±0.1	6	31
19	1.0	6.9	7.8	5.3±0.1	7	11
20	0.7	4.9	5.4	5.4	6	26

1

Figure 1

The scheme of the locations of the sampling stations.

● – circles denote stations samples were taken on June 29 - July 1, 2018; Δ – triangles denote stations samples were taken on July 12–15, 2018.

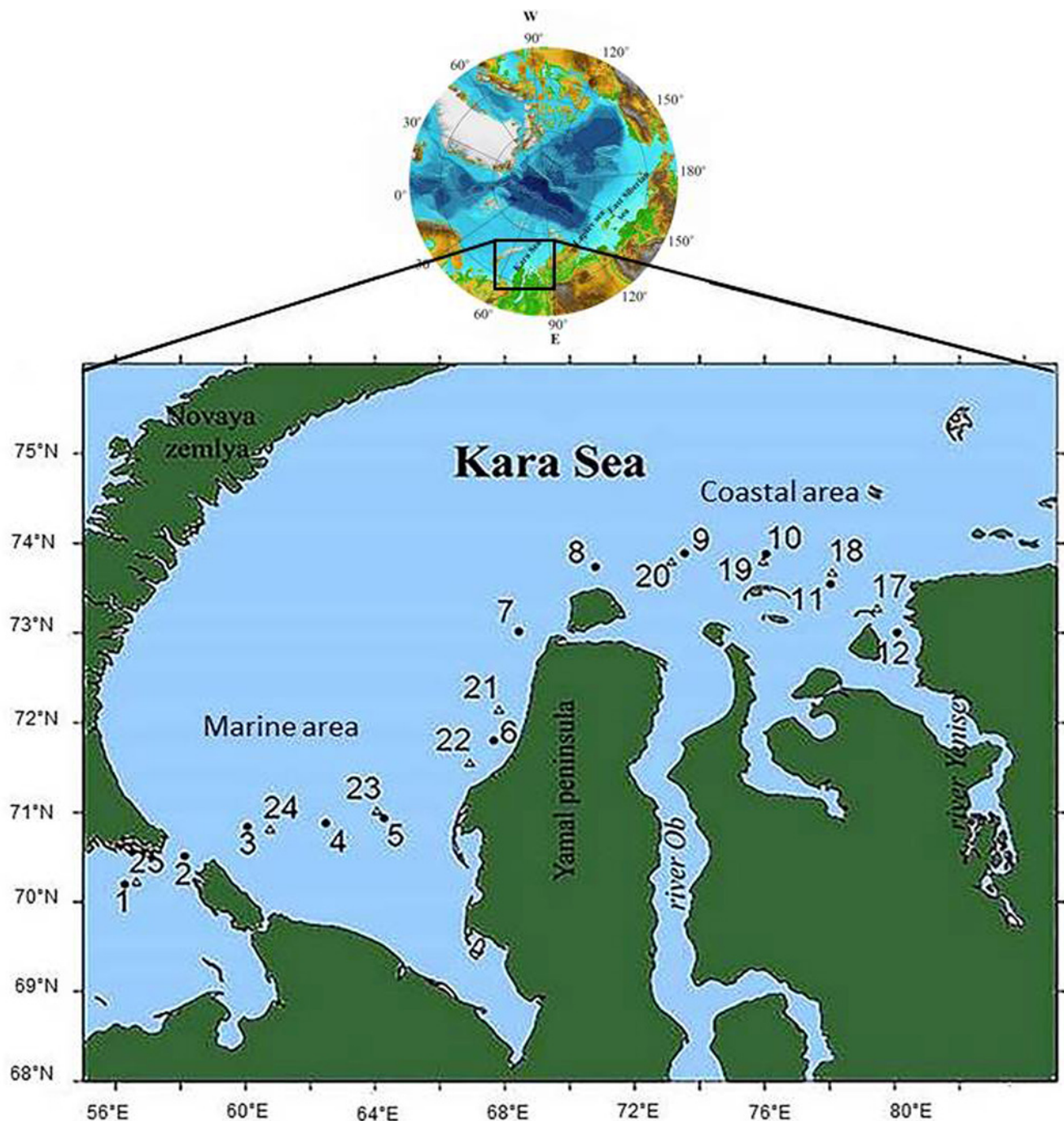


Figure 2

The average of primary physical and chemical parameters in different sections of the study area

Average (\pm standard error) of temperature, T (a); salinity, S (b); alkalinity, Alk (c); $\text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ (d); PO_4 (e); silicate, Si (f); dissolved organic carbon, DOC (g); abundance of detrital particles 0.25 – 0.40 in size, N_{PD} (h); mass of of detrital particles 0.25 – 0.40 in size B_{PD} (i); in the surface water layer on the Barents and Kara seas.

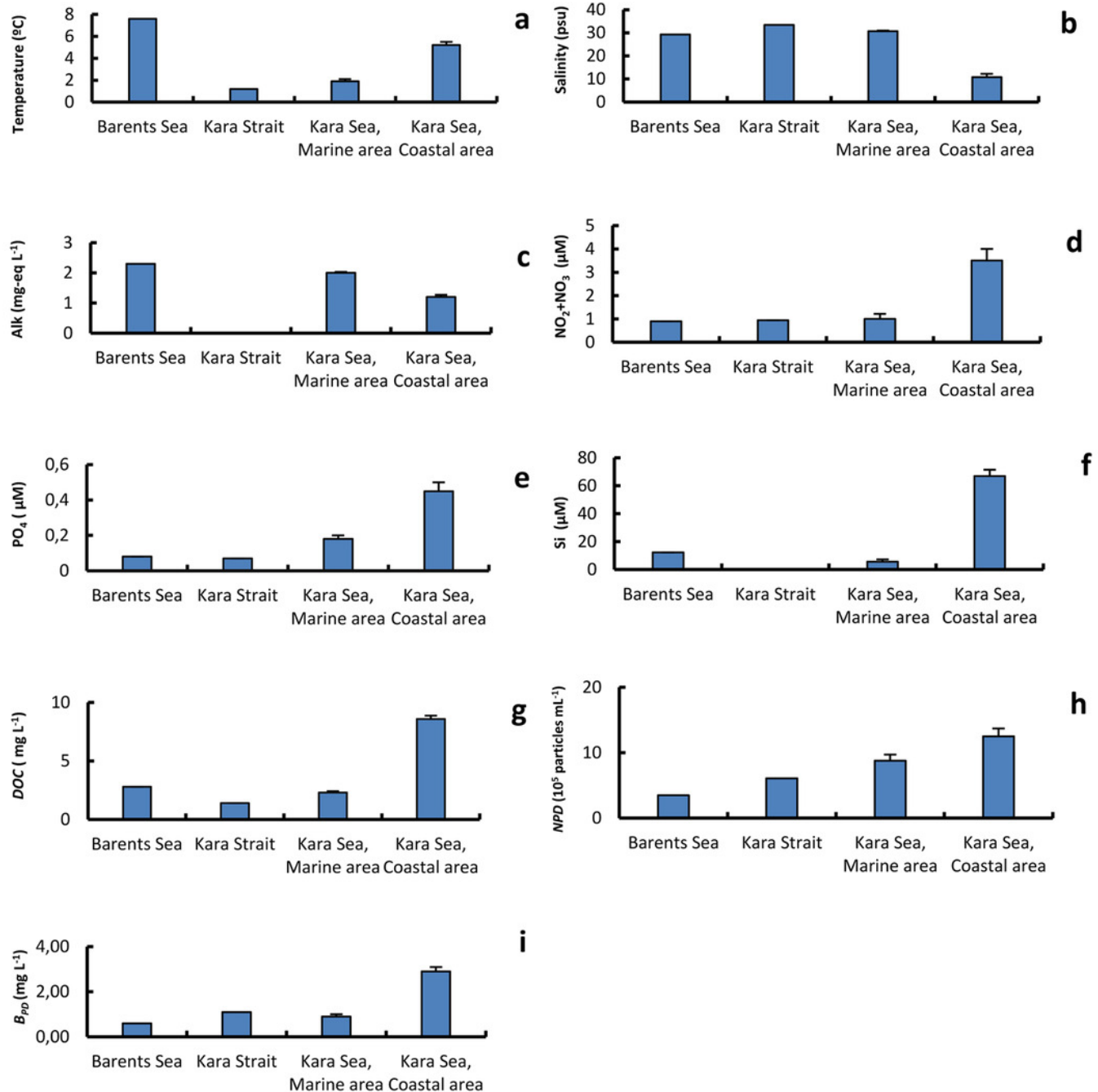


Figure 3

Electron micrographs of viruses in shelf waters of the Kara Sea. Examples of the four viral morphotypes: (a, b), myovirus; (c,d,e), podovirus; (f, g), siphovirus; (h,i), non-tailed virus; (j) prokaryote with viruses on surface, (k, l) virus-infected proka

Examples of the four viral morphotypes: (a, b), myovirus; (c,d,e), podovirus; (f, g), siphovirus; (h,i), non-tailed virus; (j) prokaryote with viruses on surface, (k, l) virus-infected prokaryote with viruses on surface, (m, n) viruses attached to detrital particles; (k, l) virus-infected prokaryotes – viruses inside cell observed in this study.

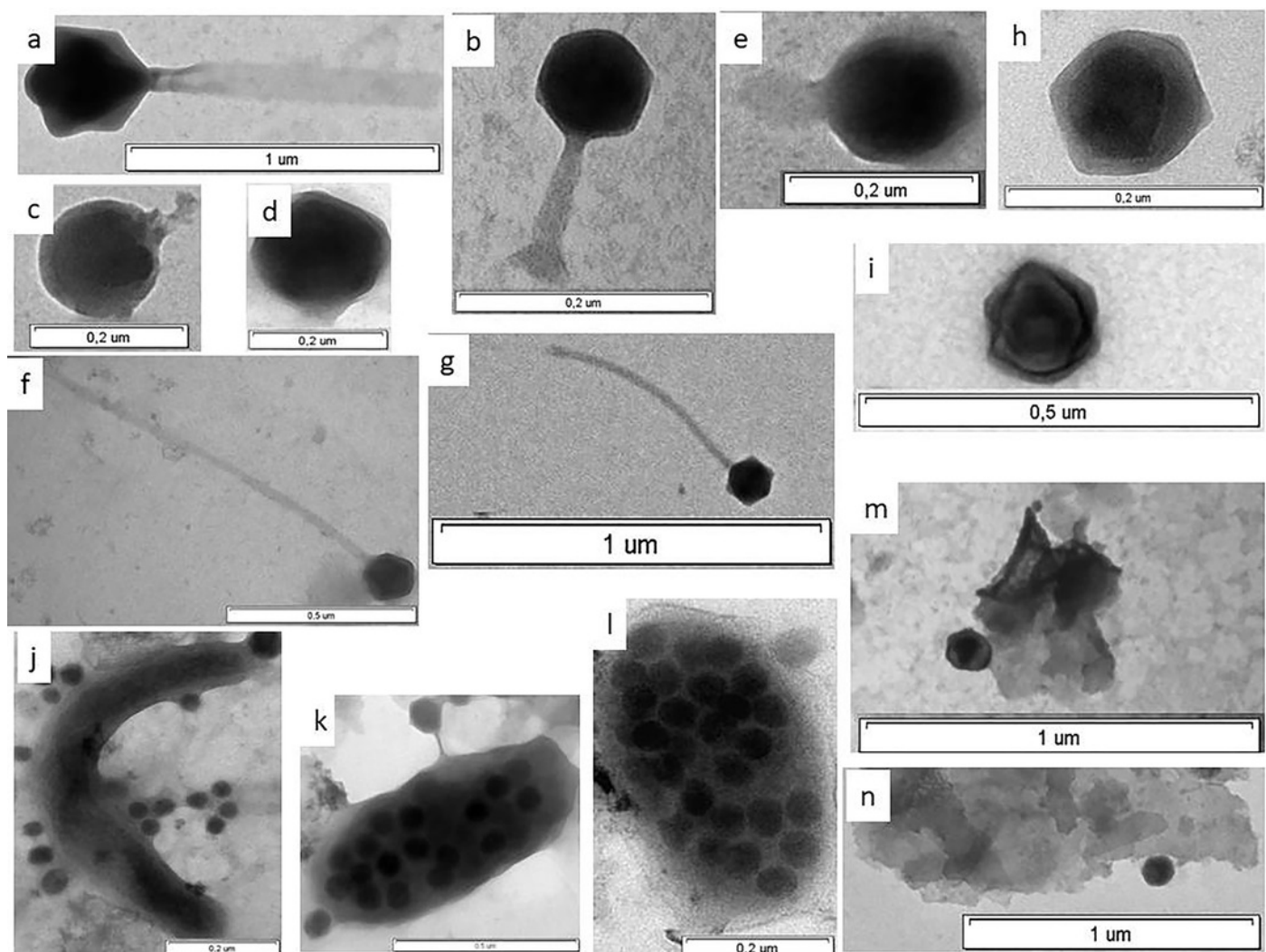


Figure 4

The average of primary biological parameters in different sections of the study area

Average (\pm standard error) of chlorophyll a, Chl a (a); abundance of prokaryotes, N_{PR} (b); abundance of free viruses, N_{VF} (c); ratio of abundance of free viruses to abundance of prokaryotes, VPR (d); abundance of viruses attached to prokaryotes, N_{VPR} (e), abundance of viruses attached to detrital particles, N_{VPD} (f), frequency of visibly infected prokaryotic cells, $FVIC$ (g) in the surface water layer on the Barents and Kara seas.

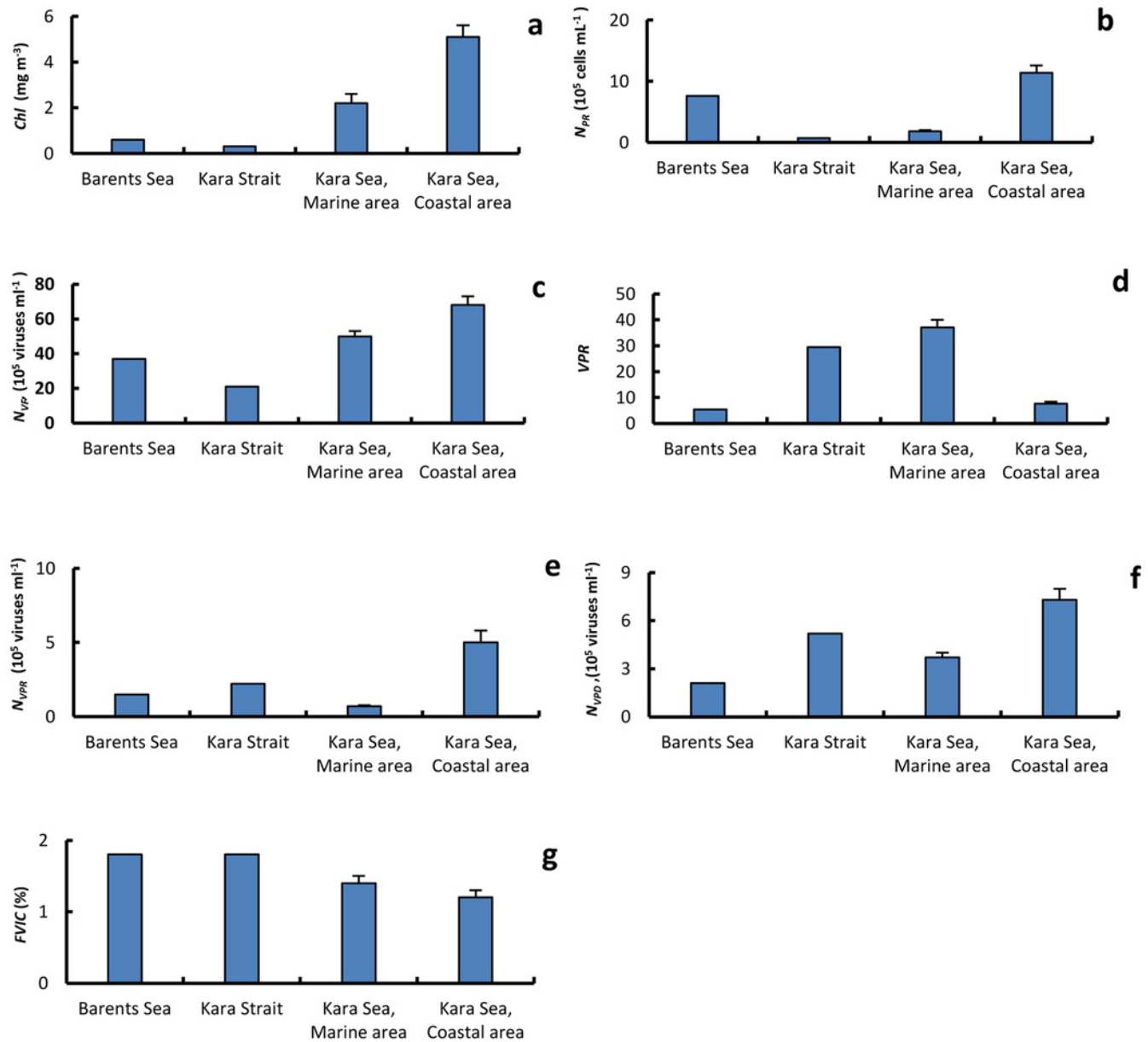


Figure 5

Percentage (mean \pm standard error) of viral morphotypes in viral assemblages in the surface water layer of the Barents and Kara seas.

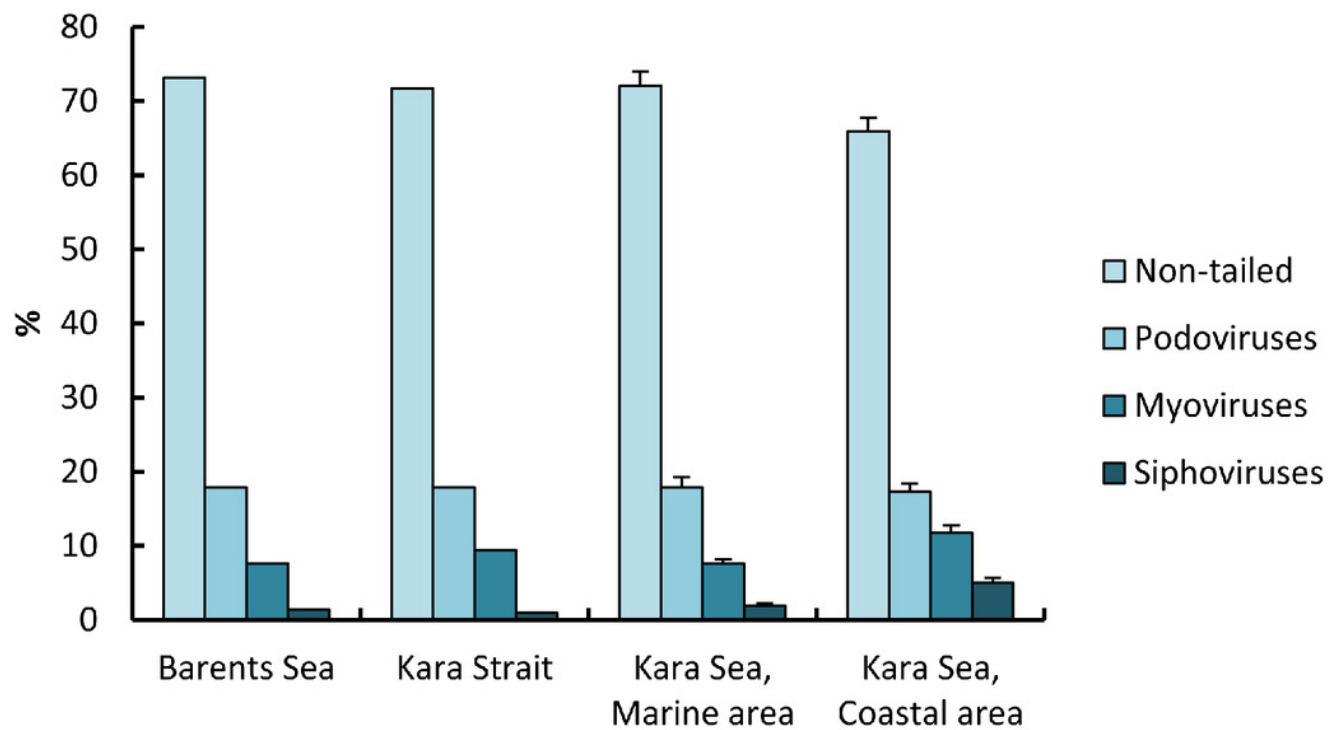


Figure 6

Proportions of prokaryotic cells of different morphology in the total number of prokaryotes and in the total number of infected cells

Percentage (%) of prokaryote cells of various morphology to the total prokaryote abundance (a); Percentage (%) of infected prokaryote cells of various morphology to the total number of infected prokaryote cells (b), Percentage (%) of infected prokaryote cells of various morphology to the number of prokaryote cells of a given type (c).

