Viruses in subarctic lakes and their impact on benthic and pelagic bacteria

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Received 12 January 2009; revised 12 May 2009; accepted 2 August 2009. Final version published online 1 September 2009.

DOI:10.1111/j.1574-6941.2009.00760.x

Editor: Patricia Sobecky

Keywords
subarctic; bacteria; virus; benthic; pelagic.

Abstract
Virus–bacterium interactions were investigated in the pelagic and benthic habitats in a set of lakes along an altitudinal gradient in the subarctic northern Sweden. Viral and bacterial abundances showed a significant variation between the lakes, with the highest benthic microbial abundances recorded in a high-altitude lake [993 m above sea level (a.s.l.)], whereas the highest pelagic microbial abundances were found in a low-altitude lake (270 m a.s.l.). In the pelagic habitat, there was also a distinct difference in microbial abundances between the summer–autumn and the winter sampling occasion. A positive relationship was noted between viruses and bacteria in both the pelagic and the benthic habitats. Visibly virus-infected bacterial cells were uncommon in the pelagic habitat and undetectable in the benthos. Both lytic and lysogenic pelagic viral production rates were undetectable or low; thus, a possible explanation for the relative high viral abundances found in the water column could be an allochthonous input of viruses or release of sediment-derived viruses. Overall, our results provide novel information about the relevance of viruses in the subarctic region and indicate that viruses play only a minor role in the nutrient and carbon cycling in the microbial communities of subarctic lakes.

Introduction
Bacteria constitute an important part of basal biomass production in pelagic and benthic habitats of unproductive subarctic lakes (Vadeboncoeur et al., 2002; Karlsson & Byström, 2005). High bacterial growth and respiration in relation to photosynthetic CO₂ fixation has been explained by the metabolism of allochthonous organic matter derived from the catchment (Karlsson et al., 2001; Jansson et al., 2008). Despite the ecological role and significance of pelagic and benthic bacteria in unproductive subarctic lakes (Karlsson & Byström, 2005; Karlsson et al., 2007), information on the influence of viruses on the bacterial community in these systems is extremely scarce or completely lacking. Viral lysis of bacteria disrupts the flow of energy and organic matter from the microbial loop to higher trophic levels by forming a ‘viral shunt’ among bacteria, viruses and the dissolved organic matter pool (Bratbak & Heldal, 2000; Wommack & Colwell, 2000; Middelboe & Lyck, 2002; Weinbauer, 2004). It has been suggested that as much as 30% of bacterial production (BP) can be channelled through the viral shunt in aquatic systems (Bratbak & Heldal, 2000).

The interactions of bacteria and their viruses have been described for several different inland waters, ranging from tropical to polar ecosystems (Hofer & Sommaruga, 2001; Vrede et al., 2003; Peduzzi & Schiemer, 2004; Weinbauer, 2004; Bettarel et al., 2006; Säwström et al., 2008a). Many of these studies have shown that viral abundance increases with lake productivity and that there is a close link between viruses and bacteria (Weinbauer, 2004). Säwström et al. (2008a) and Lymer et al. (2008) presented preliminary data on pelagic viral abundance and the fraction of virus-infected bacteria (FVIB) in Swedish subarctic lakes. However, no studies exist that include both pelagic and benthic viral ecology in subarctic lakes. In this study, we sampled a set of lakes in a natural climate gradient [270–1300 m above sea level (a.s.l.)] in northern Sweden to investigate the influence of viruses on pelagic and benthic bacteria in two distinct seasons (summer–autumn and winter). The lakes represented different habitats that reflected distinct differences in
lake productivity, with decreasing productivity (i.e. bacterial activity) with increasing altitude (Karlsson et al., 2001, 2005; Jansson et al., 2008). We hypothesized that viruses and bacteria were closely linked in both the benthic and the pelagic habitat. As a consequence, viral abundance and production were expected to decrease in lakes with increasing altitude.

Materials and methods

Study sites and sampling

Fourteen lakes were sampled along an altitudinal gradient (270–1300 m a.s.l.) from the coniferous forest to the alpine belts (Table 1) in the Scandinavian mountains in the subarctic northern Sweden (68°N, 18°E). More detailed information of the study area was described in Karlsson et al. (2001). The lakes were sampled once in the summer and autumn of 2006 (July–September). In the winter of 2007 (March), five of the 14 lakes were resampled and additionally six of the 14 lakes were sampled again in winter 2008 (February and March) for measurements of lysogeny. Water samples (5–10 L) were collected, using a tube-sampler (0.5 m long, 3.4 cm diameter) or a Ruttner water sampler, from either the top layer of the water column (0–1 m) or as a composite water sample (collected from every 1-m-depth interval of the entire water column) (Table 1). During the winter, water samples were collected using a Ruttner water sampler immediately under the ice. The lakes showed no indications of thermal stratification at any of the sampling occasions; thus, the whole lake volume was treated as a homogenous unit. In summer 2006, sediment samples were collected from five lakes (Erkkijaure, S2, Solbacka, Knivsjön and Suorujaure). Triplicate sediment samples were collected with a sediment corer (inner diameter = 6 cm, height = 40 cm) where the above-lying water column was between 1 and 2 m deep. The overlying water was removed carefully, and the top 3 cm of the sediment was sliced off, and transported to the laboratory in plastic containers.

Water chemistry and chlorophyll a (chl a)

Water temperature was measured in the field using a WTW multiline P4 meter. During the winter, ice thickness was also measured. Samples (~50 mL) for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were filtered through GF/F filters (preashed for 3 h at 400°C), acidified (10 μL of 1.2 M HCl mL⁻¹ sample) and stored at 4°C until analysis. Concentrations of DOC were determined by the high-temperature catalytic oxidation method using a Shimadzu TOC-5000 total carbon analyser equipped with an ASI-5000 auto sampler. Inorganic nutrient analyses were performed on unfiltered water [total phosphorus (T-P) and total nitrogen (T-N)] and GF/F filtered water [soluble reactive phosphorus (PO₄-P) and dissolved nitrogen (NH₄-N, NO₃-N and NO₂-N)]. Concentrations of nutrients were analysed at the Department of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vegetation belt</th>
<th>Lake</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Season</th>
<th>Alt (m a.s.l.)</th>
<th>T (°C)</th>
<th>Chl a (μg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>DOC (mg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>TN (μg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>NH₄ (μg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>NO₃ (μg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>PO₄ (μg L⁻¹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coniferous forest</td>
<td>Erkkijaure*</td>
<td>03-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>15.0</td>
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<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vuosskjuare</td>
<td>01-09-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(06-03-07) W</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.3) (0.3)</td>
<td>(3.4)</td>
<td>(180)</td>
<td>(24.6)</td>
<td>(15.2)</td>
<td>(7.0)</td>
<td>(0.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Subalpine</td>
<td>S2*</td>
<td>04-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>4.0</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.8</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solbacka*</td>
<td>06-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>9.40</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17.1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tjubark*</td>
<td>11-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>508</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15.5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(08-03-07) W</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(10.5) (0.6)</td>
<td>(1.4)</td>
<td>(33.7)</td>
<td>(16.4)</td>
<td>(15.9)</td>
<td>(0.5)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low alpine</td>
<td>Katterjaure</td>
<td>16-09-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
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<td>7.7</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(09-03-07) W</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.4) (0.02)</td>
<td>(1.3)</td>
<td>(16.1)</td>
<td>(12.6)</td>
<td>(40.6)</td>
<td>(5.7)</td>
<td>(0.2)</td>
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<td>Middle alpine</td>
<td>Ruozutjaure*</td>
<td>12-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vuorejaure*</td>
<td>13-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knivsjön*</td>
<td>23-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>865</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>887</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.7</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Suorujaure*</td>
<td>20-07-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>993</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(07-03-07) W</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.9) (0.4)</td>
<td>(4.9)</td>
<td>(289)</td>
<td>(105.2)</td>
<td>(21.6)</td>
<td>(6.8)</td>
<td>(0.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High alpine</td>
<td>Kuoblatjäkkajaure</td>
<td>10-09-06</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>1300</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(09-03-07) W</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.2) (0.06)</td>
<td>(1.3)</td>
<td>(30.6)</td>
<td>(17.0)</td>
<td>(41.6)</td>
<td>(4.6)</td>
<td>(0.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Winter values are in parentheses.
* A composite water sample from the entire water column of the lake.
S-A, summer-autumn 2006; W, winter 2007; Alt, altitude; T, temperature; NH₄, ammonium; NO₃, nitrate.
Limnology, Uppsala University. T-P was obtained after oxidative hydrolysis with potassium peroxodisulphate (Menzel & Corwin, 1965), followed by PO₄-P analysis according to Murphy & Riley (1962). NH₄-N was determined using the indophenol method (Grasshoff et al., 1983). NO₃-N and NO₂-N were determined after reduction of NO₃-N with Cd (Grasshoff et al., 1983). T-N was obtained after analysing Kjeldahl-N (Jönsson, 1966).

Chl a was determined according to the protocol of Jespersen & Christoffersen (1987). Briefly, a known volume of water sample was filtered through a GF/F filter, which was then stored frozen at −20 °C. Filters were extracted with EtOH (95%) in the dark for 24 h and analysed on a luminescence spectrophotometer (Perkin-Elmer LS55) using a wavelength of 433 nm for excitation and 673 nm for emission measurements.

**Bacterial and viral concentrations and virus–bacterium encounter rates**

Duplicate 20-mL water samples for viruses and bacteria enumeration were fixed with prefiltred (0.02-m-pore-size filter) glutaraldehyde (2% final concentration). Sediment samples were homogenized by shaking, and excess water was discarded by allowing the sediment to settle in a 60-mL syringe for 1.5 h at in situ temperature in the dark. The sediment was transferred to a 10-mL scintillation vial, and vortexed for further homogenization. A sediment subsample of 0.5 mL was fixed with prefiltred (0.02-μm-pore-size filter) glutaraldehyde (2% final concentration). Benthic viruses and bacteria were then extracted as described by Danovaro et al. (2001). Bacteria and viruses were counted by epifluorescence microscopy with SYBR Green I nucleic acid stain (Molecular Probes) and a Leica DM IL microscope, according to the method of Noble & Fuhrman (1998). Samples of 0.5–1 mL were filtered on 0.02-m-pore-size Anodisc membrane filters (Whatman), with a 0.8-m-pore-size backing membrane filter. The filter was then laid, sample side up, on a drop of SYBR Green I working solution [25 μL of 100 × diluted SYBR Green I solution and 75 μL of filtered (0.02-μm-pore-size filter) Milli-Q water], for 15 min in the dark. After drying, the filter was mounted on a glass slide with a drop of Molecular Probe Slow Fade anti-fade solution. For each filter, > 200 viruses and > 100 bacteria were counted on 10–15 fields of view selected randomly. Contact rates (R) between viruses and bacteria were calculated using the following equation of Murray & Jackson (1992):

\[
R = \frac{Sh \pi \sigma D_v}{VB}
\]

where \(Sh\) is the Sherwood number (1.06 for a bacterial community with 10% motile cells; Wilhelm et al., 1998), \(\sigma\) is the bacterial cell diameter (calculated from the mean bacterial cell volume that was estimated for 16 lakes in the subarctic north of Sweden in 1998 and 1999; Karlsson et al., 2001, and assuming that the cells are spheres), \(D_v\) is the diffusivity of viruses (3.456 × 10⁻⁷ cm² day⁻¹) and \(V\) and \(B\) are the respective viral and bacterial abundances (per millilitre).

**BP and generation times (GTs)**

BP was estimated by the incorporation of [³H]-leucine (166 Ci mmol⁻¹) into the bacterial biomass using a slightly modified version (Karlsson et al., 2001) of the microcentrifuge method as described by Kirchman (2001). Previous isotope addition experiments in lakes from the same region showed that [³H]-leucine reached saturating concentrations at 50 nM (Karlsson et al., 2001). BP samples were counted by liquid scintillation in a Beckman LS 6500 scintillation counter. Bacterial cell production was obtained by applying a conversion factor of 1.42 × 10⁻⁷ cells mol⁻¹ to the incorporation rates of leucine into protein (Chin-Leo & Kirchman, 1988). Benthic BP was measured using a modified [³H]-leucine incorporation method. A homogenized subsample of the sediment was collected with a 1-mL syringe, and 0.1 mL was placed in each of three Eppendorf tubes prepared with both [³H]-leucine and a nonradioactive leucine. Additional experiments revealed that 10.7 μM leucine was sufficient to saturate the leucine uptake. Control triplicates were also prepared by adding 65 μL 100% trichloroacetic acid (TCA), together with the isotopes, before the addition of the sediment. The tubes were vortexed and incubated for about 45 min at in situ temperature, and the incubation was terminated with 65 μL 100% TCA. The following washing and analysing procedures were identical to those for the lake water, with the exception that an additional washing step was included using 1.2 mL of 80% EtOH. Bacterial GTs were estimated from bacterial abundance divided by BP.

**Induction assay for lysogenic bacteria**

Triplicate samples (15 mL) were either treated with Mitomycin C (a potent mutagen for prophage induction) (1 μg mL⁻¹ final concentration) (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) or left untreated (controls) (Paul & Jiang, 2001). The samples were incubated in the dark at in situ temperature for 24 h and then fixed with 0.02 μm filtered glutaraldehyde (final concentration 2%) and stored at 4 °C (storage < 24 h). Bacterial and viral abundance were then determined using SYBR Green I staining (as described earlier). The significance of each induction event was determined by comparison of Mitomycin C treatment and control levels of viruses by an independent samples t-test. A statistically significant increase in viral abundance in the Mitomycin C treatment relative to the control indicated the presence of lysogenic bacteria. The fraction of lysogenic bacteria (FLC) was then calculated as: %FLC = \((V_f - V_c)/B_c \times 100\), where \(V_f\) is
the number of viruses enumerated in the Mitomycin C treatment at 24 h and \( V \) is the number of viruses enumerated in the control sample. \( B \) is the number of bacteria enumerated in the control sample at 24 h and \( B \) is the burst size, which was estimated for each study lake by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) as explained below.

**Virus-infected bacteria and burst sizes**

The frequency of visibly infected bacterial cells (FVIB) and burst sizes (\( B \), the number of viruses released during cell lysis) were determined on water and extracted sediment samples were fixed with 0.02-μm-filtered glutaraldehyde (2% final concentration). Control samples consisting of 0.02-μm-filtered Milli-Q water were also processed and acted as blanks to ensure that there was no contamination that might be mistaken for bacterial cells. We used a modified TEM method as explained by Säwström et al. (2007b). In brief, approximately 30 mL of each sample was centrifuged onto replicate Formvar coated 400-mesh Cu grids in a rotor with swing-out buckets (3270 m for 164 min at 10 °C, Beckman X-12r). The grids were negative-stained for 30 s with 0.2-μm-filtered 2% uranyl acetate and then rinsed with deionized distilled water. Grids were examined for visibly infected cells with a Zeiss EM-900 transmission electron microscope at 80 kV and ×20000 magnification. The whole electron microscope grid was examined (a 400-mesh grid has approximately 1300 fields of view) to determine FVIB and \( B \). For the water samples, at least 60 bacterial cells were inspected in each sample, but for the extracted sediment samples, the number of cells inspected was lower (12–73 cells per sample) as there were only a few bacterial cells on each grid. A cell was considered infected when the phage inside could be clearly recognized on the basis of shape (round or hexagonal capsid structures), size (generally < 200 nm in diameter) and staining intensity. Similar to Säwström et al. (2007b), we used a lower threshold limit of two virus-like particles to score a cell as infected.

**Calculations of viral proliferation and viral-induced bacterial mortality**

The model of Binder (1999) was used to estimate the fraction of bacterial mortality caused by viral lysis (FMVL): 
\[
FMVL = \frac{\alpha \ln(2) (1 - e^{-\alpha V})}{\gamma},
\]
where \( \gamma = 1 \) (the ratio between the latent period and the GT) and \( \alpha = 0.816 \) (the fraction of the latent period during which viral particles are not yet visible). The value of \( \alpha \) was previously referenced incorrectly as 0.186 by Säwström et al. (2007a) and Binder (1999, see abstract). The lytic viral production (LVP; viruses produced L−1 day−1) was calculated by multiplying the lysed BP with the estimated \( B \) from each lake (FMVL × BP × \( B \)).

Viral turnover times (VT) were estimated as viral abundance divided by viral production. The percentage of viral–host contacts resulting in a successful infection ending with lysis (success) was calculated as follows:
\[
\% \text{Success} = \frac{\text{FMVL} \times \text{BP}/R}{100}
\]

**Statistical analyses**

Statistical analyses were performed in SPSS (version 11.0.0 for Windows). Data were checked for normal distribution using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. Data with a non-normal distribution were In-transformed to achieve normality. The relationships between the measured and calculated variables were determined using two different tests: Spearman rank-order correlation \( r \) for the summer–autumn data set and Pearson product–moment correlation \( r \) for the winter data set. Correlation coefficients with \( P \) values of < 0.1 were assumed to be statistically significant. Differences in the measured and calculated parameters between the sampling occasions (summer–autumn and winter) were analysed using the nonparametric Kruskal–Wallis test. Differences in the measured and calculated parameters between lake water and sediment were analysed using an independent samples t-test.

**Results**

**Physiochemical lake environment**

There were large variations in the measured parameters between the lakes and also considerable variations between the two sampling occasions (Table 1). Lake water temperature ranged between 6.1 and 22.5 °C in the summer–autumn, but significantly lower temperatures were recorded in the winter (0.2–1.9 °C) (Kruskal–Wallis, \( P < 0.01 \)). There was a trend of decreasing water temperature \( r = -0.858, P < 0.01, N = 14 \), T-N \( (r = -0.539, P < 0.1, N = 13) \), DOC \( (r = -0.776, P < 0.01, N = 14) \) and chl a \( (r = -0.604, P < 0.05, N = 13) \) with increasing altitude in the summer–autumn. Both NH4 and NO3 concentrations (Kruskal–Wallis, \( P < 0.05, N = 5) \) were significantly lower in summer–autumn than in the winter when the lakes were ice covered (ice thickness: 65–121 cm). On the other hand, the concentrations of PO4 \( (P < 0.01, N = 5) \), T-P \( (P < 0.01, N = 5) \) and chl a \( (P < 0.01, N = 5) \) were significantly higher in the summer–autumn.

**Variations in pelagic and benthic viral and bacterial abundance**

The abundance of viruses in the water column (pelagic viruses) ranged from 0.67 to \( 28.89 \times 10^9 \) viruses L−1 in the summer–autumn and from 0.72 to \( 3.07 \times 10^9 \) viruses L−1 in the winter (Table 2). Viral abundances were positively associated with lake water temperature (summer–autumn, \( r = 0.482, P < 0.1, N = 14 \); winter, \( r = 0.944, P < 0.05, N = 5) \) and concentrations of T-N (Fig. 1c; summer–autumn,
Table 2. Mean viral and microbial parameters for the pelagic habitats of the lakes studied in summer-autumn 2006 and winter 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lake</th>
<th>Season</th>
<th>Viruses (× 10^9 L^-1)</th>
<th>Bacteria (× 10^9 L^-1)</th>
<th>VBR (× 10^9 L^-1 day^-1)</th>
<th>BP (× 10^6 cells L^-1 day^-1)</th>
<th>GT (days)</th>
<th>FVIB (%)</th>
<th>FMVL (%)</th>
<th>LVP (× 10^6 L^-1 day^-1)</th>
<th>VT (days)</th>
<th>Success (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Erkkijaure</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>28.9±1.3</td>
<td>3.8±0.2</td>
<td>7.6±0.4</td>
<td>103.3±7.9</td>
<td>39.8±2.4</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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<tr>
<td>vuoskkuajaure</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>6.9±0.2</td>
<td>1.0±0.3</td>
<td>6.7±0.6</td>
<td>6.71±0.3</td>
<td>112.1±12.9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>(2.8±0.3)</td>
<td>(0.7±0.2)</td>
<td>(3.9±0.2)</td>
<td>(7.4±0.5)</td>
<td>(10.9±3.5)</td>
<td>(66)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>5.5±0.5</td>
<td>1.4±0.1</td>
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<td>7.3±1.0</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>Almberga</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>3.0±0.4</td>
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<td>4.4±0.3</td>
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<td>19.6±1.4</td>
<td>2.7±0.5</td>
<td>7.3±1.0</td>
<td>49.3±10.6</td>
<td>117.4±6.1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tjabrak</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>2.2±0.1</td>
<td>0.6±0.04</td>
<td>3.9±0.3</td>
<td>1.1±0.1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kratersjön</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>2.2±0.01</td>
<td>0.4±0.03</td>
<td>5.6±0.5</td>
<td>0.8±0.08</td>
<td>35.8±3.6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>(1.8±0.2)</td>
<td>(0.5±0.02)</td>
<td>(3.7±0.6)</td>
<td>(3.2±0.07)</td>
<td>(10.6±2.9)</td>
<td>(46)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katterjaure</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>1.4±0.01</td>
<td>0.2±0.3</td>
<td>6.0±1.5</td>
<td>0.3±0.04</td>
<td>36.9±1.4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>(1.6±0.1)</td>
<td>(0.2±0.04)</td>
<td>(9.1±0.4)</td>
<td>(1.1±0.06)</td>
<td>(10.3±2.9)</td>
<td>(17)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruozut</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>3.4±0.3</td>
<td>0.6±0.1</td>
<td>5.9±0.5</td>
<td>1.8±0.3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vuore</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>2.8±0.2</td>
<td>1.2±0.5</td>
<td>2.2±0.4</td>
<td>3.2±1.4</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knivsön</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>5.9±0.2</td>
<td>0.9±0.04</td>
<td>6.3±0.4</td>
<td>5.2±0.3</td>
<td>202.8±24.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soorijaure</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>7.2±0.2</td>
<td>0.9±0.1</td>
<td>8.2±0.5</td>
<td>5.9±0.4</td>
<td>121.2±5.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>njulla</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>5.9±0.1</td>
<td>0.6±0.04</td>
<td>10.3±1.8</td>
<td>3.1±0.2</td>
<td>112.7±8.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>(3.1±0.2)</td>
<td>(0.8±0.2)</td>
<td>(3.7±0.5)</td>
<td>(2.4±0.6)</td>
<td>(70.4±6.9)</td>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>(0.40)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(3.21)</td>
<td>(11.3)</td>
<td>(274)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuoblatjakkajaure</td>
<td>S-A</td>
<td>0.7±0.1</td>
<td>0.1±0.4</td>
<td>7.0±2.9</td>
<td>0.06±0.01</td>
<td>37.4±8.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.03</td>
<td>62.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>(0.7±0.1)</td>
<td>(0.2±0.1)</td>
<td>(3.5±1.3)</td>
<td>(0.1±0.02)</td>
<td>(5.0±0.5)</td>
<td>(41)</td>
<td>(1.97)</td>
<td>(15)</td>
<td>(17.30)</td>
<td>(13.0)</td>
<td>(54)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are given as mean ± SE. Winter values are in parentheses. The bacterial production value for Almberga was taken from July 2005 (J. Karlsson et al., unpublished data). FVIB values are presented as the mean of two analysed grids. Total number of bacterial cells analysed with TEM, ranged between 64 and 1102 cells per sample. S-A, summer-autumn; W, winter; R, virus–bacterium encounter rate; success, percentage virus–bacterium encounters ending in cell lysis.

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Bacteria and viruses showed considerable variation between the lakes (Table 3). The ratio of benthic viral abundance to pelagic viral abundance ranged between 5.0 and 70.4 (VBR) in the water column ranged between 2.24 and 10.32 in the summer–autumn and between 3.51 and 9.14 in the winter (Table 2). VBR values were significantly lower (r-test, P < 0.01, N = 5) in the sediments (mean 1.97 ± 0.14, N = 5) than in the above water column (mean 6.62 ± 0.76, N = 5). Pelagic and benthic virus–bacterium contact rates (R) showed considerable variation between the lakes (Table 3). In the summer–autumn, pelagic virus-bacterium Rs varied from 0.06 to 103.27 × 10^6 contacts L^−1 day^−1. In the winter, pelagic Rs varied from 0.14 to 2.39 × 10^7 contacts L^−1 day^−1. The highest pelagic R was found in lake Erkki jaure, which also had the highest viral abundance (Table 2). Benthic Rs were significantly higher than pelagic R (t-test, P < 0.01, N = 5) and varied from 0.2 to 10.5 × 10^4 contacts L^−1 day^−1.

**BP and GTs**

BP in the pelagic habitat ranged between 35.8 and 433.4 × 10^6 cells L^−1 day^−1 in the summer–autumn and between 5.0 and 70.4 × 10^6 cells L^−1 day^−1 in the winter. The highest pelagic BP rate was recorded in lake S2 in the summer–autumn whereas in winter the highest rate was recorded in lake Njulla (Table 2). BP rates in the summer–autumn showed a positive correlation with the concentrations of TP (r = 0.571, P < 0.1, N = 10), T-N (r = 0.648, P < 0.05, N = 10) and DOC (r = 0.600, P < 0.1, N = 11). In the winter, BP was positively correlated with concentrations of inorganic nitrogen (NH_4 and T-N) (r = 0.991, P < 0.01, N = 5). Virus-to-bacterium ratios (VBR) in the water column ranged between 2.24 and 10.32 in the summer–autumn and between 3.51 and 9.14 in the winter (Table 2). VBR values were significantly lower (r-test, P < 0.01, N = 5) in the sediments (mean 1.97 ± 0.14, N = 5) than in the above water column (mean 6.62 ± 0.76, N = 5). Pelagic and benthic virus–bacterium contact rates (R) showed considerable variation between the lakes (Table 3). In the summer–autumn, pelagic virus-bacterium Rs varied from 0.06 to 103.27 × 10^6 contacts L^−1 day^−1. In the winter, pelagic Rs varied from 0.14 to 2.39 × 10^7 contacts L^−1 day^−1. The highest pelagic R was found in lake Erkki jaure, which also had the highest viral abundance (Table 2). Benthic Rs were significantly higher than pelagic R (t-test, P < 0.01, N = 5) and varied from 0.2 to 10.5 × 10^4 contacts L^−1 day^−1.
N = 5; \( r = 0.851, P < 0.1, N = 5 \), respectively) and temperature \((r = 0.818, P < 0.1, N = 5)\). The BP rates in the sediments ranged between 0.59 and \(8.29 \times 10^6\text{ cells L}^{-1}\text{ day}^{-1}\) (Table 3) and were significantly higher than the rates in the water column \((t\text{-test, } P < 0.01, N = 5)\). In the summer–autumn, pelagic bacterial GTs ranged between 2.7 and 96.0 days and were positively correlated with viral abundance \((r_s = 0.555, P < 0.1, N = 11)\). In the winter, bacterial GTs were shorter in the summer–autumn (mean 6.79, \(N = 5\)) than in the winter (mean 36.4, \(N = 5\)) \((t\text{-test, } P < 0.01, N = 5)\). Furthermore, benthic bacterial GTs were significantly longer (19–508 days, mean 285, \(N = 5\)) than pelagic bacterial GTs \((t\text{-test, } P < 0.01, N = 5)\).

**Lytic infection**

Based on electron microscopy, we could estimate the percentage of bacteria being visibly infected with viruses (FVIB). In the water column, FVIB varied from undetectable to 2.34% in the summer–autumn and from undetectable to 1.97% in the winter. The maximum values were obtained for Kuoblatjakkajaure, a high-altitude lake (1300 m a.s.l.) (Table 2). Pelagic FVIB values were negatively correlated with the concentrations of T-P \((r_s = -0.756, P < 0.01, N = 13; r_s = -0.480, P < 0.01, N = 13)\). In the winter there was a positive relationship between pelagic FVIB values and altitude \((r = 0.927, P < 0.05, N = 5)\). We found no virus-infected bacterial cells in any of the sediment samples. In total, we inspected 161 bacterial cells from the extracted sediment samples but none of these cells contained viruses. Because of the low number of cells inspected, it is hard to make any meaningful interpretations of these results and subsequently we could not calculate the fraction of bacterial mortality caused by viral lysis (FMVL) or virus production in the sediments. The presence of virus-infected bacteria in the water column was rare, with only four out of 14 lakes containing virus-infected bacteria in the summer–autumn. In the winter, a slightly higher proportion of the lakes (two out of five) contained virus-infected bacteria. FMVL in the water column was always \(< 5\%\) of the BP, except in Kuoblatjakkajaure, where up to 21% of the bacterial mortality was caused by viruses (Table 2).

The burst size \(B_s\) in the pelagic samples from summer–autumn ranged from 8 (lake Kuoblatjakkajaure) to 33 (lake Almberga), whereas in the winter a \(B_s\) of 5 was recorded in lake Njulla and a \(B_s\) of 15 in lake Kuoblatjakkajaure (Table 2). In the summer–autumn, \(B_s\) was negatively correlated with the concentrations of T-P \((r_s = -0.685, P < 0.01, N = 13)\). In the winter, there was a positive correlation between \(B_s\) and altitude \((r = 0.912, P < 0.05, N = 5)\).

Pelagic LVP rates were low \((11.3–134.5 \times 10^6\text{ viruses produced L}^{-1}\text{ day}^{-1})\), which resulted in long VT \((11–275\text{ days})\) (Table 2). The pelagic BP rates were generally higher than the pelagic LVP rates in the lakes, with the exception of Kuoblatjakkajaure (Table 2). Virus–bacterium contact rates indicate how often a virus particle bumps into a bacterial cell; however, every virus–bacterium contact does not result in a successful infection. The percentages of pelagic virus–bacterium contacts resulting in a successful infection ending with lysis (success) were low and showed considerable variation between the lakes (Table 2). In lake Kuoblatjakkajaure, one out of eight contacts resulted in a successful viral infection in the summer–autumn; however, the success rate was over 14 times lower in the winter (0.865%). The success rate was extremely low in lake Vuoskkujaure, where only one of 2500 contacts resulted in a successful viral infection in the summer–autumn.

**Lysogenic infection**

The presence of lysogenic bacteria in the water column was investigated in six of the 14 lakes in the winter of 2008. Lysogenic bacteria were only found in lake Kuoblatjakkajaure, with a low calculated FLC (2.3%) (Table 4). Thus, lysogenic viral production seemed to be of minor importance in the pelagic habitat of the investigated lakes.

### Table 4. Estimation of percentages of lysogenic bacteria in the total bacterial community in the pelagic habitats of the six lakes studied in winter 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lake</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Viruses (control (\times 10^9\text{ L}^{-1}))</th>
<th>Mitomycin C (% of the control)</th>
<th>% FLC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vuoskkujaure</td>
<td>20-02-08</td>
<td>3.3 ± 0.2</td>
<td>105.0 NS</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almberga</td>
<td>27-02-08</td>
<td>12.2 ± 2.3</td>
<td>80.1</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kratersjön</td>
<td>11-03-08</td>
<td>3.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katterjaure</td>
<td>29-02-08</td>
<td>0.9 ± 0.1</td>
<td>85.3</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njulla</td>
<td>03-03-08</td>
<td>4.5 ± 0.3</td>
<td>107.6 NS</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuoblatjakkajaure</td>
<td>11-03-08</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.02</td>
<td>110.1*</td>
<td>2.3 ((B_s = 15))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are given as mean ± SE.

\*\(P < 0.05\). The significance of each induction event was determined by comparison of treatment and control levels of viruses by an independent samples \(t\)-test.

NA, not applicable; NS, not significant.
Discussion

Pelagic virus–bacterium interactions

Overall, the range of pelagic viral abundance observed in the subarctic lakes (0.67 × 10^9–28.89 × 10^9 viruses L\(^{-1}\)) falls within previously reported values for temperate and polar inland waters (Wommack & Colwell, 2000; Weinbauer, 2004; Säwström et al., 2008a). There was no indication of decreasing viral abundance with increasing altitude. Nevertheless, the highest viral abundance was noted in the low-altitude lake Erkkijäure (28.89 × 10^9 viruses L\(^{-1}\)) and the lowest value was recorded in the high-altitude lake Kuo-blätjätkkajaure (0.67 × 10^9 viruses L\(^{-1}\)), which was in the same range as the values reported from ultraoligotrophic Antarctic lakes (Säwström et al., 2007a). Even though not significant, the mean viral abundance appeared to be higher in summer–autumn than in winter.

Viral abundance exceeded bacterial abundance in all the lakes on both sampling occasions. The VBR values were fairly stable, with low variability between the two sampling occasions (summer–autumn, 2.2–10.3; mean, 6.1; winter, 3.5–9.1; mean, 4.8). The rather low values of VBR (< 10) indicated that viral-induced bacterial mortality was low in the lakes in both the summer–autumn and the winter period. The percentages of visibly virus-infected bacteria in the lakes on the two sampling occasions were indeed exceptionally low (range, from undetectable to 2.3%; mean 0.3%), compared with the c. 2% usually found in temperate freshwaters (Parada et al., 2006; Säwström et al., 2007b). In contrast, the calculated contact rates indicated that there was a high probability of contact between viruses and bacteria, particularly in two of the lakes below the tree line (< 600 m a.s.l.) on the summer–autumn sampling occasion (49 and 103 × 10^9 contacts L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)). In a set of transplantation experiments conducted in the glacial freshwater environment of the high Arctic (Svalbard), \( R \) ranged from 0.06 to 11 × 10^9 contacts L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\) whereas in the deep-water masses of the North Atlantic, \( R \) ranged from 1 to 4 × 10^9 contacts L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\) (Anesio et al., 2007; Parada et al., 2007). Our Rs, in the winter period (0.1–2.4 × 10^9 contacts L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\); mean 1 × 10^9 contacts L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), ranged between the values reported by Anesio et al. (2007) and Parada et al. (2007), but in summer–autumn, Rs often exceeded this range (0.06–103 × 10^9 contacts L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\); mean 14 × 10^9 contacts L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)).

It should be noted that only a fraction of the contacts will result in viral infection; thus, contact rates are not necessarily proportional to infection rates. In fact, a small percentage of contacts resulted in a viral infection ending with cell lysis (< 14% success). LVP was low (11.3–134.5 × 10^9 viruses produced L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), with previously reported values being over one order of magnitude higher (Weinbauer, 2004; Bongiorni et al., 2005). There was no indication of decreasing LVP with increasing altitude. The low viral production rates resulted in long VT, suggesting that the rates of destruction and inactivation of viruses were low in these lakes.

In all the sampled lakes, except Kuoblatjätkkajaure, viral-induced bacterial mortality was < 5% of the BP. Kuoblatjätkkajaure had a viral-induced bacterial mortality of 21% in the summer–autumn, which is similar to previously reported values from freshwater environments (Wommack & Colwell, 2000; Weinbauer, 2004). With the exception of Kuoblatjätkkajaure, the values of viral lysis are among the lowest reported for marine and freshwater systems (Weinbauer, 2004). This implies that other bacterial loss factors such as protist or metazoan grazing of bacteria were more important than viral-induced bacterial mortality in our lakes. Indeed, Lymer et al. (2008) found that flagellate bacterivory was the main source of bacterial mortality in a set of 21 Swedish lakes (six were subarctic lakes situated in the coniferous forest and subalpine belt).

Burst size estimates were variable in the lakes and ranged from undetectable to 33 viruses. In Fig. 2, we plotted the reported mean \( B_\text{v} \) values for freshwaters in relationship with the mean FVIB values. We found that \( B_\text{v} \) decreased with a higher percentage of infected cells, which corroborates the observations of Säwström et al. (2007b), but is contrary to the findings of Parada et al. (2006). Interestingly, the data summarized in Fig. 2 support the hypothesis that a high frequency of visibly infected cells may offer a novel way for the viral population to survive when only a few viruses are released per infected cell (Säwström et al., 2007b).

Fig. 2. Relationship between burst sizes (\( B_\text{v} \)) and frequencies of visibly infected bacteria (FVIB) in a variety of inland waters (\( r = -0.637, P < 0.01, N = 28 \)). Antarctic waters (filled squares) (Säwström et al., 2007b); arctic waters (filled triangle) (Säwström et al., 2007b); subarctic waters, this study (filled diamond); temperate waters (open circle) (Hennes & Simon, 1995; Mathias et al., 1995; Weinbauer & Höfle, 1998; Wilhelm & Smith, 2000; Hofer & Sommeruga, 2001; Fischer & Velimirov, 2002; Vrede et al., 2003; Bettarel et al., 2004; Jacquet et al., 2005; Lymer et al., 2008); tropical waters (open triangle) (Bettarel et al., 2006).
Low LVP rates imply that there might be high proportions of lysogenic bacteria in the lakes as these cells could act as sinks for viruses. Surprisingly, lysogenic bacteria were only detected in the high-altitude lake Kuoblatjåkkåjaure, which had an extremely low incidence of lysogeny (2.3% lysogeny). There are a limited number of reports on lysogeny in inland waters, and the majority of them have been conducted in Arctic and Antarctic waters (Tapper & Hicks, 1998; Anesio et al., 2004, 2007; Lisle & Priscu, 2004; Bettarel et al., 2006; Laybourn-Parry et al., 2007; Säwström et al., 2007a, c, 2008a, b). These studies show a considerable variation in the incidence of lysogeny, from undetectable to 73%. A high incidence of lysogeny (up to 73%) has been reported from Antarctic inland waters (Lisle & Priscu, 2004; Laybourn-Parry et al., 2007; Säwström et al., 2007a), whereas a low incidence of lysogeny (0.1–7.4%) has been reported from temperate and tropical inland waters (Tapper & Hicks, 1998; Bettarel et al., 2006). Lysogeny may be a strategy for viruses to survive periods of low host availability and productivity in harsh environments. Indeed, the low bacterial activity in the high-altitude lake Kuoblatjåkkåjaure during the winter period may have stimulated the development of lysogenic cells.

**Benthic virus–bacterium interactions**

Benthic viral abundance was up to three orders of magnitude higher than pelagic viral abundance and corresponded to observations from other inland waters (Ricciardi-Rigault et al., 2000; Mei & Danovaro, 2004; Bettarel et al., 2006; Fischer et al., 2006; Filippini & Middelboe, 2007). The sediment environments in our study lakes harboured a large amount of viruses. Previous studies have speculated that the high concentrations of benthic viruses may be due to sedimentation, accumulation and persistence of viruses that originated from the overlaying waters (Mei & Danovaro, 2004; Bettarel et al., 2006). An alternative explanation to the high concentrations of benthic viruses is that some of the fluorescent particles that are counted as viruses under the microscope are free nucleic acids. Dell’Anno et al. (1999) found high concentrations of free nucleic acids in marine sediments; thus, it is possible that free nucleic acids may interfere with the quantification of benthic viruses when using fluorescent nucleic acid dyes and epifluorescent microscopy.

BP rates were extremely high in the sediments, but this did not coincide with high benthic viral production rates. On the contrary, despite the high benthic-to-pelagic viral abundance ratios (7.2–195.4) and high theoretical contact rates (0.2–10.5 × 10^14 contacts L^-1 day^-1) in the benthic samples, our TEM analyses showed that there was a complete absence of virus-infected cells in the benthic samples. Such a virtual absence of virus-infected cells in the benthos has also been reported from other freshwater habitats (Bettarel et al., 2006; Filippini et al., 2006). In this single-time study, the failure to detect infected cells in the benthos along with low VBR values (< 3) implies that there was a low impact of freshwater benthic viruses on bacteria in our study lakes, which agrees with previous findings from temperate and tropical sediments (Fischer et al., 2003; Bettarel et al., 2006; Filippini et al., 2006).

The exact reason behind the lack of viral infection, even though high viral numbers were present, in the benthos of our lakes and previous studies (Bettarel et al., 2006; Filippini et al., 2006) remains largely unknown. One possible explanation for the lack of virus-infected cells could be that there is a prevalence of temperate benthic viruses. However, because we have no information about the incidence of lysogeny in our sediment samples, we can neither accept nor reject this explanation. In the only study of lysogeny conducted with freshwater lake sediments (Senegal freshwaters), the authors reported a small FLC ranging from 0.3% to 4.2% (Bettarel et al., 2006). Furthermore, a recent review of viriobenthos indicated that the lysogenic life cycle contributed little to benthic virus production in marine and freshwater environments (Danovaro et al., 2008).

**Conclusions**

The large range in virus abundances in the samples from 0.67 to 28.89 × 10^9 viruses L^-1 in the pelagic habitat and 2.1 to 14.0 × 10^11 viruses L^-1 in the benthic habitat indicated that the selected lakes represented distinct environments providing very different habitat conditions for viral proliferation. The environment where viruses are residing may be more or less good to support viral proliferation. Favourable conditions for pelagic viral proliferation were found in the lakes below the treeline, where high concentrations of DOC and bacteria occurred. In spite of this, there was no general trend of decreasing viral abundance and activity with increasing altitude.

Even though high benthic-to-pelagic viral abundance ratios suggested that the sediments were more favourable habitats for viral proliferation than the overlaying waters we found no indications of this. In benthic habitats, adsorption of viruses and bacteria to sediment particles may prevent the contact between viruses and bacteria. Furthermore, humic substances and complex organic matrices rich in exoenzymes have been shown to have a negative effect on viral abundance and VBR (Danovaro et al., 2002a, b; Anesio et al., 2004). In pelagic habitats, there is less organic matter and also lower viscosity than in the sediments, allowing a good dispersal of virus particles.

Lytic or/and lysogenic viral production could not explain the relatively high pelagic and benthic viral abundances in the investigated lakes. This may indicate that alternative life cycles may contribute to the observed viral abundances, such as pseudolysogeny (Weinbauer, 2004; Danovaro et al., 2004).
2008). Another possible explanation for the rather high pelagic viral abundance might be a large allochthonous input of viruses and bacteria and/or the release of viruses and bacteria from the sediments into the overlying waters. Allochthonous input of viruses and bacteria can significantly influence both virio- and bacterioplankton assemblages in lakes (Lindström & Bergström, 2004; Sano et al., 2004). The release of organic substances from lake sediments can increase the concentrations of dissolved organic matter (this fraction would also include viruses) in the overlying waters (Jansson, 1979, 1980). Our preliminary data set indicates a low impact of viruses on benthic and pelagic bacteria in subarctic lakes even though paradoxically, viruses are relatively abundant in both the benthos and the overlying waters. However, both temporal and spatial lake surveys are needed before we can firmly establish the relevance of viruses in the subarctic.

Acknowledgements

Thanks are due to Thomas Westin and Charlotte Roehm for assistance during field work, and Per Hörstedt for help with TEM analyses. Thanks are also due to Charlotte Roehm for valuable comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by a CIRC fellowship held by C.S. and a stipend to C.S. from Lars Hiertas Minne.

References


