Synthetic Photosynthetic Consortia Define Interactions Leading to Robustness and

Photoproduction

Stephanie G. Hays[1,2], Leo L.W. Yan[3], Pamela A. Silver[1,2]#, Daniel C. Ducat[3,4]#

[1]Department of Systems Biology, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA;

[2]Wyss Institute for Biologically Inspired Engineering, Harvard University, Boston, MA,

USA;

[3]MSU-DOE Plant Research Laboratory, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI,

USA;

[4]Department of Biochemistry & Molecular Biology, Michigan State University, East

Lansing, MI, USA.

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#Address correspondence to either Pamela A. Silver, Pamela_silver@hms.harvard.edu or

Daniel C. Ducat, ducatdan@msu.edu

ABSTRACT

Microbial consortia composed of autotrophic and heterotrophic species abound in nature,

yet examples of synthetic communities with mixed metabolism are limited in the

laboratory. Herein, we construct artificial synthetic consortia consisting of sucrose-

secreting cyanobacteria, *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942, paired with three disparate

heterotrophs: *Bacillus subtilis, Escherichia coli*, or *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.

Comparison of these different dyads highlights underlying interactions in co-culture. We

witness both engineered and emergent interactions between cyanobacterium and

heterotroph shared across heterotrophic species. Heterotrophs can consume carbon fixed

photosynthetically by cyanobacteria while non-sucrose byproducts of photosynthesis can

negatively impact heterotroph growth. Surprisingly, all tested heterotrophic species can

positively impact cyanobacterial growth in co-culture in comparison to monoculture.

Growth of co-cultures is witnessed in batch and continuous culture as well as on agar

plates. Co-cultures persist long-term and can survive perturbation, particularly when

heterotrophic sucrose uptake is enhanced and/or heterotrophic sensitivity to byproducts of

photosynthetic metabolism is mitigated. This level of robustness is infrequently

witnessed in synthetic microbial communities. Furthermore, by exchanging partner

heterotrophs, we demonstrate flexible, phototrophic production of alpha-amylase and

polyhydroxybutyrate in co-cultures containing specialized strains of *B. subtilis* and *E.*

coli, respectively. Production can be improved via engineered intervention, i.e. increased

efficiency growing on sucrose, showing promise for future tuning of these communities

as production platforms. Altogether these synthetic microbial consortia provide a

platform to study autotroph-heterotroph interactions, while demonstrating promising

flexibility and stability for potential photoproduction strategies that capitalize on multi-

species interactions.

IMPORTANCE

We describe a series of synthetic communities in which engineered cyanobacteria fix and

secrete carbon to support growth of a broad range of evolutionarily-unrelated model

heterotrophs. Because of the unprecedented flexibility of this consortia design, we can

begin to characterize engineered and emergent interactions shared across multiple

autotroph/heterotroph pairings. These observations allow us to evaluate characteristics

and design principles that influence consortia robustness in a species-independent

manner. For example, cyanobacterial productivity is improved by cohabitation with a

broad range of heterotrophic species; an important observation for microalgal

bioproduction. We show that the modular nature of our communities also allows them to

be readily "reprogrammed" for photoproduction of a variety of compounds by

substitution of the heterotrophic partner species. The unusual robustness and flexibility

exhibited by our engineered consortia demonstrate promise as a platform that could be

developed for the study of nascent symbioses, or as a highly-versatile photoproduction

strategy.

INTRODUCTION

Microbial communities dominate natural environments while, historically, axenic experiments monopolize laboratories. While much has been gleaned from isolated microbes, there is increasing emphasis on the study of complex natural consortia. This interest is driven by the ubiquity and diversity of microbiomes related to human health, ecology, and bioindustrial applications. Microbial consortia divide metabolic labor to capitalize on environmental resources, are resistant to invasion, and are robust when faced with perturbations, all characteristics that are interesting biologically as well as desirable in engineered systems (1–3). Yet natural consortia inherently contain many species that are highly integrated; disentangling the interactions and functions within a community can be difficult (4–7).

Designed microbial communities can be used to gain insight into microbial ecology or be applied to industry and remediation. *Artificial consortia* consist of wild-type microbes with naturally synergistic interactions, while *synthetic consortia* are microbial communities engineered to interact (e.g. via signaling molecules or traded metabolites) - where the introduced communication and/or species are not found in nature (3). Because artificial consortia interact based on endogenous pathways, often in genetically intractable strains, tuning interactions to explore different questions or to program new functions is difficult relative to synthetic communities. Indeed, tunable designs within the nascent field of synthetic consortium engineering have provided bottom-up insights into complex dynamics including population behavior, game theory, pattern formation, and cross-feeding (8–13).

Despite their promise, synthetic systems have often been limited in construction

to engineered signals (i.e. quorum sensing) or complementary auxotrophies within

highly-related organisms (13–17). The inflexibility of most consortia designs means that

engineered interactions are highly contextualized to a limited number of species,

confounding the identification of general trends in interaction rather than scenario-

specific observations. Additionally, species with different growth modes (i.e. autotrophs

and heterotrophs) are relatively rare in synthetic designs in contrast to natural consortia

(18–20). Finally, contrary to the robustness seen in natural microbial communities,

synthetic consortia are frequently fragile, functioning only for short time frames or

requiring artificially structured environments (21, 22). Because of these limitations in

scope, as well as the scarcity in number of synthetic communities, academic and

industrial application of such consortia is restricted.

A *Synechococcus elongatus* PCC 7942 strain previously engineered to secrete

sucrose is ideally suited as a phototroph for incorporation into consortia with heterotrophs

(23). When faced with osmotic pressure, *S. elongatus* accumulates the compatible solute

sucrose (24, 25) which can be exported through heterologous expression of the sucrose

transporter gene, *cscB*. CscB is a proton/sucrose symporter (26, 27) that functions to

secrete sucrose in cyanobacteria because of high environmental pH (pH 8). *CscB$^+$ S.*

elongatus can divert up to 80% of photosynthetically-fixed carbon to soluble sucrose,

generating 36 mg of sucrose per liter per hour of illumination. Furthermore, expression of

cscB in this *S. elongatus* strain can be regulated via induction with isopropyl-beta-D-1-

thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) (23).

In this work, we pair *cscB*⁺ *S. elongatus* with varied heterotrophs (*Escherichia*

coli, *Bacillus subtilis*, or *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) to investigate general rules of

microbial interaction while maintaining consortia tunability. In these consortia, *S.*

elongatus provides the sole carbon source for consumption by the heterotrophic species.

We see growth of both heterotrophs and cyanobacteria within all consortia, detail

emergent interactions between microbes, and demonstrate capacity for long-term

community persistence. Flexibility in community composition allows consortia to be

functionalized for photoproduction of metabolites and proteins via co-culture with

specialized heterotrophic partners. Together these findings develop a versatile platform to

investigate interactions between phototrophs and heterotrophs while showing promise as

functionalized co-cultures for bioproduction.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains, media, and axenic characterization. *S. elongatus* PCC7942 (obtained from

ATCC #33912) was engineered to secrete sucrose through the expression of the sucrose

symporter CscB (23). Axenic cyanobacteria were checked for contamination via plating

on rich media. *E. coli* W was obtained from ATCC (#9637) and the corresponding W

Δ*cscR* strain was generously provided by Dr. Claudia Vicker's laboratory (28). *B. subtilis*

168 was obtained from ATCC (#23857) and *B. subtilis* 3610 *ΔsinI* was generously

provided by the lab of Dr. Richard Losick (29). A *ΔsinI* mutant strain of 3610 was used

to minimize chained growth making CFU counts of the strain reproducible (29). All

strains are listed in Table 1. *S. elongatus* was propagated in BG-11 (Sigma Aldrich) plus

1 g/L HEPES, pH 8 in constant light at 35 °C. *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* were propagated in

Luria Broth (LB) while *S. cerevisiae* was maintained in YEPD media. *E. coli*, *B. subtilis*,

and *S. cerevisiae* were struck from frozen stocks on rich media plates (LB for bacteria

and YEPD for yeast). Co-culture media were optimized for either prokaryotes (^{CoB}BG-11)

or *S. cerevisiae* (^{CoY}BG-11). ^{CoB}BG-11 consists of BG-11 supplemented with 106mM

NaCl, 4mM NH_4Cl and 25mM HEPPSO, pH 8.3-KOH. Indole (100 uM) was added to *B.*

subtilis 168 co-cultures as indicated and in alpha-amylase experiments. ^{CoY}BG-11 consists

of BG-11 supplemented with 0.36g/L Yeast Nitrogen Base without amino acids (Sigma

Aldrich), 106mM NaCl, 25mM HEPPSO, pH 8.3-KOH and 1mM KPO_3. Solid co-culture

plates were composed of ^{CoB}BG-11 media with 1% autoclaved noble agar (BD

Biosciences).

For characterization of *S. elongatus* growth and sucrose production, *S. elongatus*

was cultured axenically in baffled flasks of ^{CoB}BG-11 or ^{CoY}BG-11 and allowed to

acclimate for ≥ 12 hours. At time 0, 25 mL cultures were adjusted to $OD_{750} = 0.5$ and

1mM IPTG was added, as appropriate. Cultures were monitored at 24 hour intervals by

withdrawal of 1mL culture. OD_{750} was measured via photospectrometer (ThermoScientific

NonoDrop 2000c) and culture supernatant was analyzed for sucrose content via a

colorimetric Glucose-Sucrose Assay (Megazyme). To prepare heterotrophic strains,

single colonies were picked into their respective rich media and grown until turbid at

varying temperatures before co-culture (37 °C for *E. coli* and *B. subtilis*; 30 °C for *S.*

cerevisiae). Cells were diluted into the appropriate co-culture media +2% sucrose to

acclimate to co-culture media, and maintained within log phase growth ($OD_{600} < 0.70$)

before use in co-cultures. All acclimating cultures and co-cultures were grown at 35 °C,

150 rpm, 2% CO_2, in light (PAR = ~80μmol with 15W Gro-Lux Sylvania fluorescent

bulbs) within a Multitron Infors HT incubator. Heterotrophic growth was measured by

inoculating rinsed cells at 0.01 OD_{600} (bacteria) or 0.05 OD_{600} (yeast) into fresh co-culture

media at the indicated sucrose concentration. Data for growth rate was collected from 25

mL flask cultures while 96-well plates with 1 mL culture volumes were used to assay the

gradient of [sucrose] in Fig. 2C; plates were read on a BioTek Synergy Neo plate reader.

Batch co-cultivation & quantification. Flask co-cultures were completed in 25 mL

volumes in baffled flasks. Cyanobacteria and heterotrophs were acclimated to ^{CoB}BG-11

or ^{CoY}BG-11 media prior to inoculation into co-cultures. All co-cultures were grown at 35

°C, 150 rpm, 2% CO^2, in light (15W; Gro-Lux; Sylvania) within a Multitron Infors HT

incubator. 1 mM IPTG was added when indicated. Growth in co-cultures was monitored

every 12 hours: *S. elongatus* was measured by the count of gated red-fluorescent events

on a quantitative flow cytometer (BD Accuri); heterotrophs were assayed by plating

dilution series on rich media to count colony forming units (CFU). Estimates of

W303^{Clump} cell number were derived by counting CFUs, but numbers were adjusted for

the ~6.6 cells/clump as previously reported (31), and as confirmed under our culture

conditions. For dilution experiments, co-cultures containing *E. coli* or *B. subtilis* were

grown for 24 hours before 10 or 100 fold dilutions.

Heterotroph exposure to variable [cyanobacteria]. *B. subtilis* and *E. coli* were

recovered from rich media as above, washed in ^{CoB}BG-11 and inoculated at an OD_{600} of

.01 in ^{CoB}BG-11 media + 2% sucrose with cyanobacteria at different densities (OD_{750} 0,

0.5, 1, and 2). *S. cerevisiae* was treated identically except they were inoculated at ~3x10^5

cells/mL (OD_{750} = 0.03) and ^{CoY}BG-11 was used. These samples were split into two 36-

well plates and incubated and exposed to either constant light or dark conditions while

maintaining the other growth parameters. Heterotroph counts were determined by plating

on rich media for colony counts as above after initial setup (time 0) and after 12 hours of

culture. Ratios of the viable cell counts from the light vs. dark cultures or $\log_{10}$ of these

ratios after 12 hours are reported.

Structured growth perturbation. To test the ability of co-cultures to withstand

environmental perturbation, flask co-cultures were inoculated and grown as previously

described for 24 hours before plating on 100 uL of co-cultures were plated on solid co-

culture Petri dishes. After five days, uneven lawns of heterotrophs and cyanobacteria

arose. Cells were picked from these plates into 96-well plates and allowed to grow for 2-5

additional days. Any well that demonstrated cyanobacterial growth (as judged visually by

green appearance) by the end of 48 hours was spotted on rich media to determine the

presence or absence of heterotrophic symbionts. Solid culture and 96-well plate growth

was completed at 35 °C, 0 rpm, 2% CO^2, in constant light (15W; Gro-Lux; Sylvania)

within a Multitron Infors HT incubator.

Heterotroph spotting on cyanobacterial lawns. Lawns of $cscB^+$ cyanobacteria were

achieved via spreading of 250 uL of $cscB^+$ cyanobacteria (OD_{750} 0.5) on solid co-culture

plates with or without 1 mM IPTG. After the cyanobacteria had absorbed on to the plate

(>3 hours in the dark), 3 uL drops of heterotrophs were spotted on to the lawns.

Heterotrophs had been previously grown up in rich media and washed three times to

remove any media components before spotting. Media blanks and boiled cells were

spotted as negative controls. Plates were then grown in 35 °C, 2% CO^2, in constant light

(15W; Gro-Lux; Sylvania) within a Multitron Infors HT incubator.

Long-term continuous co-cultivation. Long-term co-cultures were incubated in

Phenometrics Environmental Photo-Bioreactors (33) with 150mL liquid volumes of a

mix of $cscB^+$ $S.$ $elongatus$ with either $S.$ $cerevisiae$ W303^{Clump} or $E.$ $coli$ W $\Delta cscR$ in the

appropriate co-culture BG-11 media + 1mM IPTG. Reactors were seeded with ~$1x10^8$

cells/mL of $S.$ $elongatus$ ($OD_{750} = 0.5$) and a final concentration of heterotroph equivalent

to ~$1x10^6$ W303^{Clump} cells/mL (final OD_{600} ~0.1) or ~$5x10^7$ W $\Delta cscR$ cells/mL (OD_{600}

~0.05). Light was provided by onboard white, high-power LEDs (400μmol m^2 s^2)

continuously for $E.$ $coli$ W $\Delta cscR$ cultures, and with a 16:8 light:dark photoperiod for

W303^{Clump} co-cultures. The total density of co-cultures were monitored by onboard

infrared diodes, following a brief (3-12 hour) acclimation period where the time-averaged

optical density was allowed to settle to a fixed point following culture initiation, this

measurement was used to control attached peristaltic pumps that eject fresh media to

maintain the set target OD as previously described (33). Co-culture temperature was

maintained at 30°C by a heated jacket; cells were agitated continuously by a stirbar.

Daily, ~2 mL of co-culture volume was withdrawn and cyanobacterial and heterotrophic

cell counts determined by flow cytometry and plating, respectively (as described

above).

Alpha-amylase production and quantification. For production of alpha-amylase from

B. *subtilis* strain 168 was used in 8 mL cultures of ^{CoB}BG-11 with 100 uM indole in 6 well

dishes. Alpha-amylase production was measured after 24 hours of culture. Alpha-amylase

activity in supernatants was measured immediately after pelleting of cultures with the

EnzChek Ultra Amylase Assay Kit, Molecular Probes Life Technologies using the

manufacturer's protocol. Western blots confirmed presence of alpha-amylase in

supernatants after addition of NuPAGE LDS sample buffer (Invitrogen) followed by 10

minutes at 100 °C. Protein (10 uL) was run on NuPage 4-12% Bis-Tris gels (Life

Technologies) for in MES SDS running buffer for 50 minutes at 185V. The iBlot 2 Dry

Blot System (ThermoScientific) was used to transfer protein to nitrocellulose membranes

(iBlot 2 NC Regular Transfer Stacks). Anti-alpha amylase antibodies (polyclonal rabbit;

LS-C147316; LifeSpan BioSciences; 1:3,000 dilution) were used as the primary antibody

followed by peroxidase-conjugated donkey anti-rabbit antibodies (AffiniPure 711-035-

152 lot 92319; Jackson ImmunoResearch; 1:5,000 dilution) as the secondary antibody.

The western blot was visualized via Western Lightning® Plus-ECL, Enhanced

Chemiluminescence Substrate (PerkinElmer, ProteinSimple FluorChem M). Purified

alpha-amylase (Sigma Aldrich) was used as a control in all assays.

PHB Production & quantification. *E. coli* strains were transformed with pAET41

(Table 1; 32) before use in co-cultures for production. Co-cultures were set up as

described in 25 mL flasks. After one week of growth, the entire culture was spun down,

frozen, and stored at -80 until PHB content was quantified. PHB content was quantified

by standard methods (34, 35). Briefly: cell pellets were digested with concentrated H_2SO_4

at 90 °C for 60 min. The digestion solution was diluted with H_2O by 500 times and

passed through 0.2 μm filter. The solutions were subsequently analyzed by a high

performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, Agilent HPLC 1200) equipped with Aminex

HPX-87H column and UV absorption detector (35). The volume of each sample injection

was 100 μL. The mobile phase was 2.5 mM H_2SO_4 aqueous solution, with a flow rate of

0.5 mL/min for 60 min. 5 mM sodium acetate (Sigma Aldrich) was added as an internal

standard. The concentrations of PHB were determined by comparing the peak area with

that in standard curves from 0.1 ~ 30 mM.

RESULTS

Cyanobacteria consortia with heterotrophs

Systems where heterotrophs depend on a photosynthetic partner for growth were

developed. Engineered cyanobacteria, *cscB*+ *S. elongatus*, forms the photosynthetic

component – carbon dioxide is fixed and made accessible to various heterotrophs for

growth (23). Model heterotrophic species with well-developed molecular tools were

selected, and include Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria as well as yeast (Fig.

1A).

Fig. 1 Axenic characterizations of candidate strains.

(**A**) This schematic shows the engineered microbial community design - *cscB⁺ S. elongatus* (green) capture

light and CO_2 via photosynthesis. Fixed carbon is then secreted as sucrose (black arrows) to support the

growth of *B. subtilis* (blue), *E. coli* (orange), or *S. cerevisiae* (purple). Axenic *cscB⁺ S. elongatus* was

grown in ᶜᵒᴮBG-11 with (solid line) and without IPTG (dashed line) to induce sucrose secretion. Cell

density (**B**) and sucrose levels in culture supernatants (**C**) were measured. Error bars are standard deviation

of 8 biological replicates. For characterization of cyanobacteria in ᶜᵒᵞBG-11 see Fig. S1. (**D**) Heterotroph

growth in isolation was characterized via growth rate in co-culture buffer supplemented with 2% sucrose

Error is standard deviation of ≥ 3 replicates.

Growth of consortia was designed to rely upon sucrose secretion by *cscB⁺ S.*

elongatus in response to osmotic pressure and IPTG induction followed by sucrose

consumption by heterotrophs. We optimized media with compositions of nitrogen, salt,

and buffer – these are termed ᶜᵒᴮBG-11 for use in cyanobacteria/bacteria consortia and

ᶜᵒᵞBG-11 for the cyanobacteria/yeast consortium (see Materials and Methods). We

verified that *S. elongatus* grows and produces sucrose in these media (Fig. 1B, Fig. S1).

When *cscB* expression is induced, growth of the cyanobacteria is slightly impaired due to

the efflux of carbon (Fig. 1B,1C, Fig. S1A; Ducat et al. 2012). Consequently, increased

amounts of sucrose are present when *S. elongatus* is induced to express *cscB* (Fig. 1C,

Fig. S1B). Separately, we verified that all heterotrophs are capable of growth in these

media when exogenous sucrose (2%) is provided as the sole carbon source (Fig. 1D).

Sucrose-producing cyanobacteria, *cscB⁺ S. elongatus*, directly support heterotroph

growth in co-cultures that contain no external carbon sources (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). In all

consortia, *S. elongatus* grows with a single heterotrophic microbe in the appropriate co-

culture media (see Materials and Methods) with or without 1mM IPTG to induce *cscB*

expression and sucrose export. Growth of cyanobacteria and viable heterotrophs in co-

cultures were tracked over 48 hours in constant light via flow cytometry and analysis of

colony forming units (CFUs), respectively.

Fig. 2 *S. elongatus* supports microbial communities in batch culture. Batch cultures of $cscB^+$ *S.*

elongatus in co-culture with *B. subtilis* (blue), *E. coli* (orange), or *S. cerevisiae* (purple) were grown in

constant light. $cscB^+$ *S. elongatus* counts/mL were determined by flow cytometry every 12 hours for co-

cultures containing *B. subtilis* (**A**; green), *E. coli* (**B, D**; green), and *S. cerevisiae* (**E, F**; green). Co-cultures

with uninduced (dashed lines) or induced CscB expression (solid lines) were tested. Heterotroph viability

was monitored by colony forming unit (CFU) for all *B. subtilis* (**A**; blue), *E. coli* (**B** strain W, **D** strain W

Δ*cscR*; orange) and *S. cerevisiae* (**E** strain W303, **F** strain W303^{Clump}; purple) co-cultures. Data for A, B, D,

E, and F, are representative, same-day experiments where error bars are the standard error in 3 biological

replicates. Additional replicates in Fig. S2. (**C**) Axenic heterotroph growth was tested in defined media

with varying concentrations; the range of sucrose that $cscB^+$ *S. elongatus* can secrete in 48 hours is denoted

by a green box. Average OD_{600} is shown as a metric of growth for ≥ 6 biological replicates). OD_{600} was

correlated to viable colony forming units (CFU) in Fig. S3. No contaminants/heterotrophic colonies grew

from axenic controls.

B. subtilis growth in co-culture is dependent on IPTG-induced sucrose secretion

(Fig. 2A, Fig. S2A). Without induction of *cscB* to enable sucrose secretion, *B. subtilis*

fails to grow showing sensitivity to sucrose availability. When IPTG is present in co-

cultures, the growth of *B. subtilis* in co-culture is not monotonic; viability decreases after

48 hours of induction.

E. coli, in contrast, grows monotonically independent of induction of sucrose

secretion (Figure 2B, Figure S2B & S2C). In axenic culture, *E. coli* W only exhibits

growth when supplemented with > 5 mg/mL sucrose (Fig. 2C), yet $cscB^+$ *S. elongatus*

secretes ~1 mg/mL of sucrose by in 48 hours of growth (Fig. 1C). We also tested the

growth of *E. coli* engineered for increased growth in low sucrose (hereafter referred to as

the *ΔcscR E. coli* strain; Arifin et al. 2011). Although *ΔcscR E. coli* grow on lower

concentrations of sucrose axenically (≥1.25 mg/mL; Fig. 2C), we observed the same

monotonic growth pattern with decreased growth in the presence of IPTG (Fig. 2A & 2C,

Fig. S2B & S2C). This suggests that in the first days of co-culture, while exported

sucrose concentrations are low (≤1 mg/mL), *E. coli* strains cannot utilize sucrose

effectively and dominantly depend on other metabolites from *S. elongatus*, such as

extracellular polymeric substances (EPS; Villa et al. 2015; Rossi & De Philippis 2015).

329   *S. cerevisiae* growth in co-culture requires genetic mutations to enhance sucrose

utilization. Wild type *S. cerevisiae* W303 did not grow in co-culture regardless of IPTG

induction. This is likely due to poor growth in low sucrose concentrations (Fig. 2C). To

overcome *S. cerevisiae* W303's limited growth, an engineered strain, hereafter referred to

as W303^{Clump}, was examined. W303^{Clump} was derived from previous directed evolution

experiments of *S. cerevisiae* W303 in low sucrose media, which revealed mutations that

enhance fitness in dilute sucrose (31). W303^{Clump} (originally called Recreated02;

Koschwanez et al. 2013), contains a nonsense mutation in ACE2 as well as other

causative fitness-enhancing mutations that arose (in genes CSE2, IRA1, MTH1, and

UBR1). Mutations to ACE2 compromise the degradation of the mother-daughter septum

resulting in clumps of cells (~6.6 cells/clump on average). These aggregates grow in low

sucrose due to increased local cell concentration and increased hexose availability after

extracellular cleavage of sucrose by an invertase (38). Unlike the parental strain,

W303^{Clump} exhibited growth in low concentrations of sucrose when grown in isolation

(Fig. 2C). As a result, W303^{Clump} grows in co-culture with *cscB$^+$ S. elongatus*, but only

when sucrose secretion was induced (Fig. 2D). Similar to *B. subtilis*, W303[Clump] *S.*

cerevisiae demonstrate growth followed by decreased viability in co-culture over 48

hours.

Cyanobacterial light driven metabolism is the source of heterotroph growth

inhibition when sucrose is not limiting (Fig. 3A). The lack of monotonic growth in *B.*

subtilis and *S. cerevisiae* co-cultures indicate interactions beyond sucrose feeding

between heterotrophs and cyanobacteria (Fig. 2A, 2F). To focus on products other than

fixed carbon that influence heterotrophic viability and eliminate the confounding variable

that cyanobacteria only generate sucrose in the light (23), co-cultures were supplemented

with exogenous sucrose and cultivated in the light or dark. After 12 hours of co-

cultivation, heterotroph viability of each of the three species was determined, revealing

decreased growth or death correlated with increasing concentrations of cyanobacteria

solely in illuminated cultures (Fig. 3B-D, Fig. S4). This effect is most apparent in strains

of *B. subtilis* (Fig. 3B, Fig. S4A) where the viability of heterotrophic species decreases by

orders of magnitude when co-cultured in the light with high concentrations of *S.*

elongatus.

Fig. 3 Emergent microbial interactions. Engineered consortia demonstrate emergent interactions that can

be classified into two categories: negative effects that cyanobacteria have on heterotrophs (**A**) and positive

effects heterotrophs have on cyanobacteria (**E**). *B. subtilis* 3610 (**B**), *E. coli* W Δ*cscR* (**C**), and W303^{Clump} *S.*

cerevisiae (**B**) were co-cultured with various concentrations of *S. elongatus* and heterotroph CFUs were

determined after 12 hours of cultivation in either light or dark. Ratios of CFU in light compared to CFU in

dark are reported (**B-D**). Additional strains were tested in Fig. S4. Positive effects of heterotrophs on

cyanobacteria (**E**) were observed in liquid (**F**), evidenced by the ratio of cyanobacteria cells measured in

co-cultures relative to axenic controls after 48 hours in constant light. These co-cultures were inoculated

with two orders of magnitude fewer *cscB⁺ S. elongatus* (~1.7x10⁶ cells/mL) than the co-cultures depicted in

Fig. 2 (~1.7x10⁸ cells/mL), and 1 mM IPTG was added to all cultures to induce sucrose export. Thick

horizontal lines represent the average measurement for each condition while thin horizontal lines represent

one standard deviation from the mean. Positive effects of heterotrophs on cyanobacteria in previous liquid

batch experiments is summarized in Fig. S5. The influence of heterotrophs on cyanobacterial growth on

solid media (**G**) was determined by plating a dilute lawn of *cscB⁺ S. elongatus* on ^{CoB}BG-11 agar plates.

The cyanobacterial lawn was overlaid with the specified strain in ten-fold serial dilutions of heterotroph

and in constant light with or without IPTG**.**

Conversely, co-culture with heterotrophs can stimulate growth of *S. elongatus*

(Fig. 3E, Fig. S5). This was observed during batch cultures when cyanobacteria counts

were higher in co-cultures then in control axenic cultures at various time points (Fig. S5).

Because batch cultures of relatively dense *S. elongatus* can negatively impact

heterotrophic viability (Fig. 2A & 2E, 3A-D), and also lead to significant self-shading,

we inoculated low concentrations of cyanobacteria induced with IPTG to secrete sugar in

co-culture with heterotrophs. After 48 hours of co-culture, cyanobacteria numbers in co-

culture were normalized to axenic controls. We observe significant increases in

cyanobacterial growth in the presence of heterotrophic microbes, with total cell counts

increasing by between 80 and 250% on average (Fig. 3F). This beneficial effect of

heterotrophs can persist on solid media. On a lawn of dilute cyanobacteria induced with

or without IPTG, we spotted dilutions of *B. subtilis* or *E. coli* (Fig. 3G). Areas containing

E. coli and cyanobacteria grew up more quickly than the surrounding lawn of *S.*

elongatus alone. The effect of *B. subtilis* on cyanobacteria was more variable and

dependent upon induced sucrose export. Without IPTG, spots of *B. subtilis* inhibited

cyanobacterial growth however in the presence of IPTG, *B. subtilis* could stimulate

growth on or in the vicinity of the spot it was plated (Fig. 3G). *S. cerevisiae* was not

assayed in this manner because of poor growth of cyanobacteria on ^{CoY}BG-11 solid agar

plates. Collectively, these experiments indicate that all three evolutionarily unrelated

heterotrophs can significantly increase cyanobacterial growth under a range of growth

conditions.

Robustness in designed photosynthetic consortia

Co-cultures persist through environmental perturbations. To determine the

robustness of each species to varied culture conditions, co-cultures were switched from

batch to continuous culture, exposed to alternating light/dark cycles, subjected to dilution

or alteration of environment (Fig. 4).

Fig. 4 Co-cultures persist through time and perturbation. Representative continuous co-cultures of *E.*

coli W Δ*cscR* /*cscB*[+] *S. elongatus* (**A**) and W303[Clump] *S. cerevisiae*/*cscB*[+] *S. elongatus* (**B**) were cultured in

photobioreactors with 1mM IPTG. *E. coli*-containing consortia were kept in constant light while *S.*

cerevisiae communities were exposed to 16:8 hour light/dark photo period (grey spaces represent

darkness). Optical density of the entire culture (black scatter plots) as well as counts for the individual cell

types were tracked (green *S. elongatus*, orange *E. coli* W Δ*cscR*, purple W303[Clump] *S. cerevisiae*).

Additional photobioreactor cultures for *E. coli* W Δ*cscR* and W303[Clump] *S. cerevisiae* are presented in Fig.

S6 and S7, respectively. Extended W303[Clump] *S. cerevisiae*/*cscB*⁺ *S. elongatus* co-cultures are presented in

Fig. S8. Recovery of heterotrophs in batch co-cultures of *B subtilis* 3610/*cscB*⁺ *S. elongatus* (**C**) or *E. coli*

W Δ*cscR* /*cscB*⁺ *S. elongatus* (**D**) following dilution (vertical dashed grey line) was monitored by viable

colony counts. Perturbations on to solid media are presented in Fig. S9.

E. coli/*S. elongatus* co-cultures persist through time. Co-cultures of induced *cscB*⁺

S. elongatus and W Δ*cscR E. coli* were grown continuously in photobioreactors to

control cyanobacterial density under constant light (Fig. 4A). Cultures maintain stable

ratios for more than two weeks (Fig. 4A, Fig. S6).

Co-cultures of *S. cerevisiae* W303[Clump] and *cscB*⁺ *S. elongatus* are robust over time

and through variable light conditions. To further alter culture conditions, *cscB*⁺ *S.*

elongatus induced to secrete sucrose was cultured with *S. cerevisiae* W303[Clump] with an

alternating diurnal illumination regime (16 light:8 dark, Fig. 4B). Sustained growth in

these continuous cultures indicates that yeast persist through periods of darkness when

cyanobacteria are unable to supply sucrose or other photosynthates (Fig. 4D, Fig. S7;

Ducat et al. 2012). In similar experiments extended over longer time periods, *S.*

cerevisiae maintains viability in continuous culture with sucrose-secreting *S. elongatus*

for more than two months (Fig. S8).

Prokaryotic co-cultures with cyanobacteria persist through population bottlenecks

and changes in environmental structure. Co-cultures of *B. subtilis*/*S. elongatus* and *E.*

coli/S. elongatus were subjected to single dilutions (1 to 10 or 1 to 100) to simulate

population bottlenecks. Visible cyanobacterial growth occurred throughout these

experiments, while heterotroph growth was measured via CFU. In perturbed cultures,

heterotrophs can return to pre-dilution levels within three days (Fig. 4C & 4D). To further

change environment structure, co-cultures containing *cscB$^+$ S. elongatus* and *B. subtilis*

3610 or *ΔcscR E. coli* were moved from liquid to solid environments and back again.

This transfer disrupts ratios of different species within co-culture and alters any

interactions dependent on the co-culture constituents being in well-mixed environments.

After growth of liquid culture on agar, green areas of the agar plate were picked into

liquid cultures again disrupting the community and seeding a culture with variable

numbers of phototrophs and heterotrophs. Cyanobacterial growth was recovered in

constant light followed by the qualitative determination of heterotroph presence. In the

majority of cultures both cyanobacteria and the corresponding heterotroph persisted

through these perturbations, although *B. subtilis* was lost from the co-culture somewhat

more frequently than *E. coli* (Fig. S9).

Bioproduction from functionalized co-cultures.

As multiple species can be co-cultured with *cscB$^+$ S. elongatus*, it is possible to

exchange heterotrophs to functionalize consortia for desired activity. In this design, the

heterotrophic species of the consortia acts as a "conversion module" to metabolize the

products of photosynthesis into target bioproducts in a one-pot reaction (Fig. 5A). We

tested two heterotrophic strains capable of producing distinct products: enzymes (Fig. 5B,

5C) and chemical precursors (Fig. 5D).

Fig. 5 Photoproduction of enzymes and metabolites from co-culture. Flexible functionalization of co-

cultures was accomplished via the addition of heterotrophs capable of producing target compounds (**A**).

Alpha-amylase is naturally produced and secreted by *B. subtilis* strain 168. Supernatants from 24-hour

cultures of *B. subtilis* 168 alone (blue background) or in co-culture with $cscB^+$ *S. elongatus* (blue and green

background) were tested for enzymatic activity (**B**). Western blots also reveal the presence of alpha-

amylase in co-cultures containing IPTG (**C**). *E. coli* is capable of making PHB when carrying the pAET41

plasmid. Batch co-cultures of *E. coli* (with or without pAET41 to enable PHB production) and $cscB^+$ *S.*

elongatus were cultivated for one week with or without IPTG to induce sugar and PHB content of the total

culture was analyzed (**D**). Filled circles represent measured values; hollow circles placed on the x-axis

represent cultures in which no PHB was formed or was produced at levels below the detection limit. Thick

horizontal lines represent the average measurement for each condition while thin horizontal lines represent

one standard deviation from the mean.

Alpha-amylase is produced in co-cultures of *B. subtilis* strain 168 and $cscB^+$ *S.*

elongatus. *B. subtilis* is a chassis for enzyme production (39) and strain 168 naturally

produces active alpha-amylase (40). In consortia with *S. elongatus*, *B. subtilis* 168

produces alpha-amylase after 24 hours in constant light (Fig. 5A, 5B). The resulting

alpha-amylase is functional as determined by enzymatic assay, and accumulates at

significantly higher levels in co-cultures with $cscB^+$ *S. elongatus* induced to secrete

sucrose (Fig. 5A).

Engineered *E. coli*/*S. elongatus* communities produce PHB. We co-cultured *E.*

coli strains harboring a previously described PHB production plasmid, pAET41 (32) with

$cscB^+$ *S. elongatus* for one week in constant light and measured PHB present in the total

biomass. As with alpha-amylase production for *B. subtilis*, *E. coli* produces PHB in co-

culture with *S. elongatus* (Fig. 5D). While production from the *E. coli* W strain is similar

with and without IPTG, the *ΔcscR E. coli* W mutants that utilize sucrose more effectively

produce significantly more PHB (Fig. 2C, Fig. 5D, Arifin et al. 2011). Furthermore, upon

the addition of IPTG, the *ΔcscR E. coli* W strain can produce 3 times as much PHB in co-

culture than uninduced consortia. Taken together, these results demonstrate that consortia

can be flexibly programmed for photoproduction of different bioproducts by employing

different heterotrophic organisms.

Discussion

Our engineered communities demonstrate interactions that cause the flux of fixed

carbon to flow from an engineered phototroph to disparate heterotrophs. These consortia

divide metabolic labor between partner species: cyanobacteria are responsible for

photosynthesis while the heterotrophs consume fixed carbon via heterotrophic

metabolism, making the design inherently modular. In constructing these consortia, we

observed unforeseen interactions with common features shared across different

heterotrophic species. Namely, we observe that cyanobacterial growth can have negative

impacts on heterotrophs, while, conversely, growth of the cyanobacteria is stimulated in

the presence of heterotrophs. The significance and implications of these findings are

discussed.

506   Co-cultures containing *B. subtilis* or *S. cerevisiae* rely on induction of sucrose

excretion (Fig. 2A, 2E), indicating sucrose availability limits heterotrophic growth. In

contrast, *E. coli* receives other forms of fixed carbon from *S. elongatus,* as evidenced by

growth in co-cultures with no external carbon source (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). Presumably, *E.*

coli must catabolize other metabolites (e.g. secreted fixed carbon or EPS) and growth is

independent of IPTG induction because sucrose levels stay too low for *E. coli* utilization

during short-term co-culture (Fig. 2C).

514   Engineering improved sucrose utilization is one general strategy to improve

consortia design. In the case of *S. cerevisiae*, limited growth of the wild type W303 yeast

was seen in co-culture with *cscB*$^+$ *S. elongatus* induced to secrete sucrose (Fig. 2E). *S.*

cerevisiae metabolizes sucrose by secreting invertase that hydrolyzes sucrose to glucose

and fructose; the resulting hexoses are imported, although they can also diffuse away

which limits growth at low cell densities in low sucrose environments (31, 41). The

engineered W303$^{\text{Clump}}$ strain has improved sucrose uptake due to increased likelihood that

hexoses will be imported instead of diffusing away, and we observed this evolved strain

grow more successfully in co-culture than the wild type W303 (Fig. 2F). Similarly, we

tested W *E. coli* strains with improved sucrose utilization due to a deletion in the

repressor of the chromosomally encoded sucrose catabolism, *cscR* (27). While this

alteration did not lead to immediate gains in 48 hour batch cultures where sucrose levels

remained ≤1 mg/mL (Fig. 2A, Fig. S2), the mutation greatly increased PHB production in

longer experiments when co-cultures were functionalized for bioproduction (Fig. 5D).

Taken together, selecting or engineering heterotrophic partners to utilize very low

concentrations of sucrose would likely enhance consortia productivity and robustness.

Within these engineered communities we observe emergent interactions between

the cyanobacteria and heterotrophs that are consistent across consortia. All three

heterotrophs demonstrated decreased growth and viability when exposed to high densities

of cyanobacteria in the light (Fig. 3). While the effect is likely multifaceted, a product

that is only secreted in the light, including unavoidable byproducts of photosynthesis (e.g.

oxygenation and/or reactive oxygen species; Villa et al. 2015), may be key in this

interaction. Consistent with this, many evolved consortia containing oxygenic

phototrophs contain partners with strategies to mitigate reactive oxygen species (36, 42,

43); similar strategies may be employed to further improve the stability of synthetic

consortia. It is possible that growth suppression may be caused by competition for media

components, however heterotrophs can grow in media conditioned by *S. elongatus*

indicating only a minor role for this phenomena (20, 23).

A second emergent interaction between the microbes within our photosynthetic

consortia is the stimulation of phototroph growth in the presence of heterotrophs. It is not

known what limitation on *S. elongatus* is being alleviated by the presence of a living

partner heterotroph - although these observations are analogous to other natural

examples, such as interactions between *Prochlorococcus* and "helper heterotrophs" (42),

or experiments where microalgae accumulate more biomass in the presence of other

microbes than in isolation (44). However, the generality of the positive effect we observe

is somewhat surprising, as the complements of secreted bioproducts from each of the

heterotroph species is likely different. Broadly, heterotrophic metabolism is expected to

provide additional CO_2, however our consortia are cultivated in an enriched CO_2

environment (2%) well above atmospheric levels. Instead, we suspect cross-feeding of

other metabolite(s). It is possible that many distinct partner heterotrophs could boost

yields of *S. elongatus,* a prospect with significant implications for cyanobacterial

cultivation. Autotroph/heterotroph co-cultures might also be less susceptible to invasion

by contaminating species, a frequent problem of scaled and laboratory experiments (25).

The robustness exhibited by the synthetic communities presented here is a useful

feature that may facilitate future studies and applications. For example, we observe that

continuous culture enables co-culture conditions that are stable from weeks to months,

likely because the density of *S. elongatus* remains low (Fig. 4, Fig. S6-S8) in comparison

to batch co-cultures (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). Similarly, co-cultures persist through dilutions of 1

to 10 or 1 to100 (Fig. 4C & 4D) and can transition between differently structured growth

environments (Fig. S9). This stability is a promising feature of the consortia for

academic and applied experiments; for example long-term culture could be used to

examine fitness enhancing mutations in one or both species potentially leading to

heterotrophs with decreased sensitivity to cyanobacteria in the light or select for physical

attachment between phototroph and heterotroph.

Because our engineered system supports the growth of three distinct "workhorse"

model microbial organisms, there is flexibility within this platform for industrial and

academic applications. As demonstrated, we can take advantage of prior efforts to

engineer other microbes and capitalize on the strengths of each species by swapping

heterotrophs that produce different compounds. This work has shown that co-culture with

cyanobacteria can drive the production of alpha-amylase from *B. subtilis* and PHB from

E. coli – both commercially relevant products. Exploration of fundamental consortia

dynamics through this approach can also take advantage of flexibility within the platform

design. For example, target heterotrophic species may be selected based on the general

interactions observed here while additional 'omics level characterization can be pursued

in order to illuminate the molecular mechanisms underpinning emergent interactions.

With a more complete understanding of the full complement of inter-organismal

interactions, it may be possible to install additional control elements to further improve

consortial design for academic and bioindustrial purposes.

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Table 1. Strain and plasmid collection.

Strain	Origin
Synechococcus elongatus PCC7942	ATCC 33912
Synechococcus elongatus trc-lac/cscB	(23)
Bacillus subtilis 168	ATCC 23857
Bacillus subtilis 3610 *ΔsinI*	(29)
Escherichia coli K-12 BW25113	(30)
Escherichia coli W	ATCC 9637
Escherichia coli W ΔcscR	(28)
Saccharomyces cerevisiae W303	Ancestor strain; (31)
Saccharomyces cerevisiae W303$^{\text{Clump}}$	Recreated02 strain; (31)
Plasmid	
pAET41	(32)