1 **Phototroph-heterotroph interactions during growth and long-term**

2 **starvation across *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas* diversity**

3 Osnat Weissberg*, Dikla Aharonovich* and Daniel Sher

4 Department of Marine Biology, Leon H. Charney School of Marine Sciences, University of Haifa,

5 Israel

6 * Dikla Aharonovich and Osnat Weissberg contributed equally to this study

7 Correspondence: dsher@univ.haifa.ac.il

11 **Abstract**

Microbial interactions such as those between phytoplankton and bacteria been studied

intensively using specific model organisms, due to their potential impact on ecosystems and

biogeochemistry. Yet, to what extent interactions differ between closely related organisms, or

how these interactions change over time or culture conditions, remains unclear. Here, we

characterize the interactions between five strains each of two globally abundant marine

microorganisms, *Prochlorococcus* (a phototroph) and *Alteromonas* (a heterotroph), from the first

encounter between individual strains and over more than a year of repeated cycles of exponential

growth and long-term nitrogen starvation. *Prochlorococcus-Alteromonas* interactions had little

effect on traditional growth parameters such as *Prochlorococcus* growth rate, maximal

fluorescence or lag phase, affecting primarily the dynamics of culture decline, which we interpret

as representing cell mortality and lysis. The shape of the *Prochlorococcus* decline curve and the

carrying capacity of the co-cultures were determined by the phototroph and not the heterotroph

strains involved. Comparing various mathematical models of culture mortality suggests that

Prochlorococcus death rate increases over time in mono-cultures but decreases in co-cultures,

with cells potentially becoming more resistant to stress. Our results demonstrate intra-species

differences in ecologically-relevant co-culture outcomes. These include the recycling efficiency of

N and whether the interactions are mutually synergistic or competitive. They also highlight the

information-rich growth and death curves as a useful readout of the interaction phenotype.

Significance Statement

Interactions between phytoplankton and marine bacteria impact global ecosystems and

biogeochemistry. Here, we explore how intra-species variability affects the interactions between

Prochlorococcus, a globally abundant photosynthetic cyanobacetrium and *Alteromonas*, a

heterotrophic bacterium that lives off and recycles organic matter. Under nitrogen starvation,

Prochlorococcus growing alone increasingly accumulate damage and die, whereas in co-culture

with *Alteromonas* they become increasingly resilient. The specific *Prochlorococcus* strain had a

much larger effect on co-culture behavior than the *Alteromonas* strain, determining whether the

interactions are mutually synergistic or potentially competitive. These results show how

ecologically relevant outcomes of interactions may vary between closely related microorganisms,

and highlight growth and death curves from laboratory (co)-cultures as information-rich views of

microbial growth and death.

Keywords: Microbial interactions, growth curves, machine learning, mortality, co-culture,

synergism, Weibull.

Introduction

Interactions among microorganisms occur in every known ecosystem (recently reviewed by (1,2)).

Detailed studies of the interactions between selected model organisms (often in laboratory co-

cultures) have begun to reveal the diversity of molecular mechanisms whereby organisms interact

with each other (2–4). However, it is currently unknown to what extent the studied interactions

differ between organism pairs, growth stages or environmental conditions. For example, while

broad-scale phylogenetic patterns are often observed in microbial interactions, closely related

bacteria may differ in the way they interact with other organisms, likely as a result of the

significant genetic diversity observed in many microbial clades (e.g. (5,6)). Additionally, the same

56 pair of interacting organisms can synergize or compete depending on the composition of the

57 culture media and the growth stage of (co)-culture (e.g. (7–9)). Finally, both the coarse-grained

58 ecological classification of microbial interactions (e.g. positive/negative) and the high-resolution

59 mechanistic view obtained using advanced physiology and 'omics approaches are difficult to

60 translate into quantitative, predictive models of organismal growth and decline (1,10,11).

61 Here, we explore to what extent intra-clade diversity affects the outcome of microbial

62 interactions, using growth curves as an information-rich view of microbial growth and mortality.

63 Growth curves can be divided into discrete phases (lag, exponential, stationary, decline and long-

64 term stationary phases), and can be used to extract quantitative parameters such as growth rates,

65 lag times, etc. (12,13). An extra layer of more subtle information may exist in the shapes of the

66 growth curves, providing hints of important shifts in the physiology of the growing organisms, as

67 classically demonstrated by Jacques Monod for diauxic growth in *E. coli* (14). Notably, while many

68 studies of bacterial interactions focus on the exponential growth stage or on culture yield at a

69 specific time-point (e.g. (15–17)), fewer studies look at the shape and dynamics of the decline

70 phases, which can provide important hints regarding the effect of interactions on the process of

71 microbial mortality (e.g. (18–20)).

72 Our model organisms are two globally abundant clades of marine bacteria: a cyanobacterial

73 primary producer (*Prochlorococcus*) and a heterotrophic γ-proteobacterium (*Alteromonas*).

74 Interactions between marine phototrophs (phytoplankton, including cyanobacteria) and

75 heterotrophic bacteria have been studied intensively, as phytoplankton are responsible for about

76 one-half of the photosynthesis on Earth (e.g. (21–25)). Thus, phytoplankton-bacteria interactions

77 may strongly affect community structure and function on scales from microns to thousands of

78 kilometers (26,27). Our model primary producer, *Prochlorococcus*, is found throughout the

79 euphotic zone, the sunlit upper portion, of the oligotrophic (nutrient-poor) ocean. There are

80 multiple *Prochlorococcus* clades, broadly partitioned into high-light (HL) and low light (LL) adapted

81 ecotypes, which differ in their photosynthetic parameters and occupy different niches in the

82 ocean (e.g. surface vs deep water, reviewed by (28)). Strains differ also in traits such as the

83 capacity to utilize different forms of inorganic nutrients and organic matter, as well as in their

84 interactions with heterotrophic bacteria and phage. *Alteromonas* is a clade of free-living marine

85 bacteria, which are also partitioned into surface and deep groups (*A. macleodii* and *A.*

86 *mediterranea*, respectively) (29). *Alteromonas* strains also exhibit diverse capabilities to utilize

carbohydrates, to acquire iron, and in motility (30). Interactions between individual strains of

Prochlorococcus and *Alteromonas* have been characterized in some detail (12,27,31–35). While

the phenotype and gene expression patterns during interactions vary between strains, this

variability has not been explored systematically (12,32,36). Notably, strain- and condition-

dependent phytoplankton-heterotroph interactions are observed also in other systems, including

Synechococcus, a close relative of *Prochlorococcus* (18,37,38), as well as eukaryotic microalgae

(e.g. coccolithophores and diatoms, (7–9,39)).

We characterized the interactions between five strains each of *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas*,

from the first encounter between previously-axenic strains (i.e., grown in mono-culture) and

across ~1.2 years of co-culture (25 phototroph-heterotroph combinations, Figure 1A,

Supplementary Figure S1). The culturing period spanned multiple cycles of exponential growth,

culture decline and long-term nitrogen starvation (33). Nitrogen limitation occurs across wide

swaths of the global ocean, and affects a significant fraction of the *Prochlorococcus* diversity

(40,41). We focused our analysis on *Prochlorococcus* growth and decline, which is easily measured

using bulk culture fluorescence in a non-invasive manner (e.g. (12,42)). Using this dataset of 429

growth curves, as well as associated cell counts, we ask: i) How do the interactions between

Prochlorococcus and *Alteromonas* vary across the diversity of each organisms? ii) Do the

interactions change over time (i.e. do the organisms adapt to "living together")? iii) When, during

the life-cycle of a *Prochlorococcus* batch culture, do microbial interactions have the largest impact

on growth, death, and overall culture carrying capacity, and can this impact be quantified?

Results

All *Alteromonas* strains support long-term survival of *Prochlorococcus* under N

starvation

Prochlorococcus, and to some extent *Synechococcus*, have previously been shown depend on co-

occurring heterotrophic bacteria to survive various types of stress, including nitrogen starvation

(33,34,42,43).   At the first encounter between previously-axenic *Prochlorococcus* and

Alteromonas (E1), all co-cultures and axenic controls grew exponentially (Figure 1B, C). However,

all axenic cultures showed a rapid and mostly monotonic decrease in fluorescence starting shortly

after the cultures stopped growing, reaching levels below the limit of detection after ~20-30 days.

None of the axenic *Prochlorococcus* cultures were able to re-grow when transferred into fresh

media after 60 days (Figure 1C). In contrast, the decline of co-cultures rapidly slowed, and in some

cases was interrupted by an extended "plateau" or second growth stage (Figure 1B). Across

multiple experiments, 92% of the co-cultures contained living *Prochlorococcus* cells for at least

140 days, meaning that they could be revived by transfer into fresh media. Thus, the ability of

Alteromonas to support long-term N starvation in *Prochlorococcus* was conserved in all analyzed

strains.

It has previously been shown that *Prochlorococcus* MIT9313 is initially inhibited by co-culture with

Alteromonas HOT1A3, while *Prochlorococcus* MED4 is not (12,32). This "delayed growth"

phenotype was observed here too, was specific to MIT9313 (not observed in other

Prochlorococcus strains) and occurred with all *Alteromonas* strains tested (Figure 1D). MIT9313

belongs to the low-light adapted clade IV (LLIV), which are relatively distant from other

Prochlorococcus strains and differ from them in multiple physiological aspects including the

structure of their cell wall (44), the use of different (and nitrogen-containing) compatible solutes

(45) and the production of multiple peptide secondary metabolites (lanthipeptides,(46,47)). LLIV

cells also have larger genomes, and are predicted to take up a higher diversity of organic

compounds such as sugars and amino acids (48). It is intriguing that this strain, which has higher

predicted metabolic and regulatory flexibilities (49), is the only one initially inhibited in co-culture

with *Alteromonas*.

Figure 1: Experimental designs and overview of the dynamics of *Prochlorococcus-Alteromonas* co-cultures from first encounter and over multiple transfers. A. Schematic illustration of the experimental design. 1 ml from Experiment E1 was transferred into 20 ml fresh media after 100 days, starting experiment E2. Experiment E2 was similarly transferred into fresh media after 140 days, starting experiment E3. Additional experiments replicating these transfers are described in Supplementary figure S1. B. Overview of the growth curves of the 25 *Prochlorococcus-Alteromonas* co-cultures over three transfers spanning ~1.2 years (E1, E2 and E3). Results show mean + standard error from biological triplicates, colored by *Prochlorococcus* strain as in panel D. C. Axenic *Prochlorococcus* grew exponentially in E1 but failed to grow when transferred into fresh media after 60 days. Axenic *Alteromonas* cultures were counted after 60 and 100 days, as their growth cannot be monitored sensitively and non-invasively using fluorescence (optical density is low at these cell numbers). D. High reproducibility and strain-specific dynamics of the initial contact between *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas* strains (E1). Three biological replicates for each mono-culture and co-culture are shown. Note that the Y axis is linear in panels B, C and logarithmic in panel D.

Differences in co-culture phenotype are related to *Prochlorococcus* and not *Alteromonas* strains and occur primarily during the decline stage

While co-culture with all *Alteromonas* strains had a major effect on *Prochlorococcus* viability during long-term starvation, there was no significant effect of co-culture on traditional metrics of growth such as maximal growth rate, maximal fluorescence and lag phase (with the exception of the previously-described inhibition of MIT9313, Figure 2A,B,C). However, a visual inspection of the growth curves in Figure 1D suggested subtle yet consistent differences in the shape of the growth curve, and especially the decline phase, between the different *Prochlorococcus* strains in the co-cultures. To test this, we used the growth curves as input for a Principal Component Analysis (PCA), revealing that the growth curves from each *Prochlorococcus* strain clustered together, regardless of which *Alteromonas* strain they were co-cultured with (Figure 2D). The growth curves of all high-light adapted strains (MED4, MIT9312 and MIT0604) were relatively similar, the low-light I strain NATL2A was somewhat distinct, and the low-light IV strain MIT9313

was a clear outlier (Figure 1D), consistent with this strain being the only one initially inhibited in

all co-cultures. Random Forest Classification (a supervised machine learning algorithm) supported

the observation that the growth curve shapes were affected more by the *Prochlorococcus* rather

than *Alteromonas* strains, and also confirmed the visual observation that most of the features

differentiating between *Prochlorococcus* strains occurred during culture decline (Supplementary

Figure S2, Supplementary Text S1). Thus, co-culture with *Alteromonas* affects the decline stage of

Prochlorococcus in co-culture in a way that differs between *Prochlorococcus* but not *Alteromonas*

strains.

We next asked whether the phenotypes of interaction, which were observed when high cell

densities of *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas* interacted for the first time (E1), were maintained

after the cells had grown together in co culture for extended periods. We therefore continued to

transfer the co-cultures into fresh media over multiple additional transfers, performed 40-200

days after the initial inoculations. In total, FL measurements are available for a cumulative period

of 380 days which the cells spent in co-culture (Figure 1A, Supplementary Figure S1). The ability

of *Prochlorococcus* to survive long-term N starvation, the clustering of the growth curves by

Prochlorococcus but not *Alteromonas* strains, and the results of the Random Forest Classification,

were all reproduced in subsequent transfers (Figure 1B, Supplementary figures S2, S3, S4,

Supplementary Text S2). These observations are thus robust to the cumulative time the organisms

have been interacting and the cell densities of both organisms when transferred to new media

(see below).

Figure 2: Growth analysis and principal component analysis (PCA) of the growth curves from all co-cultures during 140 days of E1. A. Growth rate, Maximum fluorescence and Lag phase during E1. Box-plots represent mean and 75th percentile of co-cultures, circles represent measurements of individual cultures of the axenic controls. The only significant difference between axenic and co-cultures is in the length of the lag phase for MIT9313 (Bonferroni corrected ANOVA, p < 0.001. B. PCA ordination colored by *Prochlorococcus* (left) and by *Alteromonas* (right) strains. The growth curves cluster by *Prochlorococcus* strain (Adonis test, F(4,68) = 42.3, p = 0.001) and only marginally by *Alteromonas* strain (Adonis test, F(4,68) = 2.29, p = 0.017)

Differences in the carrying capacity suggest different modes of interaction

While *Alteromonas* clearly support *Prochlorococcus*, by enabling it to survive long-term N starvation, is the reciprocal interaction also synergistic? Do *Prochlorococcus* enhance the growth of *Alteromonas*, and does the interaction affect the overall carrying capacity of the system, defined here as the ability to efficiently utilize the limiting resource (nitrogen)? To answer these

questions, we used the flow cytometry cell counts of *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas* on days

60, 100 and 140 to infer the nitrogen (N) biomass of each population grown alone or in co-culture

(Figure 3A, Supplementary Table S1, see supplementary text S3 for the calculations and caveats).

The overall carrying capacity of the system was higher than the axenic *Alteromonas* cultures,

and much higher than the axenic *Prochlorococcus* (Figure 3B). On day 60, the mean carrying

capacity of the co-cultures was 2-3 times higher than that of the Axenic *Alteromonas* (69±35

compared with 32±22 µmol N/L), suggesting that the heterotroph benefited from carbon fixed

by the phototrophic *Prochlorococcus* partner. Indeed, most of this cellular N was found in the

Alteromonas cells (76±13%). The ability of axenic *Alteromonas* to survive in the absence of

organic matter from *Prochlorococcus* is not surprising, as an *Alteromonas* strain distantly related

to the ones studied here, AltSIO, can utilize a large fraction of the labile organic material found

in natural seawater used to make the growth media (50). In contrast, in axenic *Prochlorococcus*

cultures only a small fraction of N in the system was found in cell biomass (~0.01 µmol N/L). This

likely reflects the inability of all *Prochlorococcus* strains to recycle organic nitrogen lost due to

exudation or cell lysis (Figure 3B).

However, mutual synergism was not observed across all strain combinations. While some

Prochlorococcus strains (MED4, MIT0604, and NATL2A) supported significantly higher

Alteromonas N biomass compared to the axenic control (log2FC 1.3±0.6), co-cultures with

MIT9312 and MIT9313 resulted in similar or lower *Alteromonas* biomass (log2FC -0.2±0.9) (Figure

3C). Therefore, on day 60, some of the interactions were mutually synergistic whereas in other

cases *Prochlorococcus* do not support *Alteromonas* and may even compete with it. Notably, the

two "non-mutually-synergistic" *Prochlorococcus* strains belong to different ecotypes but were

isolated from the same drop of water from the Gulf Stream (51). In all co-cultures the

Prochlorococcus population benefited from the presence of *Alteromonas* (log2FC 10±4).

In contrast to day 60, after 100 days essentially all of the interactions were mutually synergistic,

with *Alteromonas* supporting the growth of all *Prochlorococcus* strains (log2FC 10±1) and

Prochlorococcus increasing the *Alteromonas* biomass in all strains with the exception of BS11

(log2FC 3±1.5) (figure 3C). This suggests that the mode of interaction (synergist vs competition)

may change temporally during the extended period of N starvation.

On day 140 the carrying capacity of the co-cultures declined further (only 1% of the N was in

biomass). This suggests that the system is not in steady state, with a slow yet constant reduction

in carrying capacity. We speculate that this is driven by the loss of bioavailable N from the system

(i.e., most of the nitrogen is in a recalcitrant form that cannot be utilized by either partner). This

is further supported by the observation that while the co-cultures after 140 days were still alive

and could be transferred to new media. In a subsequent experiment, only 16/30 cultures could

be transferred after 195 days, and only 3/75 cultures could be transferred after 250 days

(Supplementary Figure S5). Notably, MIT0604 (HLII) was the strain most likely to survive transfer

after these extended periods and was also the most abundant *Prochlorococcus* strain after 140

days (1.46±1 µmol N/L MIT0604 biomass vs 0.26±0.56 µmol N/L for all other strains). While we

do not currently have an explanation for the higher survival of this strain, it is noteworthy that it

is the only strain to utilize nitrate (52).

Figure 3: Carrying capacity and type of interactions. A. Growth curves of experiment E1, arrows showing the days where cell numbers were counted by flow cytometry (see also Supplementary Table S1). Axenic curves shown are from all *Prochlorococcus* strains. B. Total calculated N biomass of the cultures in E1 on days 60 and 100 in µmol N/L. Dashed line indicates total available N in co-cultures. C. Log2 Fold Change (FC) of *Alteromonas* N biomass relative to axenic *Alteromonas* controls on days 60 and 100. Asterisks indicate statistically significant FC (Bonferroni corrected ANOVA p < 0.05). ALT: *Alteromonas* PRO: *Prochlorococcus*

Modeling the effect of co-culture on *Prochlorococcus* mortality

Given that the most striking effect of co-culture was on the decline phase of the co-cultures, we asked whether we could quantify and model the effect of *Alteromonas* on *Prochlorococcus* mortality. Importantly, while the growth of bacteria has been extensively studied and modelled, the decline of bacterial cultures is much less studied, and mortality is rarely represented in ecological or biogeochemical models of microbial dynamics (53). Bacterial mortality has, however, often been modelled in the context of food safety and genome evolution, using either mechanistic or descriptive approaches (53–57). We chose to focus on four of these previously-described models which are relatively simple and have a clear biological interpretation (Table 1). The Exponential model is the simplest and most commonly used one , where a constant portion of the population dies over time (58). The Bi-exponential model is slightly more complex, representing two separate subpopulations in the community, each with its own death rate (55). The Weibull model is probabilistic, modeling a heterogeneous population with a diverse stress tolerance (53,59), finally, the Harmonic model employs a quadratic rate of decline which is often associated with predator-prey interactions or cellular encounter rates (58). When fitting each of these models to the decline phase of the growth curves, the Weibull model stands out as it has a low error for both axenic and co-cultures (Table 1) as well as in consequent transfers (Supplementary Table 1, the biexponential model is a better fit for the co-cultures but does not represent well the axenic ones). Based on the Weibull model, and assuming that culture fluorescence is related to the number of non-lysed cells in the media, axenic *Prochlorococcus* cells die more than ten-fold faster than cells in co-culture (2-decimal reduction time, td_2, is 12.58 ± 3.85 days for axenic cultures and 316 ± 337 days for co-cultures).

251 **Table 1: Mathematical description and biological interpretation of four models used to describe**

252 **bacterial mortality**

Mathematical model[1]	Derivative	# Params[2]	Physiological Interpretation	Axenic RMSE [3] (n=13)	Co-culture RMSE (n=343)	Reference
Exponential $X = X_0\, e^{-a\,t}$	$\frac{dX}{dt} = -aX$	1	Constant ratio of the population dies in each time point	0.26 ± 0.11	0.29 ± 0.21	(58)
Bi-Exponential $X = X_0(f\,e^{-a_1 t} + (1-f)\,e^{-a_2 t})$	$\frac{dX}{dt} = -f a_1 X_1$ $- (1-f)\,a_2 X_2$	3	Two subpopulations with different persistence under stress and death rates	0.26 ± 0.11	0.16 ± 0.12	(55)
Harmonic $X = X_0\, \frac{1}{1+a\,t}$	$\frac{dX}{dt} = -a\,X^2$	1	Quadratic mortality rate – dependence on cell-cell encounters	0.50 ± 0.19	0.19 ± 0.13	(58)
Weibull $X = X_0\, e^{-\frac{t^n}{a}}$	$\frac{dX}{dt} = -c\,t^{n-1}X *$	2	Probabilistic model with a heterogeneous distribution of stress tolerance	0.14 ± 0.08	0.18 ± 0.11	(59)

[1] In the mathematical models, t stands for time since the beginning of culture decline, X and X_0 are the current and initial cell numbers respectively, and the rest of the variables are model parameters (a, f, a_1, a_2, n)

[2] # Params – number of free parameters

[3] RMSE - Root Mean Square Error. Supplementary Table S2 shows also the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), which is less intuitive but takes into account also the number of model parameters.

Figure 4: Weibull modeling of long-term starvation. A. Weibull shape (*n*) in Axenic *Prochlorococcus* (PRO) and in Co-cultures. In all axenic samples *n* > 1, in most co-cultures *n* < 1 (students t-test, p< 0.001). B. Scatter plot showing the reverse correlation between the total N biomass of the co-cultures on day 60 and Weibull shape (*n*). Pearson r = -0.33, p=5e-3. Circles represent co-cultures with mutual synergistic interactions (i.e. *Prochlorococcus* strains MED4, MIT0604 and NATL2A), X represent potential competitive interactions (strains MIT9312, MIT9313). C. Scatter plot showing the correlation between the total N biomass of the co-cultures on day 60 and Weibull root mean square error (RMSE). Pearson r = 0.64, p < 0.001. For the correlations with total N biomass on day 100 see Supplementary Figure S6. D-F. Weibull model fit for selected decline curves. D. Mutually synergistic co-culture of *Prochlorococcus* NATL2A and *Alteromonas* DE1. E. Potentially competitive co-culture of *Prochlorococcus* MIT9312 and *Alteromonas* DE1. F. Axenic *Prochlorococcus* NATL2A

In the Weibull model, the 'shape parameter' (n) represents the change over time in the susceptibility of the bacterial community to stress. A shape parameter above one represents an increasing probability that cells will die as time increases (e.g. due to the accumulation of damage), whereas a shape parameter below one suggests that, as the culture declines, the cells become more resistant to damage. Axenic cultures have high mean shape value of 2.1 ± 0.9,

suggesting an accumulation of cell damage leading to increasing death rate (Figure 4A). In

contrast, the mean shape value of co-cultures is significantly lower and below 1 (0.4 ± 0.2, student

t-test, p< 0.001), suggesting that during N starvation in co-culture the *Prochlorococcus* cells are

acclimating over time to the nutrient stress conditions.

While the molecular and physiological mechanisms of *Prochlorococcus* adaptation are currently

unclear, the Weibull shape parameter decreases as the total N in cellular biomass increases,

suggesting that the *Prochlorococcus* acclimation process is related to the ability to recycle N

between the specific *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas* strains in co-culture (Figure 4B). Thus, the

rate of acclimation is higher in the co-cultures supporting high N biomass and mutually synergistic

interaction (NATL2A, MED4 and MIT0604) compared to MIT9312 and MIT9313, where

Alteromonas do not gain from the interaction (0.36±0.14 vs 0.52±0.16, t-test p < 0.001).

While the Weibull model is useful in quantifying mortality rates and raising the hypothesis that

Prochlorococcus cells are acclimating to starvation over time, none of the tested models was able

to fully capture the intricate dynamics of culture decline (Figure 4C, D). In most mutually

synergistic co-cultures involving *Prochlorococcus* strains NATL2A, MED4 and MIT0604, culture

decline was not monotonic, and was interrupted by additional growth phases about 40-50 and

100 days after the cultures started declining (Figure 4D). These latter growth phases were mostly

absent in co-cultures with MIT9312 and MIT9313 (RMSE 0.2±0.1 vs 0.36±0.1 in the other strains,

t-test p < 0.001). The correlation between N biomass and the secondary growth phases (i.e.,

higher deviation from simple Weibull model, Figure 4C) suggest that these phases may also be

related to the ability of the interacting partners to recycle N through mutually-beneficial

metabolic interactions.

282   **Conclusions and Future Prospects**

Elucidating the mechanisms of microbial interactions requires well-characterized model systems.

However, extending the insights from such models across the diversity of organisms and

environmental conditions remains challenging. Our results from the highly-simplified system of

multiple *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas* strains provide an important step towards this goal.

Using the rich information on interaction phenotypes present in the growth and decline curves,

we identify conserved and strain-specific facets of these interactions. Despite the genetic diversity

across the *Alteromonas* strains studied (30), it was primarily the identity of the *Prochlorococcus*

strain that determined the interaction phenotype. This manifests in the growth and decline rates,

in the shape of the curve (primarily the decline phase), in the amount of N retained in biomass

and in whether the co-cultures are mutually synergistic or, potentially, competitive.

Under our laboratory conditions, it is likely that the combined response of both interacting

partners to nitrogen starvation underlies the dynamics of the long-term co-cultures, although

other stressors such as the increase in osmolarity/salinity or the accumulation of waste products

cannot be ruled out (18,34,60). This response is dynamic, as illustrated by the reproducible

deviations of the fluorescence curves from the monotonic decline predicted by all models tested

("second growth" stages, Figure 4). Three different (non-mutually-exclusive) processes may

underlie these dynamics. Firstly, it is likely that one or both organisms modify their physiology or

metabolism over time, for example through the activation of stringent responses, utilization of N

or C storage pools, rewiring of metabolism to utilize available N sources or activation of

mechanisms such as extracellular enzymes allowing the cells to access previously unusable

substrates (e.g. (61,62)). Secondly, it is possible that there are "invisible" ecological dynamics

underlying the observed fluorescence curves, for example cyclic changes in the abundance of

Alteromonas cells. Under such a scenario, rapid *Prochlorococcus* mortality could produce an

increase in *Alteromonas* abundance, resulting in degradation and remineralization of dead

Prochlorococcus biomass and the release of resources that can drive subsequent *Prochlorococcus*

growth. Finally, both *Prochlorococcus* and *Alteromonas* populations may be evolving, for example

through emergence of genetically-distinct populations better adapted to nutrient starvation

(reminiscent of the GASP phenotype described in *E. coli* and other bacteria (63)).

Why is it the identity of the primary producer (*Prochlorococcus*) rather than the heterotrophic

"recycler" (*Alteromonas*) that determines the outcome of the co-culture? *A-priori*, it was

reasonable to assume that the co-culture phenotype would be affected by the differences

between the *Alteromonas* strains in their ability to degrade and utilize polysaccharides and a

variety of other organic molecule (30,64). We speculate that the increased growth of *Alteromonas*

in the co-cultures compared to the axenic ones is fueled primarily by the availability of major

biomass components released by *Prochlorococcus* as they die, such as proteins, amino acids and

nucleotides. Such common macromolecules do not require highly specialized metabolic processes

to degrade and utilize, and hence can be utilized by all of the *Alteromonas* strains (65). It is

possible that the differences between *Alteromonas* strains may manifest when more complex

macromolecules are available, e.g. from plant material, or when all of the "easy to digest" (labile)

organic matter has been utilized and only complex macromolecules remain (66). These conditions

may not have been met in our experiments. Similarly, we currently do not know why some

Prochlorococcus strains support a mutually-synergistic interaction with *Alteromonas* relatively

early during the long-term N starvation (day 60) whereas other strains do not, and why at a later

stage (day 100) almost all interactions are mutually beneficial. We could not identify any

metabolic traits (11) clearly differentiating MIT9313 and MIT9312 (the "competitive" strains) from

the others, suggesting more subtle differences exist between the *Prochlorococcus* strains in the

organic matter they produce or in their response to N starvation (e.g. (67,68)).

Our results identify patterns in the interactions between clades of abundant marine phototrophs

and heterotrophs, under conditions where nutrients are scarce, and their availability likely

depends on recycling between phototrophs and heterotrophs. Whether or not such mechanisms

may be physiologically relevant in the oligotrophic ocean, much of which is N-stressed (40),

remains to be tested (conditions in laboratory batch cultures are very different from those in the

nutrient-poor ocean). It is, however, noteworthy that the high heterotroph/phototroph biomass

ratio observed during long-term N starvation here and in other studies (18) is similar to that of

much of the open oligotrophic ocean (e.g. (69)) and references therein). Furthermore,

Alteromonas may allow *Prochlorococcus* to adapt to light starvation (42) and to the presence of

ROS (e.g. (70)), other stressors that can be encountered in the open ocean. However, the

supportive role of *Alteromonas* cannot be taken for granted, as it also depends on culture

conditions, for example CO_2 concentrations (27).

Finally, the co-cultures did not reach a steady state, and did not represent a closed system. Thus,

processes not represented in these simplified laboratory co-cultures, are necessary to explain the

long-term stability over decades of *Prochlorococcus* in the oceans (71). Such processes could

include multi-organism interactions, as natural communities are much more complex than the

laboratory co-cultures, as well as oceanographic processes such as nutrient injection through

deep mixing. More generally, cell mortality is intimately linked with the amount and type of

recycled organic matter, yet the rate of mortality in natural communities is highly unconstrained

(72). Hence, better representation of mortality in mathematical models (e.g. the use of

appropriate mortality formulations) is likely important for understanding biogeochemical cycles

(72). This study is a reminder that bacterial growth curves represent an information-rich

representation of the life and death of cells, which can be mined to identify potential physiological

changes of ecological relevance.

Materials and Methods

Strains and experiment set up

Axenic *Prochlorococcus* strains MED4 (HLI), MIT9312 (HLII), MIT0604 (HLII), NATL2A (LLI) and

MIT9313 (LLIV) were maintained under constant cold while light (27 µmole photons $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) at

22ºC (12,73). We used Pro99 media that was modified by reducing the concentration of NH_4 from

800µm to 100µm (Pro99-LowN), resulting in *Prochlorococcus* entering stationary stage due to the

depletion of available inorganic N (74). *Alteromonas* strains HOT1A3, Black sea 11, ATCC27126,

AltDE1 and AltDE were maintained in ProMM media (43). Prior to the experiment, the axenicity

of the *Prochlorococcus* cultures was tested by inoculating 1 ml culture into 15 ml ProMM (73). At

the start of each co-culture experiment, *Alteromonas* cells from stationary-stage cultures (24-72

hour old) were centrifuged (10 minutes, room temperature, 10,000g), the growth media

decanted, and the cells re-suspended in Pro99-LowN. The *Prochlorococcus* cultures (growing

exponentially) and the re-suspended *Alteromonas* cells were then counted using BD FACSCanto™

II Flow Cytometry Analyzer Systems (BD Biosciences). For each co-culture, $1x10^6$ *Prochlorococcus*

cells mixed with $1x10^7$ *Alteromonas* cells. For mono-cultures, $1x10^6$ and $1x10^7$ were added for

Prochlorococcus and *Alteromonas*, respectively. The experiment was performed using triplicate

20ml cultures in borosilicate test tubes (2.5cm diameter, 15cm length).

Fluorescence and Flow cytometry

Bulk chlorophyll fluorescence (FL) (ex440; em680) was measured almost daily using a

Fluorescence Spectrophotometer (Cary Eclipse, Varian). Samples for flow cytometry were taken

after 60, 100 and 140 days of experiment E1, fixed with glutaraldehyde (0.125% final

concentration), incubated in the dark for 10 min and stored in -80 °C until analysis. 2 µm diameter

fluorescent beads (Polysciences, Warminster, PA, USA) were added as an internal standard. Data

was acquired and processed with FlowJo software. Flow cytometry was performed unstained to

count *Prochlorococcus* cells followed by staining with SYBR Green I (Molecular Probes/

ThermoFisher) to count *Alteromonas* cells.

383   Growth rate

384   Growth was computed - by solving the equation:

385                             $N_t = N_0\, e^{\mu(t-L)}$

386   Where N_t represents the number of cells at time t, N_0 is the initial number of cells, μ is the growth

387   rate, and L is the growth lag. The LAN transformed equation was used to compute growth rate:

388                     $\ln(N_t) = \ln(N_0) + \mu(t - L)$

389   Linear regression was run on the growth phase, predicting $\ln(N_t)$ based on time t with $R^2 > 0.9$.

390   The growth rate μ is the regression coefficient.

391   Fit to Decline models

The following functions were used to fit against the measured fluorescence:

Exponential: $FL_t = FL_{max}\, e^{-a(t-t_{max})}$

Bi-exponential: $FL_t = FL_{max}(f\, e^{-a_1(t-t_{max})} + (1-f)\, e^{-a_2\,(t-t_{max})})$

Harmonic: $FL_t = FL_{max}\frac{1}{1+a\,t}$

Weibull: $FL_t = FL_{max}\, e^{-a\,t^n}$

Where FL_t is the Fluorescence measured at time t, FL_{max} is the maximum fluorescence

measured, t_{max} is the time when the fluorescence was highest, and *a, a1, a2, n, f* are the model

parameters estimated by the fitting function.

The decline function was fit against each growth curve via curve_fit() function from scipy package

(1.3.0), using the parameters: method='dogbox', loss='soft_l1', f_scale=0.1. Each model was fit

using random initial parameter values and the initial values of 0.5 per parameter, and the fit with

the lowest RSME selected. Goodness of fit was measures using root mean square error (RMSE).

In the Weibull model the time needed to reduce the population by d factors of 10 (t_{d2}) was

estimated as in (59), using the formula:

$$t_d \ = \ a \, (-ln(10^{-d})^{\frac{1}{n}})$$

Random Forest Classification

To detect difference in the curve pattern and not timing specific differences, the curves were

aligned such that max growth point are at time zero, and time points from 10 days prior to max

growth to 80 days after were selected. Since the specific measurement time points were different

in different experiments and samples, rolling average was used to get mean fluorescence per day,

and interpolation used to fill in missing measurements. The Fluorescence measurements were

standardized via standard scalar by subtracting the mean and scaling to unit variance of each

feature. Random Forest model was run in 10x cross validation to classify the curves by

Prochlorococcus and by *Alteromonas* strains. To find the most significant days in *Prochlorococcus*

classification, the model was built 30 times and the mean importance of all features (i.e.,

measurement days) calculated. Data preprocessing was done by pandas (0.25.0). Scaling and

model fitting using sklearn (0.21.2).

PCA ordination

PCA ordination was run on the growth curves. The fluorescence measurements were standardized

via standard scalar by subtracting the mean and scaling to unit variance of each feature.

Ordination was computed via principal component analysis (PCA). Data preprocessing was done

by pandas (0.25.0). Scaling and PCA was done using sklearn (0.21.2).

Statistics

Statistics were computed using the statsmodels package in python. Multi test correction was done

by t_test_pairwise() using Bonferroni correction. Permanova analysis by adonis2 from R vegan

package (R 3.61, vegan 2.5-7).

Acknowledgements

We thank Sher lab members and especially Natalie Andrawes for help in fluorescence measurements and Daniel Segrè, Hans-Peter Grossart, Zhen Wu and Tal Luzzatto Knaan for critical reading of the manuscript. This work was supported by the Human Frontiers Science Program (grant RGP0020/2016, to DS) and the U.S.-Israel Binational Science Foundation (BSF) - U.S. National Science Foundation (NSF) program in Oceanography (grant 1635070/2016532, to DS). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests

References

1. Gralka M, Szabo R, Stocker R, Cordero OX. Trophic Interactions and the Drivers of Microbial Community Assembly. Curr Biol [Internet]. 2020;30(19):R1176–88. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2020.08.007

2. Fritts RK, McCully AL, McKinlay JB. Extracellular Metabolism Sets the Table for Microbial Cross-Feeding. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 2021;85(1).

3. Weisskopf L, Schulz S, Garbeva P. Microbial volatile organic compounds in intra-kingdom and inter-kingdom interactions. Nat Rev Microbiol [Internet]. 2021;19(6):391–404. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41579-020-00508-1

4. Harrington V, Lau L, Seddu K, Suez J. Ecology and Medicine Converge at the Microbiome-Host. mSystems [Internet]. 2021;6(4):4–8. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1128/mSystems .00756-21

5. Long RA, Azam F. Microscale patchiness of bacterioplankton assemblage richness in seawater. Aquat Microb Ecol. 2001;26(2):103–13.

6. Cordero OX, Wildschutte H, Kirkup B, Proehl S, Ngo L, Hussain F, et al. Ecological Populations of BacteriaAct as Socially Cohesive Units ofAntibiotic Production and Resistance. Science [Internet]. 2012;337(September):1228–31. Available from: http://www.sciencemag.org/content/337/6099/1228.full.pdf%5Cnhttp://www.ncbi.nlm. nih.gov/pubmed/22955834

7. Grossart HP, Simon M. Interactions of planktonic algae and bacteria: Effects on algal growth and organic matter dynamics. Aquat Microb Ecol. 2007;47(2):163–76.

8. Segev E, Wyche TP, Kim KH, Petersen J, Ellebrandt C, Vlamakis H, et al. Dynamic metabolic exchange governs a marine algal-bacterial interaction. Elife.

2016;5(NOVEMBER2016):1–28.

9.   Seyedsayamdost MR, Case RJ, Kolter R, Clardy J. The Jekyll-and-Hyde chemistry of
phaeobacter gallaeciensis. Nat Chem. 2011;3(4):331–5.

10.   Antoniewicz MR. A guide to deciphering microbial interactions and metabolic fluxes in
microbiome communities. Curr Opin Biotechnol [Internet]. 2020;64:230–7. Available
from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2020.07.001

11.   Zoccarato L, Sher D, Miki T, Segrè D, Grossart H-P. A comparative whole-genome
approach identifies bacterial traits for marine microbial interactions. Commun Biol.
2022;5(1):1–13.

12.   Sher D, Thompson JW, Kashtan N, Croal L, Chisholm SW. Response of *Prochlorococcus*
ecotypes to co-culture with diverse marine bacteria. ISME J. 2011;5(7):1125–32.

13.   Warringer J, Anevski D, Liu B, Blomberg A. Chemogenetic fingerprinting by analysis of
cellular growth dynamics. BMC Chem Biol. 2008;8:1–10.

14.   Monod J. The growth of bacterial cultures. Annu Rev M. 1949;3(Xl):371–94.

15.   Foster KR, Bell T. Competition, not cooperation, dominates interactions among culturable
microbial species. Curr Biol [Internet]. 2012;22(19):1845–50. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2012.08.005

16.   Pacheco AR, Osborne ML, Segrè D. Non-additive microbial community responses to
environmental complexity. Nat Commun [Internet]. 2021;12(1):1–11. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-22426-3

17.   Vetsigian K, Jajoo R, Kishony R. Structure and evolution of streptomyces interaction
networks in soil and in silico. PLoS Biol. 2011;9(10).

18.   Christie-Oleza JA, Sousoni D, Lloyd M, Armengaud J, Scanlan DJ. Nutrient recycling
facilitates long-term stability of marine microbial phototroph-heterotroph interactions.
Nat Microbiol [Internet]. 2017;2(June). Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nmicrobiol.2017.100

19.   Ratzke C, Gore J. Modifying and reacting to the environmental pH drives bacterial
interactions. Modifying React to Environ pH can drive Bact Interact. 2017;136838.

20.   Grossart HP. Interactions between marine bacteria and axenic diatoms (*Cylindrotheca*
fusiformis, *Nitzschia laevis*, and *Thalassiosira weissflogii*) incubated under various
conditions in the lab. Aquat Microb Ecol. 1999;19(1):1–11.

21.   Field CB, Behrenfeld MJ, Randerson JT, Falkowski P. Primary production of the biosphere:
Integrating terrestrial and oceanic components. Science (80-). 1998;281(5374):237–40.

22.   Cole JJ. Interaction between bacteria and alge in aquatic ecosystems. Ann Rev Ecol Syst.
1982;13:291–314.

23.   Seymour JR, Amin SA, Raina JB, Stocker R. Zooming in on the phycosphere: The ecological
interface for phytoplankton-bacteria relationships. Nat Microbiol. 2017;2(May).

24.   Ramanan R, Kim BH, Cho DH, Oh HM, Kim HS. Algae-bacteria interactions: Evolution,
ecology and emerging applications. Biotechnol Adv [Internet]. 2016;34(1):14–29.
Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2015.12.003

25.   Cirri E, Pohnert G. Algae–bacteria interactions that balance the planktonic microbiome.
New Phytol. 2019;223(1):100–6.

26.   Morris JJ, Lenski RE, Zinser ER. The black queen hypothesis: Evolution of dependencies
through adaptive gene loss. MBio. 2012;3(2):1–7.

27.   Hennon GM, Morris JJ, Haley ST, Zinser ER, Durrant AR, Entwistle E, et al. The impact of
elevated CO_2 on *Prochlorococcus* and microbial interactions with â € helper' bacterium
Alteromonas. ISME J [Internet]. 2018;12(2):520–31. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2017.189

28.   Biller SJ, Berube PM, Lindell D, Chisholm SW. *Prochlorococcus*: The structure and function
of collective diversity. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2015;13(1):13–27.

29.   López-Pérez M, Rodriguez-Valera F. Pangenome evolution in themarine bacterium
Alteromonas. Genome Biol Evol. 2016;8(5):1556–70.

30.   Koch H, Germscheid N, Freese HM, Noriega-Ortega B, Lücking D, Berger M, et al.
Genomic, metabolic and phenotypic variability shapes ecological differentiation and
intraspecies interactions of *Alteromonas macleodii*. Sci Rep. 2020;10(1):1–14.

31.   Hou S, López-Pérez M, Pfreundt U, Belkin N, Stüber K, Huettel B, et al. Benefit from
decline: The primary transcriptome of *Alteromonas macleodii* str. Te101 during
Trichodesmium demise. ISME J [Internet]. 2018;12(4):981–96. Available from:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41396-017-0034-4

32.   Aharonovich D, Sher D. Transcriptional response of *Prochlorococcus* to co-culture with a
marine *Alteromonas*: Differences between strains and the involvement of putative
infochemicals. ISME J. 2016;10(12):2892–906.

33.   Roth-Rosenberg D, Aharonovich D, Luzzatto-Knaan T, Vogts A, Zoccarato L, Eigemann F,
et al. *Prochlorococcus* cells rely on microbial interactions rather than on chlorotic resting
stages to survive long-term nutrient starvation. MBio. 2020;11(4):1–13.

34.   Morris JJ, Johnson ZI, Szul MJ, Keller M, Zinser ER. Dependence of the cyanobacterium
Prochlorococcus on hydrogen peroxide scavenging microbes for growth at the ocean's
surface. PLoS One. 2011;6(2).

35.   Diner RE, Schwenck SM, McCrow JP, Zheng H, Allen AE. Genetic manipulation of
competition for nitrate between heterotrophic bacteria and diatoms. Front Microbiol.
2016;7(JUN).

36.   Biller SJ, Coe A, Chisholm SW. Torn apart and reunited: Impact of a heterotroph on the
transcriptome of *Prochlorococcus*. ISME J. 2016;10(12):2831–43.

37.   Zheng Q, Wang Y, Lu J, Lin W, Chen F, Jiao N. Metagenomic and metaproteomic insights
into photoautotrophic and heterotrophic interactions in a *Synechococcus* culture. MBio.
2020;11(1).

38.   Calfee BC, Glasgo LD, Zinser ER. *Prochlorococcus* Exudate Stimulates Heterotrophic
Bacterial Competition with Rival Phytoplankton for Available Nitrogen . MBio.
2022;13(1).

39.   Amin SA, Hmelo LR, Van Tol HM, Durham BP, Carlson LT, Heal KR, et al. Interaction and
signalling between a cosmopolitan phytoplankton and associated bacteria. Nature.
2015;522(7554):98–101.

40.   Ustick LJ, Larkin AA, Garcia CA, Garcia NS, Brock ML, Lee JA, et al. Metagenomic analysis
reveals global-scale patterns of ocean nutrient limitation. Science (80-).
2021;372(6539):287–91.

41.   Saito MA, McIlvin MR, Moran DM, Goepfert TJ, DiTullio GR, Post AF, et al. Multiple
nutrient stresses at intersecting Pacific Ocean biomes detected by protein biomarkers.
Science (80-). 2014;345(6201):1173–7.

42.   Coe A, Ghizzoni J, LeGault K, Biller S, Roggensack SE, Chisholm SW. Survival of
Prochlorococcus in extended darkness. Limnol Oceanogr. 2016;61(4):1375–88.

43.   Morris JJ, Kirkegaard R, Szul MJ, Johnson ZI, Zinser ER. Facilitation of robust growth of
Prochlorococcus colonies and dilute liquid cultures by "helper" heterotrophic bacteria.
Appl Environ Microbiol. 2008;74(14):4530–4.

44.   Ting CS, Hsieh C, Sundararaman S, Mannella C, Marko M. Cryo-electron tomography
reveals the comparative three-dimensional architecture of *Prochlorococcus*, a globally
important marine cyanobacterium. J Bacteriol. 2007;189(12):4485–93.

45.   Klähn S, Steglich C, Hess WR, Hagemann M. Glucosylglycerate: A secondary compatible
solute common to marine cyanobacteria from nitrogen-poor environments. Environ
Microbiol. 2010;12(1):83–94.
46.   Cubillos-Ruiz A, Berta-Thompson JW, Becker JW, Van Der Donk WA, Chisholm SW.
Evolutionary radiation of lanthipeptides in marine cyanobacteria. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S
A. 2017;114(27):E5424–33.
47.   Li B, Sher D, Kelly L, Shi Y, Huang K, Knerr PJ, et al. Catalytic promiscuity in the
biosynthesis of cyclic peptide secondary metabolites in planktonic marine cyanobacteria.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2010;107(23):10430–5.
48.   Yelton AP, Acinas SG, Sunagawa S, Bork P, Pedrós-Alió C, Chisholm SW. Global genetic
capacity for mixotrophy in marine picocyanobacteria. ISME J. 2016;10(12):2946–57.
49.   Kettler GC, Martiny AC, Huang K, Zucker J, Coleman ML, Rodrigue S, et al. Patterns and
implications of gene gain and loss in the evolution of *Prochlorococcus*. PLoS Genet.
2007;3(12):2515–28.
50.   Pedler BE, Aluwihare LI, Azam F. Single bacterial strain capable of significant contribution
to carbon cycling in the surface ocean. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2014;111(20):7202–7.
51.   LR Moore, G Rocap, SW Chisholm. Physiology and molecular phylogeny of coexisting
Prochlorococcus ecotypes. Nature. 1998;393(0):464–7.
52.   Hackl T, Laurenceau R, Ankenbrand MJ, Bliem C, Cariani Z, Thomas E, et al. Novel
Integrative Elements and Genomic Plasticity in Ocean Ecosystems. SSRN Electron J. 2021;
53.   Shoemaker WR, Jones SE, Muscarella ME, Behringer MG, Lehmkuhl BK, Lennon JT.
Microbial population dynamics and evolutionary outcomes under extreme energy
limitation. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2021;118(33):1–8.
54.   Brouwer AF, Eisenberg MC, Remais J V., Collender PA, Meza R, Eisenberg JNS. Modeling
Biphasic Environmental Decay of Pathogens and Implications for Risk Analysis. Environ
Sci Technol. 2017;51(4):2186–96.
55.   Crane SR, Moore JA. Modeling enteric bacterial die-off: A review. Water, Air, Soil Pollut.
1986;27(3–4):411–39.
56.   Finkel SE, Kolter R. Evolution of microbial diversity during prolonged starvation. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A. 1999;96(7):4023–7.
57.   Patra P, Klumpp S. Population Dynamics of Bacterial Persistence. PLoS One. 2013;8(5).
58.   Pruitt KM, Kamau DN. Mathematical models of bacterial growth, inhibition and death
under combined stress conditions. J Ind Microbiol. 1993;12(3–5):221–31.
59.   Van Boekel MAJS. On the use of the Weibull model to describe thermal inactivation of
microbial vegetative cells. Int J Food Microbiol. 2002;74(1–2):139–59.
60.   Aguilo-Ferretjans M del M, Bosch R, Puxty RJ, Latva M, Zadjelovic V, Chhun A, et al. Pili
allow dominant marine cyanobacteria to avoid sinking and evade predation. Nat
Commun [Internet]. 2021;12(1):1–10. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41467-
021-22152-w
61.   Hood RD, Higgins SA, Flamholz A, Nichols RJ, Savage DF. The stringent response regulates
adaptation to darkness in the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus elongatus*. Proc Natl Acad
Sci U S A. 2016;113(33):E4867–76.
62.   Bergkessel M, Basta DW, Newman DK. The physiology of growth arrest: Uniting
molecular and environmental microbiology. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2016;14(9):549–62.
63.   Finkel SE. Long-term survival during stationary phase: evolution and the GASP
phenotype. Nat Rev Microbiol [Internet]. 2006;4(2):113–20. Available from:
https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro1340
64.   Koch H, Dürwald A, Schweder T, Noriega-Ortega B, Vidal-Melgosa S, Hehemann JH, et al.

Biphasic cellular adaptations and ecological implications of *Alteromonas macleodii* degrading a mixture of algal polysaccharides. ISME J [Internet]. 2019;13(1):92–103. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41396-018-0252-4

65. Forchielli E, Sher D, Segrè D. Metabolic phenotyping of marine heterotrophs on refactored media reveals diverse metabolic adaptations and lifestyle strategies. bioRxiv [Internet]. 2022;2022.01.07.475430. Available from: https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2022.01.07.475430v2%0Ahttps://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2022.01.07.475430v2.abstract%0Ahttp://biorxiv.org/content/early/2022/01/09/2022.01.07.475430.abstract

66. Teeling H, Fuchs BM, Becher D, Klockow C, Gardebrecht A, Bennke CM, et al. Substrate-controlled succession of marine bacterioplankton populations induced by a phytoplankton bloom. Science (80-). 2012;336(6081):608–11.

67. Becker JW, Berube PM, Follett CL, Waterbury JB, Chisholm SW, DeLong EF, et al. Closely related phytoplankton species produce similar suites of dissolved organic matter. Front Microbiol. 2014;5(MAR):1–14.

68. Domínguez-Martín MA, López-Lozano A, Clavería-Gimeno R, Velázquez-Campoy A, Seidel G, Burkovski A, et al. Differential NtcA responsiveness to 2-oxoglutarate underlies the diversity of C/N balance regulation in *Prochlorococcus*. Front Microbiol. 2018;8(JAN):1–16.

69. Reich T, Ben-Ezra T, Belkin N, Tsemel A, Aharonovich D, Roth-Rosenberg D, et al. A year in the life of the Eastern Mediterranean: Monthly dynamics of phytoplankton and bacterioplankton in an ultra-oligotrophic sea. Deep Res Part I Oceanogr Res Pap [Internet]. 2022;182(February):103720. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2022.103720

70. Ma L, Calfee BC, Morris JJ, Johnson ZI, Zinser ER. Degradation of hydrogen peroxide at the ocean's surface: The influence of the microbial community on the realized thermal niche of *Prochlorococcus*. ISME J [Internet]. 2018;12(2):473–84. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2017.182

71. Malmstrom RR, Coe A, Kettler GC, Martiny AC, Frias-Lopez J, Zinser ER, et al. Temporal dynamics of *Prochlorococcus* ecotypes in the Atlantic and pacific oceans. ISME J. 2010;4(10):1252–64.

72. Beckett SJ, Demory D, Coenen AR, Casey JR, Dugenne M, Follett CL, et al. Diel population dynamics and mortality of *Prochlorococcus* in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre. 2021;1–20.

73. Moore LR, Coe A, Zinser ER, Saito MA, Sullivan MB, Lindell D, et al. Culturing the marine cyanobacterium *Prochlorococcus*. Limnol Oceanogr Methods. 2007;5(OCT):353–62.

74. Grossowicz M, Roth-Rosenberg D, Aharonovich D, Silverman J, Follows MJ, Sher D. *Prochlorococcus* in the lab and in silico: The importance of representing exudation. Limnol Oceanogr. 2017;62(2):818–35.