An Interplay of Phytoplankton Donor Species and Transformation of Released

Compounds over Time Defines Bacterial Communities Following Phytoplankton

DOMp Pulses

Running title: short-term determination of bacteria by phytoplankton

Falk Eigemann[a,b#], Eyal Rahav[c], Hans-Peter Grossart[d,e], Dikla Aharonovich[f], Maren

Voss[b], Daniel Sher[f]

[a]Water quality engineering, Technical University of Berlin, Germany, [b]Leibniz-Institute

for Baltic Sea Research, Warnemuende, Germany, [c]Israel Oceanographic and

Limnological Research, Haifa, Israel, [d]Leibniz-Institute of Freshwater Ecology and

Inland Fisheries, Berlin, Germany, [e]Potsdam University, Potsdam Germany, [f]Leon H.

Charney School of Marine Sciences, University Haifa, Israel

#Corresponding author: Falk Eigemann, Straße des 17 Juni 135, KF 305, 10623

Berlin, Germany, Tel.: +49-30-31425058, Fax: +49-30-31479621, eigemann@tu-

berlin.de

ABSTRACT

Phytoplankton-bacteria interactions are stimulated by phytoplankton-released

dissolved organic matter (DOMp). Two factors that shape the accompanying

bacterial community are i) the "donor" phytoplankton species, defining the initial

composition of released DOMp, and ii) the DOMp transformation over time. We

added phytoplankton DOMp from two globally abundant species - the diatom

Skeletonema marinoi and the cyanobacterium *Prochlorococcus* MIT9312 - to natural

bacterial communities in the Eastern Mediterranean and determined the bacterial

responses over a time-course of 72 h in terms of cell numbers, bacterial production

(BP), alkaline phosphatase activity (APA), and changes in active bacterial community

compositions based on rRNA amplicon sequencing. Both DOMp types were

demonstrated to serve the bacterial community as carbon and potentially phosphorus

source. Diatom-derived DOM induced higher BP and lower APA compared to

cyanobacterium DOM after 24 h, but not after 48 and 72 h of incubation, and also

maintained higher Shannon diversities over the course of the experiment, indicating a

better bacterial accessibility and broader disposability of diatom derived DOM.

Bacterial communities significantly differed between DOMp types as well as different

incubation times, pointing to a certain bacterial specificity for the DOMp donor as well

as a successive utilization of phytoplankton DOM by different bacterial taxa. The

highest differences in bacterial community composition with DOMp types occurred

shortly after DOMp additions, suggesting a high specificity towards highly

bioavailable DOMp compounds. We conclude that phytoplankton associated

bacterial communities are strongly shaped by an interplay between phytoplankton

donor and the transformation of its released DOMp over time.

IMPORTANCE

Phytoplankton-bacteria interactions maintain biogeochemical cycles of global

importance. Phytoplankton photosynthetically fix carbon dioxide and subsequently

release the synthesized compounds as dissolved organic matter (DOMp), which

becomes processed and recycled by heterotrophic bacteria. Yet, the combined effect

of the phytoplankton donor species and time-dependent transformation of DOMp

compounds on the accessibility to the bacterial community has not been explored

until now. The diatom *Skeletonema marinoi* and the cyanobacterium

Prochlorococcus MIT9312 are globally important phytoplankton species, and our

study revealed that DOMp of both species was selectively incorporated by the

bacterial community. The donor species had the highest impact shortly after DOMp

appropriation, and its effect diminished over time. Our results significantly improve

the understanding of biogeochemical cycles between phytoplankton and bacteria,

and solve yet unresolved questions of phytoplankton-bacteria interactions.

KEYWORDS *Skeletonema*, *Prochlorococcus*, phytoplankton DOMp, phytoplankton-

bacteria interactions, dissolved organic matter

INTRODUCTION

Phytoplankton is responsible for ~50% of the photosynthesis on Earth (1), but a high

fraction of the afore photosynthetically fixed carbon is liberated shortly after the

buildup (2) in the form of dissolved organic matter (DOMp). The released DOMp

serves marine heterotrophic bacteria as energy and carbon (C) source (3), but also

contains nutrients such as nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P), which are likewise

consumed and recycled by bacteria (4-7). Hence, interactions between

phytoplankton and bacteria are crucial for the functioning of aquatic systems (8-13)

and shape biogeochemical cycles at a global scale (2, 11, 14). Different

phytoplankton groups and species have different biochemical compositions (15-17),

and release different types of DOMp (8, 18-21). Diatoms, for instance, produce

especially polysaccharide-rich DOM (22), and diatoms and cyanobacteria own

different ratios of specific amino acids in their released DOMp (23, 24). Such differing

compositions engender different availabilities of carbon and nutrients, which, in turn

may impact the accompanying bacterial community. Indeed, the phytoplankton host

species may drive bacterial community dynamics (24-27) and shape the

accompanying bacterial community (15, 28-30). The magnitude of interference of the

phytoplankton host species on DOM utilization of the accompanying bacterial

community, however, is still subject of debate. Earlier experiments with DOMp

addition derived from cyanobacteria and diatoms revealed overall highly similar

transcriptomic profiles of bacteria (31), and the two contrasting phytoplankton groups

sometimes trigger the same bacterial communities in bloom events (28). On the other

hand, only one out of many *Prochlorococcus* strains could meet the unique glycine

requirements of SAR11 (32), and in the before mentioned studies, some bacteria

were specialized in either cyanobacteria or diatom derived DOM (31), and responsive

bacteria differed between other bloom events of diatoms or cyanobacteria (28). A

second aspect that needs to be considered if analyzing bacterial utilization of DOMp

is the temporal transformation of compounds and the concomitant succession of

specific bacterial phyla after DOM pulses (28, 33-35). The DOMp composition

changes with proceeding time from highly bioavailable, mostly low-molecular-weight

(LMW) to less bioavailable, mostly high-molecular-weight (HMW) compounds,

caused by the preferential utilization of labile LMW compounds by bacteria (36).

Analogue to the phytoplankton source specificity of specific bacteria, different

bacteria phyla are specialized in the utilization of different DOMp compounds.

Typically, members of the Flavobacteria are the principle consumers of HMW

compounds, whereas the genetic endowment of the Alphaproteobacterial

Roseobacter clade reflect their preferences for LMW compounds (28, 31, 33, 34).

However, also the same bacterial phyla may adapt to the transformation of DOMp

compounds by changing expression patterns of transporters (37), and various HMW

compounds of the same molecular weight may reveal tremendous differences in their

accessibility due to compositional and structural differences (38).

In a previous set of experiments, we showed that cyanobacteria DOM provide

carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus to accompanying heterotrophic bacteria, and that

the uptake of nitrogen and phosphorus bound to DOMp is preferred over inorganic

forms (7). Here, we further explore how the interplay of DOM donor species and time

after DOMp pulses impact the accompanying bacterial community dynamics.

Therefore, we addressed the following questions: (i) do diatom and cyanobacterium

DOM serve as P and C source in equal measure? (ii) to which magnitude does the

phytoplankton donor species impact the accompanying bacterial community? (iii)

how do bacterial communities change over time following DOMp pulses? (iv) which

are the primary active bacteria in DOMp utilization from both phytoplankton donor

species, and (v) does the specificity of heterotrophic bacteria to the phytoplankton

donor species change with DOMp transformation over time?

In order to begin answering these questions, we performed DOMp addition

experiments with two globally abundant phytoplankton species - the diatom

Skeletonema marinoi and the cyanobacterium *Prochlorococcus* MIT9312 - over a

time-course of 72 h. Diatoms and cyanobacteria are the two primary sources of

marine organic carbon (39), where *Prochlorococcus* contributes up to 8.5% of

oceanic photosynthesis and 50% of surface open-ocean chlorophyll (40), whereas

diatoms execute up to 40% of primary production in coastal areas (41).

RESULTS

Nutrient concentrations

To test for possible nutrient limitations during the course of the experiment, we measured PO_4, NO_x and NH_4 concentrations. PO_4 concentrations were ca. 0.1-0.2 µM in the control and the diatom DOMDOM treatments, whereas ca. 1 µM PO_4 were accidently added with the cyanobacterium DOMDOM. However, neither cyanobacterium DOMDOM treatments with high PO_4 concentration, nor control or diatom DOMDOM treatments showed pronounced changes in PO_4 concentrations over the course of the experiment (Supplemental Fig. 1). NO_x concentrations at the start of the experiment were ~ 2.5 µM and remained constant throughout the entire experiment in control and cyanobacterium DOMDOM treatment, but decreased after 48 and 72 h in the diatom DOMDOM treatment (Supplemental Fig. 1), whereas NH_4 concentrations ranged between 1 and 15 µM but did not reveal obvious trends over time. Nevertheless, control samples showed slightly higher NH_4 concentrations compared to the DOMp (diatom and cyanobacterium) treatments, which were, however, significantly higher only after 24 h of exposure (Supplemental Fig. 1).

Bacterial cell numbers, Bacterial Production and Alkaline Phosphate Activity

Initial bacterial cell numbers of winterly, coastal Mediterranean waters were ca. 2.25 million cells ml^{-1}, and elevated after 24 h of exposure in all treatments, but levelled off to the original value after 48 and 72 h in both DOMp treatments, and decreased to ca. 1.8 million cells ml^{-1} in the control treatment (Fig. 1A).

On the other hand, bulk measurements of bacterial production (BP) increased in all but the control treatments over the course of the experiment, yet differed significantly

between the different treatments at all time-points (Fig. 1B). After 24 h, BP in the

diatom DOM treatment was higher than BP in the controls and the cyanobacterium

DOM treatments, whereas after 48 and 72 h both phytoplankton DOM treatments

yielded similar BP which were significantly higher compared to the control treatment

(Fig. 1B). To test for phosphorus starvation in the individual treatments, we measured

the production of alkaline phosphatase activity (APA). Bulk measurements of APA

yielded lower activity in the DOMp treatments compared to the controls after 48 and

72 h, without any statistical differences between both DOMp donors (Fig. 1C).

However, after 24 h, diatom DOM revealed ca. 4-times lower APA concentrations

compared to the cyanobacterium DOM (Fig. 1C).

Bacterial community responses to DOMp additions

In order to evaluate consequences of different DOMp donors and the succession of

DOMpDOMp on the richness of the active bacterial communities we calculated

Shannon diversities for the individual treatments and time-points. In all samples, the

diversity remained in a narrow margin with values ranging from ca. 5.4 to 6.2 (Fig. 2).

Nevertheless, after 24 and 48 h, samples in the diatom DOM treatments revealed

significantly higher diversities compared to cyanobacterium DOM and control

samples at this time point (Fig. 2). The increased diversity in diatom samples was

consistent also after 72 h of incubation, but not anymore in a significant way

(p=0.055, Supplemental table 2). Next, we asked for shared (generalist) and unique

(specialist) ASVs between treatments at different time-points using Venn analyses. If

shared ASVs between all treatments (control, diatom DOM, cyanobacterium DOM)

were compared with each other, no trend over time was obvious (13%, 22%, 20%

and 20% after 6, 24, 48, and 72 h of incubation, respectively), whereas ASVs that

were only shared between both DOMp treatments (i.e. DOMp generalists) showed a

slight increase over time with shares of 2.3%, 3.5%, 4.3% and 4.4% for 6 h, 24 h, 48

h, and 72 h of incubation, respectively (Supplemental Fig. 2). On the other hand, at

the different time points (6, 14, 48, 72 h) exclusive (i.e. specialist) ASVs in

cyanobacterium (22%, 20%, 20%, and 19%) and diatom (18%, 23%, 26%, and 25%,

respectively) DOMp revealed slightly decreasing (cyanobacterium) and variable

(diatom) trends over time (Supplemental Fig. 2).

We then explored the impact of the different treatments and progressing time on the

active bacterial communities with non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) and

Bray-Curtis dissimilarities. Different treatments (t0, control, diatom DOMs,

cyanobacterium DOMs Fig. 3A) showed significantly different bacterial communities

(ANOSIM, R=0.3, p=0.001), and this difference remained if only bacterial

communities between both DOMp types were compared (ANOSIM, R=0.22, p=0.001,

Fig. 3A). However, if treatments were pooled together and samples grouped into

different incubation times (0 h, 6 h, 24 h, 48 h, and 72 h), significant differences in

communities between the different time-points could be detected (ANOSIM, R=0.4,

p=0.001, Fig. 3A).

In all treatments, time-dependent changes in the active bacterial community were

significantly higher in the first 24 h of exposure (Bray-Curtis dissimilarities between t0

and 6 h as well as between 6 h and 24 h), compared to dissimilarities between later

time-points (Figure 3B). Analogue to comparisons between different time-points in

the same treatments, community differences between different treatments at the

same time point were most pronounced already after 6 h, and the overall highest

difference was obtained between diatom and cyanobacterium DOM treatments (Fig.

3C). The differences between bacterial communities in diatom and cyanobacterium

DOM treatments, however, diminished after 24 h, but successively increased again

after 48 and 72 h (Fig. 3C).

General patterns revealing bacterial community differences between different

treatments and incubation times were confirmed by abundance distributions of the

overall 100 most abundant ASVs (defined as the sums of the subsampled reads for

all samples, Fig. 4). A dendrogram of the ASVs yielded three major clusters, which

were largely driven by the taxonomy, with *Sachharospirillaceae, Spongiispira*, SAR11

and KI89a ASVs in cluster I, *Ascidiaceihabitans, Glaciecola, and Aureimarina* ASVs

dominating cluster II, and a diverse consortium of ASVs (including *Synechococcus*,

Rhodobacteraceae, and others) in cluster III (Fig. 4). However, if the 100 most

abundant ASVs were analysed for the dominant ASVs in the different treatments (t0,

control, cyanobacterium DOMs, diatom DOMs), t0 samples were dominated by ASVs

from SAR11 and *Synechococcus*, whereas 11 ASVs of *Saccharospirillaceae*, one

Spongiispira ASV and one *Glaciecola* ASV dominated the control treatments (Fig. 4,

SupplementalFig. 3). On the other hand, the cyanobacterium DOM treatments were

exclusively dominated by ASVs of *Glaciecola*, whereas two Flavobacteriaceae, one

Ascidiaceihabitans ASV, one SAR11 ASV, and four *Glaciecola* ASVs were

dominating the diatom DOM samples (Fig. 4, Supplemental Fig. 3A). Additional tests

for DOMp generalists, i.e. ASVs that dominate DOMp samples independent of the

donor species (assigned treatments: all samples containing DOMp, t0, control),

yielded 21 *Glaciecola* and two *Flavobacteriaceae* ASVs (Supplemental Fig. 3B). If

different incubation times were analysed for their dominant ASVs, t0 samples were

defined by a broad array of bacterial genera and ASVs, with the phototrophic

Synechococcus, and heterotrophic SAR11, OM43 clade, *Ascidiaceihabitans*,

AEGEAN-169, NS2b, NS4, NS5, and NS9 marine group contributing several ASVs.

Six-hour incubation samples were especially dominated by ASVs of the

Rhodobacteraceae, 24 h incubations solely by *Glaciecola* ASVs, 48 h incubations by

seven ASVs of *Glaciecola* and one ASV from *Pseudoalteromonas*, and the 72 h

incubations by 11 ASVs of Saccharospirillaceae and one *Aureimarina* ASV (Fig. 4,

Supplemental Fig. 3C).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we confirmed the bacterial utilization of DOMp derived from two

phytoplankton primary sources of marine organic matter, i.e. diatoms and

cyanobacteria (39) in coastal waters of the Eastern Mediterranean in winter. We

found similar bacterial responses to diatom and cyanobacteria DOMp additions in

terms of bacterial cell numbers, bacterial production (BP) and alkaline phosphatase

activity (APA). Nevertheless, faster bacterial responses in BP and APA following the

addition of diatom DOMs suggest better accessibility of carbon and phosphorus from

these DOMp compared to cyanobacterium DOMs. Furthermore, via 16S rRNA

sequencing we could demonstrate that different, DOMp-donor specific bacterial

ASVs are active in DOMp utilization. However, the most pronounced differences

between active bacterial communities of both DOMp types were obtained shortly

after DOMp additions (6 h), indicating an important role of donor-specific DOMp

compounds in the highly bioavailable DOMp fraction. We also observed bacterial

community successions over time, which we hypothesize are due to a shift from

ASVs effective in utilization of highly bioavailable, donor-specific DOMp compounds

shortly after the DOMp pulse, towards ASVs specialized on less bioavailable

compounds at the later time points. In summary, we conclude that bacterial

communities experiencing phytoplankton DOMp pulses are relevantly defined by an

interplay between the original DOMp composition and temporal succession in

substrate quality following the DOMp pulse.

Effects of DOMp additions on Bacterial Cell Numbers, Bacterial Production and

Alkaline Phosphatase Activity

We confirmed bacterial utilization of phytoplankton DOMp as carbon source with

measurements of bacterial cell numbers and production (BP) (Fig. 1), and found

indications for phosphorus utilization due to lowered alkaline phosphatase activity

(APA) in DOMp treatments (Fig. 1). Absolute cell-numbers appear to be surprisingly

high for coastal Mediterranean Waters, with ~2.2 million cells ml^{-1} at t0 (Fig. 1A). Yet,

these values correspond well to our previous study in winter (also ~2.2 million cells

ml^{-1} at t0), F. Eigemann et al. (7)), as well as with a time series in the Eastern

Mediterranean (~0.7 – 1.4 million cells ml^{-1} in January/February, O. Raveh et al.

(42)), both sampled from the same station. Likewise, increased BP in both DOMp

treatments corroborated bacterial utilization of phytoplankton derived DOC, with well

corresponding values to O. Raveh et al. (42) (~0.8 – 1.6 µg C h^{-1} l^{-1} in

January/February vs ~0.5 µg C h^{-1} l^{-1} at t0 in the present study), and our previous

experiment (t0 ~0.13 fg C cell^{-1} h^{-1}, F. Eigemann et al. (7) vs ~0.2 fg C cell^{-1} h^{-1}, this

study). Significantly lower APA in diatom DOM treatments compared to controls

despite of identical inorganic P concentrations (Fig. 1C, Supplemental Fig. 1),

suggests that diatom DOMs were used as an organic P source. This is in accordance

with findings that bacterial communities in the Mediterranean Sea compensate for

low inorganic nutrient levels with organic forms (43, 44), and phytoplankton DOMp

represent a substantial source of it(45). On the other hand, we added approximately

1 µM PO_4 with the cyanobacterium DOMs (Supplemental Fig 1), which makes a

definitive statement on P utilization derived from cyanobacterium DOMs difficult.

However, in our preceding study we showed a preferentially utilization of organic

nutrient forms provided from cyanobacterium DOMs compared to inorganic forms (7).

In the present study, we may have experienced a similar organic P utilization, which

is suggested by identical outcomes for t0 and control APA in both studies. The even

higher APA in the cyanobacterial DOMp treatments despite of our accidental PO_4

addition (Fig. 1) in parallel to constant inorganic nutrient levels with

contemporaneous decreasing APA over time (Fig. 1, Supplemental Fig. 1) supports

this notion.

Faster accessibility of diatom DOMs and donor specific effects on bacterial

diversity

DOMp differ in their composition between different phytoplankton groups (16, 21), as

well as between species in the same group (13), which has consequences on their

accessibility to the bacterial community (23, 24, 39). After 24 h of exposure, bacteria

exposed to diatom DOMs yielded approximately 2-times higher BP and 2.5-times

lower APA compared to bacteria exposed to the cyanobacterium DOMs (Fig. 1). This

pattern was consistent for bulk as well as per cell measurements, and thus not

attributed to the higher cell-numbers in cyanobacterium DOM treatments after 24 h of

exposure (Supplemental Fig. 4). Both results seem surprising at a glance,

considering that we added less carbon with the diatom than cyanobacterium DOMs

(14 vs 25 µM, see Experimental procedures), and also added inorganic PO_4 with the

cyanobacterium DOMs (see above). Indeed, our results suggest a faster and/or

higher accessibility of diatom DOMs for bacterial biomass synthesis and phosphorus

utilization, which is in accordance with the outcomes by B. Kieft et al. (39), who found

a higher ^{13}C enrichment in bacteria exposed to^{13}C-labelled diatom than

cyanobacterium DOM after 15 h, and a mass spectrometric analysis of both DOMp

types, where diatom DOMs owned a higher fraction of P (23).

Higher Shannon diversities throughout the experiment and a higher diversity of

genera (and not ASVs) in the 50 most abundant ASVs in the diatom DOM samples

(Supplemental table 3), furthermore suggest that diatom DOMs can be used by a

larger fraction of the bacterial community compared to the cyanobacterium DOMs

(Fig. 2). This outcome may be attributed to the production of easy accessible DOM

such as the polysaccharide laminarin (46), and more evenly distributed individual

sugars and amino acids in diatom DOMs (which infer a higher diversity of polymers,

and thus can be used by a broader share of bacteria) compared to cyanobacteria

DOMp (23), which also contain lipo-polysaccharides (47), as well as fucose

containing polysaccharides (23). The latter requires sophisticated degradation

pathways. Nevertheless, cyanobacterium and diatom DOM treatments experienced

different DOC und P concentrations, which might have impacted bacterial responses.

Higher APA in higher PO_4, and lower BP in higher DOC environments, however,

indicate a DOM quality (i.e. source) and not quantity driven response. Further, higher

DOCp concentrations were, independent of the phytoplankton donor, utilized by a

larger fraction of bacteria (48), suggesting that the higher bacterial diversity in our

diatom vs. cyanobacterium DOM treatments indeed derives from DOM quality and

not quantity.

DOMp donor specific ASVs

We found multiple different active ASVs of Alphaproteobacteria,

Gammaproteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Verrucomicrobia, Firmicutes, Marinimicrobia,

Latescibacteriota, and Actinobacteria in samples of both phytoplankton donors as

abundant members (Supplemental table 3). The vast majority of abundant ASVs in

DOMp enriched samples, however, were assigned to Gammaproteobacteria, the

Bacteroidetes family Flavobacteriaceae, or the Rhodeobacterales clade of

Alphaproteobacteria (Supplemental table 3). These three bacterial groups are

primary utilizers of DOMp and are, independent from the phytoplankton donor

species and time after DOMp pulses, well known as dominant members in

associations with phytoplankton, and/or bacterial communities after phytoplankton

DOMp additions (27, 28, 32-34, 39, 49-51).

At the ASV level, however, we determined 17 different *Glaciecola* ASVs in

cyanobacteria and four different *Glaciecola* ASVs in diatom DOM samples

dominating the respective treatments (Supplemental Fig. 3). The assignment of only

Glaciecola (Gammaproteobacteria, Alteromonadaceae) ASVs to cyanobacterium

DOM samples is very similar to the outcomes in our previous study (7), and also

corroborated by studies of H. Sarmento and J. M. Gasol (51) and S. M. Kearney et

al. (52), who found preferential uptake of Prochlorococcus DOMp by

Alteromonadaceae, and specific associations of Alteromonadaceae to

Piccocyanobacteria, respectively. However, *Glaciecola* ASVs were assigned to both

DOMp types (Supplemental Fig. 3A, 3C), and obtained high relative abundances in

conditions dominated by different phytoplankton species (53), and thus *Glaciecola*

might be considered as a generalist phytoplankton associated bacterium (or DOMp

generalist, Supplemental Fig. 3B). Besides of four *Glaciecola* ASVs, diatom DOM

samples were dominated by two Flavobacteriaceae, and each one SAR11 and

Ascidiaceihabitans ASVs (Supplemental Fig. 3A). These assignments are supported

by numerous studies that found general associations of Proteobacteria and

Bacteroidetes towards diatoms (reviewed by S. Amin (54)). However, despite of

several specific phytoplankton-bacteria associations that were found in our and other

studies, one should be careful to draw general conclusions. First, we indeed defined

several ASVs as phytoplankton donor specific, but one should keep in mind that also

other ASVs were abundant in either diatom or cyanobacteria samples, whose non-

consideration as donor specific might be a result of statistical cut-offs, which may not

reflect soft boarders in natural systems. Second, divergent outcomes were obtained

in similar studies. As examples, we predominantly assigned *Glaciecola* to

cyanobacteria DOMp, whereas M. Landa et al. (23) found it specific to diatom DOMs

(and did not find it in cyanobacteria DOMp treatments). Further, Rhodobacterales

were specifically associated with picocyanobacterial (39, 52), and Prochlorococcus

supported the growth of SAR11 in co-culture experiments (32), whereas we assigned

Ascidiaceihabitans (Rhodobacterales) and SAR11 only to diatom treatments. Thus,

general assignments of specific phytoplankton-bacteria associations are challenging,

which might be attributed to differences in abiotic parameters (which determine the

majority of bacterial associations with phytoplankton (55)) as well as bacterial source

communities (which greatly impact associations with phytoplankton (56)) between

studies.

Diminishing impact of the DOMp donor on bacterial communities over time

We observed the most pronounced bacterial community changes between 0 and 6,

as well as 6 and 24 h of exposure (Fig. 3B), suggesting a fast operation of treatment

specialized bacteria. Nevertheless, successions of the bacterial community occurred

throughout the complete incubation period (see Bray-Curtis dissimilarities between

48 and 72 h of exposure, Fig. 3B), and we were able to identify dominating ASVs for

each individual time-point (Supplemental Fig. 3C). Bacterial community successions

after DOMp pulses follow the exploitation of different DOMp compounds over time,

from highly bioavailable compounds shortly after the pulse towards less bioavailable

compounds at later time-points (33). The broad consortium of different bacteria

dominating t0, changed to four Rhodobacter (Alphaproteobacteria) ASVs and each

one Glaciecola (Gammaproteobacteria) and NS2b marine group (Flavobacteriaceae)

ASVs dominating the 6 h exposure (Supplemental Fig. 3C). The high share of

Alphaproteobacteria at this time-point underlines their task as first responders after

DOMp pulses, possibly as a result of their high expression of ABC and TRAP

transporters that enable the uptake of various LMW compounds (33, 39). After 24

and 48 h, we only assigned Gammaproteobacteria (and only one none Glaciecola

ASV), and after 72 h eleven Gammaproteobacteria (all Saccharospirillaceae), and

only one Flavobacterium as time-point dominating (Supplemental Fig. 3C).

Interestingly, these outcomes exactly reflect the patterns from H. Teeling et al. (33),

who also found a succession of peaking Gammaproteobacterial clades, after the

primary response of Alphaproteobacteria to a diatom bloom. The secondary peak of

Gammaproteobacteria and to a lesser extent Flavobacteria is a recurrent

phenomenon after DOMp pulses (34), and can be explained by their genetic

endowment that enable the utilization of numerous HMW compounds (33, 57).

The donor specific responses as well as bacterial community differences between

both DOMp types were most pronounced shortly after DOMp additions (Figs. 1, 3),

suggesting a strong impact of the donor type shortly after DOMp addition. We

hypothesize that this is caused by high shares of donor-specific compounds in the

highly bioavailable DOMp fractions, whereas less bioavailable compounds may have

a more general composition. This assumption is supported by increases in shared

ASVs between both DOMp types over time (when highly bioavailable compounds

decrease, Supplemental Fig. 2), the decrease of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities from 6 to

24 h of exposure (Fig. 3C), and the different outcomes for BP, APA and cell numbers

after 24, but not after 48 and 72 h (Fig. 1). Contradictory, M. Landa et al. (23)

suggested that labile compounds have a minor effect on the bacterial community and

that pronounced effects of the donor species occur if enzymatic machineries are

required. In their study, however, a continuous supply of cyanobacterium as well as

diatom DOMs was applied, which may have masked a succession from highly to less

bioavailable compounds. Furthermore, lower recurrences of phytoplankton species in

blooms, compared to heterotrophic bacterial OTUs days to weeks after the blooms

between years (34), suggest high similarities in the less bioavailable fraction of

phytoplankton DOMp derived from different species, and supports our conclusions on

DOMp generalists (Supplemental Fig. 3B). Finally, a mechanistic interference study

on the same dataset revealed ~3-times higher recurrences of DOM species

compared to phytoplankton species between years in spring blooms (58), which,

taking into account that highly bioavailable compounds may be rapidly consumed,

further supports our hypothesis.

Limitations and synthesis

Despite of reconstructing the occurring environmental conditions in our mesocosm

experiments, we experienced pronounced bottle effects, illustrated by increased

bacterial production in the controls (Fig. 1B), similar temporal developments of

bacterial communities in all treatments (including the controls, Fig.3A), and an

increase in shared ASVs between all treatments with increasing time (Supplemental

Fig. 2). However, first, it is almost impossible to completely omit bottle effects in

these types of experiments (e.g., S. Elovaara et al. (59) or C. M. Luria et al. (60)).

Second, despite of obvious changes in control communities from t0 to 6 h of

incubation, the highest community differences for these time steps were achieved

between both DOMp treatments (Fig. 3C). Furthermore, we found pronounced

differences between the phytoplankton donors in APA, BP, and cell numbers after 24

h of exposure (Fig. 1), and were able to define phytoplankton donor-specific ASVs,

as well as DOMp generalist ASVs (Supplemental Fig. 3B). Thus, the observed bottle

effects did not prohibit the gain of valuable information.

As synthesis, our results and that of similar studies suggest that bacterial diversity,

Alkaline Phosphatase activity (APA), Bacterial Production (BP), and cell numbers of

phytoplankton accompanying bacterial communities are determined by the

phytoplankton donor species (Fig. 5), which may be caused by different DOMp

compositions of cyanobacteria and diatoms (20). Additionally, the bacterial

community participates in the succession of DOMp from highly bioavailable to less

bioavailable (33, 61), with time-point defining ASVs (Supplemental Fig. 3C).

However, decreasing differences with increasing time of bacterial communities in the

same treatment (Fig. 3B), as well as high community differences between both

DOMp treatments after 6 h incubation (Fig. 3C), suggest a particularly high impact of

the host shortly after DOMp additions (Fig. 5). After exploitation of species-specific

highly bioavailable compounds, the remaining DOMp of different phytoplankton may

become more similar, and bacterial communities might be especially impacted by the

DOM accessibility (Fig. 5), i.e. the state of DOMp succession from highly bioavailable

to less bioavailable compounds.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental set-up

The experiment was performed in winter from 14. January 2019 until 17. January

2019 at the Israel Oceanographic and Limnological Research center in Haifa, Israel.

Shaded 20 l Nalgene bottles were filled with 18 l of 50 μm pre-filtered sea-water

(intake pipe at 5 m depth, ca. 50 m off the shore), amended with phytoplankton DOM,

and placed in 1 m³ natural seawater flow-through tanks to maintain temperature. We

added 25 μM cyanobacterium (*Prochlorococcus* MIT9312) DOC, in order to produce

comparable outcomes with similar studies (see F. Eigemann et al. (7)), and 14 μM

diatom (*Skeletonema marinoi*) DOC (due to technical issues, several DOM

containing bottles broke at an air-transfer). Each of the three treatments (control,

diatom DOM, cyanobacterium DOM) contained four biological replicates, and

samples were taken at t0 (nutrients, RNA, APA, BP, cell-numbers), after 1 (only

nutrients), 6 (nutrients and RNA), 24, 48 and 72 h (APA, BP, RNA, cell-numbers,

nutrients). A graphical overview of the experimental set-up is given as Fig. 6.

Culture conditions and harvesting of DOMp

Prochlorococcus MIT9312 was grown under constant light (20 μ E m^{-2} sec^{-1}) at 22°C

in Pro99 media where the NH$_4$ concentration was reduced from 800 μM to 100 μM,

resulting in the cells entering stationary stage due to N starvation (62). *Skeletonema*

marinoi was grown in F/2 + Si medium (63) at 45 μ E m^{-2} sec^{-1} at 17°C in a

conditioning-cabinet. To obtain cell-free DOMp, batch cultures were harvested at the

early decline phase by centrifugation followed by filtration through a 0.22 μm

polycarbonate filter. Phytoplankton derived dissolved organic matter (DOMp) from

the early decline phase may reflect natural DOM compositions better than from

exponentially growing cultures (12), and includes DOM from phytoplankton exudation

as well as cell lysis. The different DOMp from both phytoplankton were kept at -20°C

until utilization.

Nutrient measurements

480 Nutrients were measured colorimetrical according to H. P. Hansen and F. Koroleff

481 (64) by means of a Seal Analytical QuAAtro constant flow analyzer. Concentrations

482 of PO_4, NO_x (NO_2 + NO_3), and NH_4 in the different treatments over the course of the

483 experiment are given in Supplemental Fig. 1.

Cell numbers, Bacterial production, alkaline phosphatase activity, RNA
extraction, DNA digestion, cDNA synthesis and sequencing

487 All analyzes were performed as described in F. Eigemann et al. (7). Brief descriptions

488 of the used techniques and protocols are given below.

Cell numbers

Duplicate samples were fixed with cytometry-grade glutaraldehyde (0.125% final

concentration), flash-frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until analyses.

For measurements, samples were thawed in the dark at room temperature, stained

with SYBR Green I (Molecular Probes/ ThermoFisher) for 10 min at room

temperature, vortexed, and run on a BD FACSCanto™ II Flow Cytometry Analyzer

Systems (BD 146 Biosciences).

Bacterial production and alkaline phosphatase activity (APA)

Bacterial production was measured using the [4,5-^{3}H]-leucine incorporation method

(65). Samples were amended with 100 nmol of leucine L^{-1} (Perkin Elmer, specific

activity 156 Ci mmol^{-1}) and incubated for 4 h in the dark under ambient surface sea

water temperature (~19 °C). Incubations were stopped by the addition of 100 µL of

ice-cold 100% trichloroacetic acid (TCA). APA was determined by the 4-

methylumbeliferyl phosphate (MUF-P: Sigma M8168) method according to (66).

Substrate was added to a final concentration of 50 µM and incubated in the dark at

ambient temperature for 4 h (same as BP).

RNA extraction, DNA digestion, cDNA synthesis

In order to analyze active bacteria of the bacterial community, rRNA was extracted

and transcribed into cDNA. Approximately 1.5 l of each incubation bottle was filtered

directly onto 0.2 µm filters, and extracted with TRI reagent. Remaining DNA was

digested using the Turbo DNA free kit (Invitrogen) using the manufacturer's

instructions, and successful digestions were tested by PCRs. RNA was transcribed

into cDNA using MultiScribe reverse transcriptase following the manufacturer's

instructions (Invitrogen).

Sequencing and Sequence analyses

Sequencing was performed using primers 515F and 926R (67) and an Illumina

MiniSeq mid-output flow cell. Forward and backward sequence reads were deposited

at the European Nucleotide Archive under the accession number PRJEB44710. All

sequences were analyzed using the Dada2 (68) pipeline and the software packages

R (70, 71) and RStudio (72). Briefly, forward and backward primers were trimmed,

forward and backward reads truncated after quality inspections to 280 and 210

bases, respectively, and after merging of forward and backward sequences, a

consensus length only between 404 and 417 bases was accepted. For taxonomic

assignment, Silva database version 138 (73) was used. All chloroplasts,

mitochondria, archaea, eukaryotes and Amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) without

any taxonomic affiliation were discarded from downstream analyses. The complete

ASV table with absolute, subsampled read counts, and meta data for all samples is

accessible as Supplemental Table 1. After inspections of rarefaction curves, samples

with less than 10,154 reads were discarded from further analyses (t0, replicate four

(41 reads), and cyanobacterium DOM, replicate four, 6 h incubation (1,955 reads)),

and all remaining samples subsampled to 10,154 reads. One additional sample was

discarded from downstream analyses, because of a sandy RNA filter appearance,

and NMDS clustering far away from all other samples (control, replicate four, 6 h

incubation). Thus, from originally 52 samples, 49 were used for elaborated analyses.

Statistics

We tested for differences between the treatments at individual timepoints with

Shannon indices, cell numbers, Alkaline Phosphatase Activity (APA), and bacterial

production. Variance homogeneities between the different treatments for each

individual time-point were tested with Levene tests with the R package car (74). If

homogeneities were given, ANOVAs with subsequent Tukey post-hoc tests were

calculated. If no homogeneities of variances were given, Kruskal-Wallis tests with

subsequent Tukey-Nemenyi post-hoc tests were executed with the R package

PMCMR (75). To test for unique and shared ASVs between treatments, we merged

biological replicates as follows: All subsampled, absolute read counts >0 were set to

1, and subsequently the mean abundance of the biological replicates was calculated

for each treatment. An ASV was set as present if the calculated mean for the

treatment was ≥ 0.5. With these matrices, Venn counts were calculated and Venn

diagrams generated with the limma package (76). Changes in bacterial communities

were examined with Shannon diversities, non-metric-multidimensional-scaling

(NMDS), Bray-Curtis dissimilarities between treatments and time-points, and

heatmaps of the overall 100 most abundant ASVs. Differences of Bray-Curtis

dissimilarities between samples were tested with ANOVAs (homogeneities of

variances given) or Kruskal-Wallis tests (homogeneities of variances not given), with

subsequent Tukey post-hoc or Tukey-Nemenyi post-hoc tests, respectively (see

above). NMDS was executed with Bray-Curtis distances in the vegan package

(Oksanen et al. 2019) with subsampled absolute ASV reads. To test for differences

between bacterial communities, analyses of similarities (ANOSIM) as well as envfit

(environmental fits on ordinations) analyses were conducted using the vegan

package. Heatmaps for the overall 100 most abundant, subsampled ASVs were

executed using the heatmap 3 package (70, 77). To test if specific ASVs of these 100

most abundant ASVs are associated with specific time-points or treatments (control,

diatom DOMs, cyanobacterium DOMs), LDA effect size (LEfSe) analyses (78) were

executed with the online tool https://huttenhower.sph.harvard.edu/galaxy. Time-

points and treatments were assigned as class, and samples as subjects. Then, a

"one-against-all" strategy was applied with normalization and the LDA effect size

threshold set to 2.5. All analyses, except denoted otherwise, were executed with R

(71) and RStudio (72). Statistical outcomes are summarized in Supplemental Table

2. All graphics, except denoted otherwise, were executed with the ggplot2 package

(79), and refined with the freeware Inkscape (https://inkscape.org).

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Fig. 1 (A): Bacterial cell numbers, (B) Bacterial Production, and (C) Alkaline

Phosphatase Activity (APA) for different time-points and treatments. The letters in the

panels represent the outcomes of Tukey post-hoc tests between the treatments for

each individual time-point (see Supplemental statistics for further information).

Figure 2: Shannon diversities for the different time-points and treatments. The letters

in the panels represent the outcomes of Tukey post-hoc tests between the

treatments for each individual time-point (see Supplemental table 2 for further

information).

Figure 3: Effects of different treatments and proceeding time on bacterial

communities. (A) Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) for the different

treatments and time-points combined with EnvFit analyses. The red squares indicate

the calculated centres of the respective treatments, the arrow indicates the direction

of proceeding time, (B) Bray-Curtis dissimilarities of bacterial communities between

different time-points in the same treatment, and (C) Bray-Curtis dissimilarities of

bacterial communities between different treatments at the same time-point. (B, C)

Letters on top of the box-plots refer to the outcomes of Tukey post-hoc tests for

differences over time in the same treatment (B) and for differences of time-dependent

differences between different treatments (C). Further information and additional tests

(different treatments, same time-point comparisons (B), and different treatment

comparisons at the same time-point (C)) are provided in Supplemental Table 2.

Figure 4: Heatmap of the overall 100 most abundant ASVs for the different

treatments and time-points. The dendrogram on the left side of the heatmap is based

on hierarchical clustering of ASVs. The table on the right side of the heatmap

provides ASV taxonomy (first column with colour code), and dominant ASVs for the

different treatments (t0, diatom DOMs, cyanobacterium DOMs, control, backed with

light-grey) as well as different time-points (0 h, 6 h, 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, different

treatments pooled, backed with brown-grey, Supplemental Fig. 3A, C). Dominant

ASVs of the treatments/time-points are indicated by filled boxes in the colour of the

respective taxonomy. ASVs of the same genus are defined by numbers in the

taxonomic colour code.

Fig. 5: Summary figure of the obtained results (indicated by *), and outcomes of

similar studies on bacterial utilization of cyanobacteria and diatom derived DOM (a =

B. Kieft et al. (39), b = H. Sarmento and J. M. Gasol (51), c = M. Landa et al. (23), d =

F. Eigemann et al. (7)). If different outcomes at different time-points were obtained, a

time-specification is given after the reference. Right side: Different colored bacteria

indicate taxonomically different bacteria, with higher similarities between colors

indicating higher taxonomical similarities. The approximating colors of diatom and

cyanobacteria DOM with progressing time indicate the succession of DOM

compounds from highly to less bioavailable, which might become more similar.

Figure 6: Schematic overview of the experimental set-up. *Prochlorococcus* MIT9312

(cyanobacterium) and *Skeletonema marinoi* (diatom) were grown till the early decline

phase, cell-free DOMp harvested, and mixed with pre-filtered natural water.

Incubation bottles were placed in darkened flow-through tanks.