Title: Algal Exudates Promote Conjugation in Marine Roseobacters

Authors: Yemima Duchin Rapp, Lilach Yuda, Dor Matsliyah, Ilya Kublanov and Einat Segev*

Affiliations:

Department of Plant and Environmental Sciences, Weizmann Institute of Science; Rehovot, 7610001, Israel.

*Corresponding author. Email: Einat.segev@weizmann.ac.il

Abstract

Horizontal gene transfer (HGT) is a pivotal mechanism driving bacterial evolution, conferring adaptability within dynamic marine ecosystems. Among HGT mechanisms, conjugation mediated by Type IV secretion systems (T4SSs) plays a central role in the ecological success of marine bacteria. However, the triggers initiating conjugation events in the marine environment are not well understood. Roseobacters, abundant marine bacteria commonly associated with algae, possess a multitude of plasmids encoding T4SSs. Many Roseobacters are heterotrophic bacteria that rely on algal secreted compounds for supporting bacterial growth. Algal compounds therefore attract bacteria and promote colonization, including attachment to algal cells. Bacterial proximity, cell-to-cell contact, and attachment, can all foster HGT. Hence, we hypothesized that algal exudates, acting as chemoattractants for bacteria, may function as cues promoting bacterial HGT. Examination of various Roseobacters demonstrated that the genomic location of the T4SS impacts its functionality; a bacterial strain harboring a chromosomal-encoded T4SS does not perform conjugation, while a strain of the same species carrying a plasmid-encoded T4SS exhibits functional conjugation capability. Subsequently, we probed the influence of algal exudates on bacterial conjugation dynamics. Our findings revealed that algal exudates enhance plasmid transfer through conjugation but do not modulate the transcription of the conjugative machinery genes. These observations suggest that the bacterial responses to algal hosts evolved to correlate with an increased likelihood of encountering compatible partners for successful conjugation. Furthermore, since specific algae attract distinct bacterial populations, algae influence potential partners for genetic exchange and may shape the trajectory of bacterial evolution in the marine environment.

Introduction

Horizontal gene transfer (HGT), a key process in bacterial evolution, is the transfer of genetic material between a donor to an unrelated recipient. Bacteria, while maintaining small size genomes[1], display extraordinary genetic variations that enable them extreme flexibility and adaptability[1,2]. The ability of bacteria to obtain fragments of DNA in one single HGT event is a driving force enabling this flexibility[2]. HGT allows bacteria to adapt to environmental changes by acquiring new metabolic capabilities that facilitate various abilities such as symbiosis[3], antibiotic resistance[4], metabolic activity[5] and pathogenicity[6] thereby enabling bacteria to inhabit new and dynamic niches.

Horizontal transfer of genetic material is achieved by several main mechanisms, including 1) Transformation, which is the uptake of extracellular DNA[7], 2) Transduction, which is bacteriophage-mediated transfer[7], 3) Gene transfer agents (GTAs), that are bacteriophage-like particles that carry random pieces of the producing bacterial genome[8], and 4) Conjugation, which is the transfer of a plasmid between bacterial cells through direct cell-to-cell contact[7-9]. Conjugation typically occurs through the type IV secretion system (T4SS). T4SS is a versatile system found in both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria. The T4SS facilitates cell-to-cell contact and enables the delivery of proteins and DNA between different bacterial strains, species, and even from bacteria to eukaryotic cells[10]. It is involved in a verity of processes such as toxin delivery, DNA release, DNA uptake, effector molecule translocation and conjugation[11]. The T4SS is mainly encoded by the *virB* operon while the *virD* operon carries several additional genes necessary for proper functioning of the T4SS[11,12].

Many bacteria carry the T4SS genes on a plasmid, but some harbor the T4SS genes on the chromosome[13-16]. Plasmid-encoded T4SSs can transfer plasmids in conjugation, however the role of the chromosome-encoded T4SS is less clear[13,16]. Chromosome-encoded T4SSs have rarely been shown to mobilize a plasmid to a recipient strain[17], and these systems are mainly involved in processes such as protein secretion, ssDNA secretion into the extracellular milieu and natural transformation[14,15,18-22]. Indeed, diverse configurations of the T4SS architecture exist. Interestingly, within the abundant and environmentally important Roseobacters group of marine bacteria[23], many species carry T4SS genes in different genomic locations[24]. Roseobacters harbor T4SS genes on plasmids, chromosomes, both plasmids and chromosomes, and even on multiple plasmids within a single species (Table S1). Only the transfer of plasmids by plasmid-encoded T4SSs has been demonstrated in Roseobacters[6,25,26], it therefore remains to be determined whether the genomic location impacts the function of the T4SS in these bacteria.

HGT, and specifically conjugation that was demonstrated between Roseobacters[6,25-27], has been suggested as a central reason for the ecological success of Roseobacters[26]. These bacteria exhibit diverse metabolic capabilities and a wide range of symbiotic lifestyles[28]. Many Roseobacters engage in various interactions with algal hosts[29-34]. Algae exude various metabolites that support bacterial growth in the nutrient-poor oligotrophic ocean[28,29,35]. Thus, planktonic bacteria that drift in the ocean can secure a nutrient flux through proximity to an algal host. Algal exudates were shown to influence bacterial physiology[28-30,35,36] and shape algal-bacterial interactions[29,37]. In the vicinity of algal hosts, bacteria experience spatial proximity to one another, with certain bacteria even attaching to the surface of the algal cells[29,36]. Previous studies have shown that bacterial proximity, cell-to-cell contact, and attachment promote HGT[27,38-40]. Algal exudates that attract bacteria may therefore serve as a signal that promotes bacterial HGT.

Here, we sought to explore Roseobacter conjugation in the ecological context of an algal host. Therefore, our study employed Roseobacter species that were identified in environmental samples of algae[29,41]. As a model algal host, we used the unicellular alga *Emiliania huxleyi* (also termed G*ephyrocapsa huxleyi*)[42], which is widespread in modern oceans and was shown to harbor a rich community of bacteria, including Roseobacters[29,41,43]. First, we tested the ability of various Roseobacters to successfully conduct conjugation, examining the influence of the T4SS genomic location. Next, we examined the impact of algal exudates on bacterial conjugation, specifically on the expression of T4SS-encoding genes and the resulting transfer of DNA.

Examination of two bacterial strains belonging to the same species revealed that a chromosome-encoded T4SS does not lead to successful conjugation, while a plasmid-encoded T4SS is functional. Interestingly, our investigation has demonstrated expression of the plasmid-encoded T4SS genes, which did not increase in response to algal exudates. However, we have observed enhancement in bacterial conjugation efficiency and the actual transfer of plasmids following exposure to algal exudates. These observations imply that the bacterial response to an algal host is interconnected with an increased probability of encountering a compatible partner for successful conjugation.

Results

The *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 model strain is unable to act as a donor strain for conjugation

The P. inhibens DSM 17395 model strain has been widely studied by us[29,44] and by others[45-47] as a representative Roseobacter strain that specializes in interactions with microalgae. To

investigate the algal impact on bacterial conjugation, we first attempted to establish a conjugation assay using this model bacterial strain. The *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 strain harbors three native plasmids of 65 kb, 78 kb, and 262 kb, and carries all the genes that encode a complete T4SS on its chromosome (Fig. S1). In our study, a complete T4SS was defined as consisting of all the *vir* genes that have been previously described in conjugative Roseobacter T4SSs[25,26]. Interestingly, most reports on conjugation in bacteria involve plasmid-encoded T4SSs[15,16,18,48], rather than chromosome-encoded T4SS. We examined and characterized the ability of *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 to transfer a plasmid via conjugation. To evaluate conjugation, a plasmid in the bacterial donor strain is marked with an antibiotic resistance gene, while the recipient strain is marked with a second antibiotic resistance gene on its chromosome. If the plasmid is transferred from donor to recipient, the resulting bacteria (called transconjugants) will be resistant to both antibiotics following the mating and selection process (Fig. 1A).

Since *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 harbors three plasmids, and the T4SS is located on the chromosome, we conducted the conjugation assay with all three plasmids as possible donors. Each of the three plasmids was marked with a kanamycin-resistance gene. As recipients, we used representatives Roseobacter strains, including *D. shibae* and *M. algicola*, that were marked with a chromosomal gentamicin-resistance gene. Our results show that under our experimental conditions *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 is not capable of transferring any of its plasmids to recipient bacteria (Fig. 1B). To further support this result, we conducted similar conjugation assays on agar plates instead of liquid media (Fig. 1C). Previous studies have shown that proximity, cell-to-cell contact, and attachment promote conjugation[27,38-40], thus a solid surface like the agar plates should enhance the probability of plasmid transfer. Similar to the results obtained in the liquid media, *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 was not capable of transferring any of its plasmids to recipient bacteria during conjugation on plates (Fig. 1C). As control, all experiments were accompanied by conjugation assays with a donor-recipient pair that was previously shown to result in successful conjugation[26]. Our findings point to the possibility that the chromosomally encoded T4SS in *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 is unable to support conjugation.

Conjugative transfer of *P. inhibens* P72 plasmid to various recipients

Following the observation that the chromosome-encoded T4SS in *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 cannot execute conjugation, we investigated whether another strain of the same species, with a plasmid-encoded T4SS, is able to perform conjugation and act as a donor strain. The *P. inhibens* P72 strain carries complete T4SSs on both its 184 kb and 57 kb native plasmids,

with a similar genetic organization, namely the identity and order of genes, as the
chromosome-encoded T4SS in *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 (Fig. S1).

The 57 kb plasmid of *P. inhibens* P72 was marked with a kanamycin-resistance gene and was
used as a donor strain in a conjugation assay with three recipient Roseobacter strains, namely
P. inhibens DSM 17395, *D. shibae*, and *M. algicola* (Fig. 2A). These recipient strains were
marked with a gentamicin-resistance gene on their chromosome. Several of these donor-
recipient pairs were previously reported to execute successful conjugation under different
experimental conditions[26]. Following mating and selection, all assays resulted in colonies that
exhibit resistance towards both kanamycin and gentamicin. To confirm that the double-
resistance colonies were indeed transconjugants, several colonies were randomly chosen
from each donor-recipient pair and the presence of the acquired plasmid and recipient
chromosome was validated via PCR reactions. All tested transconjugants were confirmed to
be the recipient strains that acquired the 57 kb plasmid (Fig. 2B). These conjugation assay
demonstrated that under the same experimental conditions, *P. inhibens* P72 can serve as a
donor while *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 cannot. These observations further support a functional
difference between T4SSs that are encoded on a chromosome versus on a plasmid.

Another Roseobacter species with plasmid-encoded T4SS can act as donor via
conjugation
To investigate if another Roseobacter species that carry the T4SS on its plasmids can function
as plasmid donor in conjugation, we performed conjugation assays using *D. shibae* as the
plasmid donor. *D. shibae* was marked with a gentamicin-resistance gene on its 126 kb native
plasmid, harboring a complete T4SS (Fig. S1). For conjugation assays using *D. shibae* as the
plasmid donor, we selected two recipients: *P. inhibens* P72 and *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, both
tagged with a kanamycin-resistance gene on their chromosome (Fig. 3A). Following mating
and selection, all assays resulted in colonies that exhibit double resistance towards both
antibiotics. To confirm that the double-resistant colonies were indeed transconjugants, we
randomly selected several colonies from each pair and validated the presence of the acquired
plasmid and recipient chromosome using PCR reactions. All tested transconjugants were
confirmed to be the recipient strains that acquired a new plasmid (Fig. 3B). The conjugation
experiments demonstrated that *D. shibae* can act as a plasmid donor for both *P. inhibens* P72
and *P. inhibens* DSM 17395. These results are in line with a previous report that used *D.*
shibae and *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 under different experimental conditions and resulted in
successful conjugation[25]. Our findings indicate that plasmid-encoded T4SSs can facilitate the
transfer of plasmids among Roseobacters via conjugation.

Expression of the conjugation machinery is evident in plasmid-encoded T4SSs and is not influenced by algal exudates

Now that we obtained various Roseobacters that successfully perform conjugation, we wished to address our initial question and examine the algal impact on the bacterial conjugation process. First, we assessed the expression of the bacterial T4SS, under the same experimental conditions in which we observed a plasmid transfer in previous experiments (Fig. 2A, Fig. 3A). We analyzed expression levels of the T4SS genes in strains harboring plasmid-encoded T4SS, namely *P. inhibens* P72 and *D. shibae*. Both strains have two complete T4SSs on two different plasmids (57 kb and 184 kb plasmids for *P. inhibens* P72, and 126 kb and 191 kb for *D. shibae*). We assessed the expression of the T4SSs using qRT-PCR with primers that target the T4SS central genes *virB4*, *virB8* and *virD4.* Each primer set was designed to assess the expression of both T4SSs in each strain. In *P. inhibens* P72 bacteria, *virB4* and *virD4* gene expression was assessed individually for each plasmid due to sequence differences (Fig. S2A). As depicted in Fig. 4A, the expression levels of *virB4*, *virB8* and *virD4* were found to be comparable to those of the housekeeping genes. This observation suggests that in the experimental conditions that supports conjugation, the T4SS genes in both *D. shibae* and *P. inhibens* P72 strains are actively expressed.

Next, we wished to evaluate the possible impact of algae on the expression of the T4SS. In the nutrient-poor oligotrophic ocean, heterotrophic bacteria rely on micro-algae as an energy source[28,35,49]. Algae exude nutrients and various algal metabolites that influence bacterial physiology and play a role in algal-bacterial interactions[29,37]. Additionally, algae serve as an attachment surface for bacteria[29,36]. Previous studies have shown that proximity, cell-to-cell contact, and attachment promote HGT[27,38-40]. Therefore, algal exudates that are sensed by bacteria may serve as a signal that promotes bacterial HGT. To explore this possibility, we examined RNA expression levels of the bacterial T4SS machinery in bacterial cultures that were supplemented with filtrates of algal cultures. These filtrates contain various algal exudates that may be sensed by bacteria. All cultures, treated and control, were supplemented with essential nutrients to eliminate the role of algal exudates in supporting growth. We evaluated the expression of the T4SS in *P. inhibens* P72 and *D. shibae* bacteria. Both strains were grown in pure cultures and qRT-PCR analyses compared expression levels of cultures that were supplemented with algal filtrates versus non-treated cultures. Analyses were performed using primers targeting the central T4SS genes, *virB4*, *virB8* and *virD4*. The results demonstrated that gene expression levels are similar between untreated cultures and cultures that were supplemented with algal filtrates, for both bacterial strains. Only expression of the *virD4* gene in *P. inhibens* P72 treated with algal filtrates showed slightly higher expression levels than untreated cultures (Fig. 4B, Fig. S2B). Collectively, these findings suggest that

genes of the T4SS are constantly transcribed, with similar expression patterns to housekeeping genes, and that algal secreted compounds do not influence the expression of the T4SS machinery.

Algal exudates enhance bacterial conjugation

Transcription of the T4SS machinery does not seem to be influenced by algal exudates (Fig. 4B, Fig. 4D). However, transcription is not the only factor affecting the actual transfer of plasmids via the T4SS between bacteria. Therefore, we investigated whether algal exudates influence plasmid transfer between Roseobacter bacteria. To achieve this, we performed conjugation assays in which bacteria were treated with algal filtrates and compared to untreated bacteria. For the conjugation assay *P. inhibens* P72 and *D. shibae* was chosen as plasmid donors. As recipients, we used *D. shibae, M. algicola*, and *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 (Fig. 5). Our results show that conjugation assays that were supplemented with algal filtrates resulted in increased conjugation efficiency (i.e., more transconjugants per donors) compared to untreated bacteria.

Notably, algal filtrates contain substrates that promote bacterial growth[28,35,49]. To determine whether the increased conjugation efficiency is due to enhanced bacterial growth, we quantified donors, recipients and transconjugants in the different conjugation assays (Fig. 5, Table S2). We calculated the ratio of colony-forming unit (CFU) between treated cells and untreated cells. A ratio larger than one indicates increased growth, while a ratio smaller than one indicates inhibition of growth due to algal filtrates. We then compared the ratio of transconjugants to the ratio of donors (Fig. S3A) and recipients (Fig. S3B). Our analysis revealed that transconjugants had a higher ratio compared to both donors and recipients, indicating that treatment with algal filtrates enhanced conjugation efficiency beyond any potential growth-promoting effect.

In summary, our data suggest that while algal exudates do not affect the transcription of the conjugation machinery (Fig. 4B, Fig. 4D), they do promote conjugation (Fig. 5). The enhanced conjugation is not the result of increased bacterial growth (Fig. S3), and the underlying mechanism remains to be explored.

Discussion

The current study reveals that algal exudates increase bacterial conjugation, and consequently HGT, in Roseobacters. High frequencies of HGT have been suggested to play important roles in the resilience of marine bacteria[50]. Since the marine environment is dynamic and rapidly changing[51], the acquisition of novel traits through HGT allows marine bacteria to adapt to this dynamic environment. Various mechanisms for HGT have been observed in

Roseobacters, including GTAs[50] and conjugation[27]. Moreover, Roseobacters have many

plasmids[23,52], up to a dozen plasmids in a single bacterium[52]. Many of these plasmids harbor

T4SSs[39] that may facilitate conjugative HGT, potentially supporting rapid adaptation. These

processes that allow Roseobacters to adapt to new niches are considered key in their

ecological abundance and success[23,52,53]. Indeed, 27% of sequenced Roseobacters genomes

harbor all genes needed for a functional conjugative T4SS (Fig. S4A). Conjugation initiation

and the successful transfer of DNA was shown to be impacted by factors such as signaling

molecules, temperature, cell physiology, population density, pH, and nutrients[39,54,55]. However,

in marine bacteria, little is known about the conditions required to induce HGT, particularly

conjugation. Here, we show that algal secreted metabolites promote HGT in Roseobacters.

In marine ecosystems, algae provide bacteria with nutrients[28,35,49] and an attachment

surface[29,36]. By attaching to an algal cell, bacteria can secure a steady flux of algal exudates

in the algal phycosphere, which is the immediate volume surrounding the algal cell. As multiple

bacteria can attach onto an algal host, they may engage in processes that require cell-to-cell

contact, such as conjugation. Therefore, proximity and attachment onto an algal host may

increase the chances for plasmid transfer events among bacteria in the algal phycosphere[27,38-

40]. Indeed, previous studies demonstrated increased conjugation following attachment to

abiotic surfaces[56]. Moreover, algal exudates support bacterial growth and metabolism[57],

further enhancing bacterial density, which in turn could augment the chances of bacterial HGT.

Interestingly, environmental experiments with phytoplankton-derived dissolved organic matter

demonstrated attraction of bacteria harboring genes for the T4SS, as shown by metagenomic

analysis[58]. Specifically, Roseobacter bacteria often co-occur with various algal hosts in the

environment and in laboratory cultures[29,43,59-61]. Our study demonstrates that algal filtrates

increase conjugation in Roseobacter bacteria (Fig. 5), even in the absence of an algal cell for

attachment. Whether a combination of algal exudates and an attachment surface further

enhance conjugation remains to be studied. The current study establishes the functional link

between algal exudates and bacterial HGT.

While conjugation was enhanced in response to algal exudates (Fig. 5), the expression of the

conjugative machinery was not affected by algal exudates (Fig. 4B), suggesting the

involvement of additional regulatory routes such as transcription of regulatory genes[62] and

post-transcriptional regulation. Reports on the importance of post-transcriptional regulation of

the conjugative process have been previously described[55] and were highlighted as a promising

regulatory mechanism of conjugation[63]. In line with our observations, previous work has

reported on substantial differences between levels of transcripts versus proteins of the T4SS,

with higher transcription levels in poor media compared to rich media. In contrast, western blot

of the corresponding proteins revealed elevated expression in rich media compared to the

poor media[64]. Taken together, algal exudates may impact post-transcriptional regulation of

genes involved in bacterial conjugation.

The functionality of the conjugative process appears to be affected by the genomic location of

the T4SS. Various bacteria carry the T4SS-encoding genes on plasmids, chromosomes, and

even on both[16,17]. While plasmid-encoded T4SSs are known to commonly mediate

conjugation[65], chromosomally encoded T4SSs rarely mobilize a plasmid to a recipient strain[17].

Chromosomally encoded T4SSs are mainly involved in processes such as protein secretion,

ssDNA secretion into the extracellular milieu, natural transformation, and symbiosis[13-16,18-22,66].

Of note, within sequenced Roseobacters genomes, 23% carry only plasmid-encoded T4SSs,

2% carry only chromosome-encoded T4SSs, and 1% carry T4SSs on both the chromosome

and a plasmid (Fig. S4A). Evaluating the genomic location of all T4SSs across Roseobacter

genomes reveals that 86% of T4SSs are found on plasmids, 8% are located on chromosomes,

and 6% cannot be conclusively assigned to a chromosome or plasmid (Fig. S4B). Therefore,

chromosome-encoded T4SSs appear to constitute a notable fraction of T4SSs in

Roseobacters, potentially hinting at other functions served by chromosomally encoded

secretion system[66]. Indeed, our data demonstrate that a strain carrying a complete

chromosomally encoded T4SS is unable to act as a plasmid donor in conjugation (Fig. 1B-C).

In contrast, a different strain from the same species, carrying a plasmid-encoded T4SS with a

similar genetic organization to the chromosome-encoded T4SS (Fig. S1), was able to serve

as a plasmid donor (Fig. 2).

The origin of transfer (oriT) is a key regulatory element needed for a successful conjugation

event. While a plasmid can be transferred *in-trans* by a T4SS apparatus, the oriT is required

for DNA mobilization initiation and functions *in-cis*[67]. Therefore, chromosomally encoded

T4SSs should be able to transfer plasmids that carry an oriT. Similarly, a chromosomally

encoded T4SS was demonstrated to transfer an adjacent DNA fragment harboring an oriT [15].

We demonstrate that under our experimental conditions the chromosomally encoded T4SS in

P. inhibens DSM 17395 cannot function as a plasmid donor (Fig. 1B-C). Therefore, the *P.*

inhibens DSM 17395 plasmids are not expected to have an oriT. However, identifying an oriT

is challenging. Although some oriTs have typical characteristics, most are unknown[67].

Moreover, the majority of oriTs have been identified in model bacteria[67-69], and knowledge on

environmental strains is therefore limited. Using a web-based tool designed for identifying

oriTs (oriTfinder)[70], we were unable to identify oriTs on the *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 plasmids.

Of note, when the same tool was applied to analyze plasmids that were successfully

transferred in our conjugation experiments, still an oriT was not identified. These results

underscore the limited molecular knowledge we currently have on key processes, such as conjugation, in environmentally abundant bacteria.

The evolution of marine heterotrophic bacteria is linked to their micro-algal hosts, as manifested by the many examples of algal-bacterial chemical exchanges that likely arose during their co-evolution[29-31,44,45,71]. The current study reveals the impact that algal exudates have on bacterial conjugation, which adds another layer to our understanding of bacterial evolution in the ocean. Algal exudates represent a distinct chemical signature of a given algal species[72], and consequently, attract phylogenetically and functionally discrete populations of bacteria[57,58,73]. By attracting specific bacterial populations, algae have the potential to affect the bacterial partners that perform genetic exchange, thus possibly shaping bacterial evolution.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The bacterial strains *Phaeobacter inhibens* DSM 17395 and *Dinoroseobacter shibae* DFL-12 were purchased from the German Collection of Microorganism and Cell Cultures (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany) (Table 1). *P. inhibens* P72 was kindly provided by Prof. Juan Barja from University of Santiago de Compostela, Spain, and Dr. Jörn Petersen from the Leibniz Institute, DSMZ, Germany (Table 1). The bacterial strains of *Phaeobacter inhibens* DSM 17395 with a mariner transposon (Tn)-tagged chromosome, *Marinovum algicola* DG898 DSM 27768 with a Tn-tagged chromosome, *Dinoroseobacter shibae* DFL-12 with a Tn-tagged plasmid (pDSHI03, 126 kb), *Dinoroseobacter shibae* DFL-12 with a Tn-tagged chromosome (Table 1), *P. inhibens* P72 with a Tn-tagged plasmid (pP72_e, 57 kbp), and *P. inhibens* P72 with a Tn-tagged chromosome were kindly provided by Dr. Jörn Petersen from the Leibniz Institute, DSMZ, Germany.

D. shibae cultures were plated on ½ marine broth 2216 (MB) (Difco, USA) agar plates (MB, 18.7 g/L; agar, 16 g/L) with 30 µg/ml gentamicin antibiotic. *M. algicola* cultures were plated on ½ YTSS agar plates (yeast extract, 2 g/L; trypton, 1.25 g/L; sea salts, 20 g/L; agar, 16 g/L, all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich) with 30 µg/ml gentamicin antibiotic. *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 cultures were plated on ½ YTSS agar plates with 30 µg/ml gentamicin or 150 µg/ml kanamycin antibiotic. *P. inhibens* P72 was plated on ½ YTSS agar plates with 150 µg/ml kanamycin antibiotic. Transconjugants of *D. shibae* were plated on ½ MB agar plates with 30 µg/ml gentamicin and 150 µg/ml kanamycin antibiotics. Transconjugants of *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, *P. inhibens* P72 and *M. algicola* were plated on ½ YTSS agar plates with 30µg/ml gentamicin and 150 µg/ml kanamycin antibiotics.

Cultures were grown in artificial seawater (ASW) prepared according to Goyet and Poisson[74]. ASW contained mineral salts (NaCl, 409.41 mM; Na_2SO_4, 28.22 mM; KCl, 9.08 mM; KBr, 0.82 mM; NaF, 0.07 mM; Na_2CO_3, 0.20 mM; $NaHCO_3$, 2 mM; $MgCl_2$, 50.66 mM; $SrCl_2$, 0.09 mM), L1 trace elements ($FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$, 3.15 mg/L; $Na_2EDTA \cdot 2H_2O$, 4.36 mg/L; $CuSO_4 \cdot 5H2O$, 9.8 µg/L; $Na_2MoO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$, 6.3 µg/L; $ZnSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, 22 µg/L; $CoCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 10 µg/L; $MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$, 180 µg/L), and L1 nutrients ($NaNO_3$, 882 µM; NaH_2PO_4, 36.22 µM). The components were dissolved in Milli-Q water (IQ 7003; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and the pH adjusted to 8 with HCl. Stock solutions of L1 trace elements and L1 nutrients were purchased from the Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences (Boothbay, ME, USA). Cultures of *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, *P. inhibens* P72, and *M. algicola* were grown in ASW medium supplemented with additional carbon (glucose, 5.5 mM, Sigma Aldrich), nitrogen (NH_4Cl, 5 mM, Sigma Aldrich), sulfur (Na_2SO_4, 33 mM, Merck), and f/2 vitamins (thiamine HCl, 100 µg/L; biotin, 0.5 µg/L; vitamin B_{12}, 0.5 µg/L, Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences). Cultures of *D. shibae* were grown in ASW medium supplemented with additional carbon (succinate, 5.5 mM, Sigma Aldrich), nitrogen (NH_4Cl, 5 mM), sulfur (Na_2SO_4, 33 mM), and vitamins mix (adjusted from Gonzalez *et al.*,[75] Thiamine HCl, 0.148 µM/L; biotin, 0.082 µM/L; Pyridoxine HCL, 0.486 µM/L; Nicotinic acid, 0.406 µM/L; Pantothenic acid, 0.228 µM/L; Cyanocobalamin, 0.0006 µM/L; pABA, 0.364 µM/L). Bacteria were cultivated at 30 °C under constant shaking at 130 rpm.

Table 1: List of bacterial strains and mutants.

Strain	Tagged locus	Insertion site	Reference	Lab collection identifier	Resistance	Comments
Phaeobacter inhibens DSM 17395			DSMZ, Germany			Wild type
Phaeobacter inhibens DSM 17395	65 kb plasmid	18,622	Current study	ES172	Kanamycin	Intergenic region mutant.
Phaeobacter inhibens DSM 17395	78 kb plasmid	26,249-30,284	Lab collection	ES171	Kanamycin	Knock-out mutant in both PGA1_RS19420 and PGA1_RS19415.
Phaeobacter inhibens DSM 17395	262 kb plasmid	138,002	Dr. Jörn Petersen from the Leibniz Institute, DSMZ, Germany.	ES170	Kanamycin	Insertion in PGA1_262p01260, generated with the <R6kyori/KAN-2> transposon-kit.
Dinoroseobacter shibae DFL-12	126 kb plasmid	27,457	Patzelt *et al.*[25]	ES94	Gentamicin	Insertion in Dshi_3964, generated using mariner transposon mutagenesis.
Phaeobacter inhibens P72	57 kb plasmid	38,628	Birmes *et al.*[26]	ES96	Kanamycin	Insertion in CP010740,

						generated with the <R6kyori/KAN-2> transposon-kit.
Dinoroseobacter shibae DFL-12	Chromosome	3,502,458	Birmes *et al.*[26]	ES95	Gentamicin	Intergenic region mutant, generated using mariner transposon mutagenesis.
Phaeobacter inhibens P72	Chromosome	1,678,662	Dr. Jörn Petersen from the Leibniz Institute, DSMZ, Germany and Prof. Juan Barja from University of Santiago de Compostela, Spain	ES168	Kanamycin	Insertion in PhaeoP72_RS07995, generated with the <R6kyori/KAN-2> transposon-kit.
Marinovum algicola DG898	Chromosome	3,256,562	Birmes *et al.*[26]	ES93	Gentamicin	Insertion in MALG_03188, generated using mariner transposon mutagenesis.
Phaeobacter inhibens DSM 17395	Chromosome	1,400,112	Lab collection	ES70	Gentamicin	Intergenic region mutant.
Phaeobacter inhibens DSM 17395	Chromosome	2,372,826	Dr. Jörn Petersen from the Leibniz Institute, DSMZ, Germany.	ES97	Kanamycin	Insertion in PGA1_RS11385, generated with the <R6kyori/KAN-2> transposon-kit.

Algal strain, growth conditions and monitoring

The axenic algal strain of *Emiliania huxleyi* CCMP3266 (also termed G*ephyrocapsa huxleyi*[42])

was purchased from the National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (Bigelow Laboratory

for Ocean Sciences, Maine, USA). Algae were grown in ASW supplemented with f/2 vitamins,

L1 nutrients and L1 trace elements. Algae were grown in standing cultures in a growth room

at 18 °C under a light/dark cycle of 16/8 h. Illumination intensity during the light period was

150 mmoles/m^2/s. Absence of bacteria in axenic algal cultures was monitored periodically both

by plating on ½ YTSS plates and under the microscope.

Cultures of *E. huxleyi* were grown as follows; algal cells concentrations from a late exponential

phase culture were counted by a CellStream CS-100496 flow cytometer (Merck, Darmstadt,

Germany) using 561 nm excitation and 702 nm emission. Algal cells were gated according to

event size and fluorescence intensity. An inoculum of 10^5 algal cells was introduced into 100

ml of ASW and incubated as described above. Algal growth in cultures was monitored by a

CellStream flow cytometer as described. For each biological replicate 50,000 events were

recorded.

Algal filtrates

To obtain algal filtrates, algal cultures were grown as described above for 12 days. An initial washing of the filters was conducted by passing 100 ml ASW medium through the filter (Thermo scientific, 0.2 aPES, 250ml). Then, algal cultures were filtered, and filtrates pH was adjusted to pH 8 (Thermo Scientific Eutech pH 700 Meter) with HCl, followed by a second filtration. The ASW medium used as control was subjected to the same procedure.

Monitoring bacterial growth

Bacterial cultures were monitored daily by OD_{600} measurements using plastic cuvettes in a spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 2100 pro, Biochrom).

Conjugation assay

D. shibae, *P. inhibens* P72*,* and *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 with plasmids carrying antibiotic resistance genes were used as donor strains for conjugation. *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, *P. inhibens* P72, *M. algicola*, and *D. shibae* with chromosomes carrying antibiotic resistance genes were used as recipient strains for conjugation (Table 2).

Pre-cultures: Bacteria were plated on selective plates and incubated 2-4 days at 30 °C. Then, bacteria were transferred from the plates to ASW medium and adjusted to an OD_{600} of 0.1. Next, bacteria were diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.001 in the medium previously specified for each strain. Pre-cultures were grown to an OD_{600} of 0.3, followed by centrifugation of 10 min at 4000 rpm. Bacteria were washed with ASW and centrifuged again for 10 min at 4000 rpm. Samples were adjusted to an OD_{600} of 25 using ASW.

Mating: For each donor-recipient pair, four biological replicates were prepared for both ASW control and algal filtrates treatment. The treatment consisted of 75% fresh algal filtrates diluted in 25% ASW (v/v). Both control and treated cultures were supplemented with L1 trace elements, L1 nutrients, vitamin mix, 5.5 mM Glucose, 33 mM Na_2SO_4, and 5 mM NH_4Cl. To each breathing tube, 2.4 ml of the medium, 100 µl of the donor strain, and 20 µl of the recipient strain were added. The breathing tubes were mixed and cultivated at 30 °C for 24 h without shaking. For the mating on agar plates, 20 µl of donor cells and 4 µl of recipient cells were mixed and plated on MB agar plates, followed by 24 h incubation at 30 °C.

Selection and quantification: Each breathing tube was plated in serial dilutions in two technical replicates on three selective plates: one for the donor, one for the recipient and one for the transconjugants. Plates were incubated for 48-96 h at 30 °C. Colonies were counted and quantified. Importantly, transconjugants can grow on selective plates with a single antibiotic that are used for quantifying the donors and recipients. However, our data indicated 2-5 orders of magnitude less transconjugants compared to donors and recipients. Therefore,

growth of transconjugants on single-antibiotic plates is negligible in comparison to cell
numbers of donors or recipients.

Validation: From each donor-recipient conjugation pair, 7 transconjugant colonies were re-
streaked on double-antibiotics plates. After three rounds of re-streaking, single transconjugant
colonies were subjected to DNA extraction using Wizard Genomic DNA Purification Kit
(Promega), and the DNA was used for PCR amplification using the PCRBIO HS Taq Mix Red
polymerase. For each transconjugant, three sets of primers were designed for validation: a
primer set specific for the donor, a primer set specific for the recipient and primer set specific
for the transferred plasmid (Table 3, Table 4).

Table 2: List of donor-recipient conjugation pairs. Donors carry an antibiotic resistance gene
on a plasmid (the plasmid is indicated by its size); recipients carry an antibiotic resistance
gene on the chromosome. IR- intergenic region. Tn- transposon insertion.

Donor	Recipient
P. inhibens DSM 17395, 262 kb	*D. shibae* DFL-12
P. inhibens DSM 17395, 78 kb	*D. shibae* DFL-12
P. inhibens DSM 17395, 65 kb	*D. shibae* DFL-12
P. inhibens DSM 17395, 262 kb	*M. algicola* DG898
P. inhibens DSM 17395, 78 kb	*M. algicola* DG898
P. inhibens DSM 17395, 65 kb	*M. algicola* DG898
P. inhibens P72, 57 kb	*D. shibae* DFL-12
P. inhibens P72, 57 kb	*M. algicola* DG898
P. inhibens P72, 57 kb	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395[IR]
D. shibae DFL-12, 126 kb	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395[Tn]
D. shibae DFL-12, 126 kb	*P. inhibens* P72

457 **Table 3:** Primers for transconjugant validation. Each transconjugant was validated using three
458 primer sets identifying the donor, the recipient, and the transferred plasmid. Primer sequences
459 are listed in table 4.

Strain	Target of the primer set	Primer name
D. shibae DFL-12	Donor	802+803
P. inhibens P72	Donor	794+777
P. inhibens DSM 17395[Tn]	Recipient	126+92
D. shibae DFL-12	Recipient	802+803
M. algicola DG898	Recipient	804+805
P. inhibens DSM 17395[IR]	Recipient	47+290
P. inhibens P72	Recipient	796+797
D. shibae DFL-12, 126 kb	plasmid	772+773
P. inhibens P72, 57 kb	plasmid	808+809

Table 4: Primer list for PCR reactions and construction of mutant strain. IR- intergenic region mutant. Tn- transposon insertion mutant.

Primer name	Sequence	Strain	Comments	Origin
47	CAGGATGAGTTATTGCACCA	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395 [IR]	Validation of transconjugants	Current study
290	GAGCCTACATGTGCGAATGATGC	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395 [IR]	Validation of transconjugants	Current study
92	CCAGAGAACAATAGTAAGAGCG	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395 [Tn]	Validation of transconjugants	Current study
126	GCTTGATGTCGAGGTGCTGT	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395 [Tn]	Validation of transconjugants	Current study
772	GGCACCATCGTCGGAACCAAT	*D. shibae* DFL-12, 126 kb plasmid	Validation of transconjugants	Patzelt *et al.*[25]
773	TGGTATCAGGCATTCGCTTCA	*D. shibae* DFL-12, 126 kb plasmid	Validation of transconjugants	Patzelt *et al.*[25]
777	AGATCGCCAAATTGCAGCAG	*P. inhibens* P72	Validation of transconjugants	Current study
794	AGACGACCCCTTGAGGCAC	*P. inhibens* P72	Validation of transconjugants	Current study
802	ACGGCATCGACCACTTCTTC	*D. shibae* DFL-12	Validation of transconjugants	Birmes *et al.*[26]
803	ACGGAAGATCGGGTACATGG	*D. shibae* DFL-12	Validation of transconjugants	Birmes *et al.*[26]
804	CAATCCGATCGACAGCTACG	*M. algicola* DG898	Validation of transconjugants	Birmes *et al.*[26]
805	TGATCGGCATGTAGAGCAGC	*M. algicola* DG898	Validation of transconjugants	Birmes *et al.*[26]
808	GAACCAGGAATGCATCGGTC	*P. inhibens* P72, 57b kb plasmid	Validation of transconjugants	Birmes *et al.*[26]
809	CCTGATCCGGCTATGACCAT	*P. inhibens* P72, 57b kb plasmid	Validation of transconjugants	Birmes *et al.*[26]
1169	GTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTCCGAATTCGCCCTTAACCAGTCCTTCCGCAACAAGACGCGCAAGG	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395	Construction of the 65 kb plasmid mutant	Current study
1170	CAGTTTACGAACCGAACAGGCTTATGTCAAGCGAAATATCACTATCTCCACACTACCACC	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395	Construction of the 65 kb plasmid mutant	Current study
1171	CTTCTATCGCCTTCTTGACGAGTTCTTCTGAGAGGATTAATTTAAATCGCACTCTTATTCTC	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395	Construction of the 65 kb plasmid mutant	Current study
1172	CTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCGAATTCGCCCTACCATTCATAAGCACGTGCTGTGGAAATGTC	*P. inhibens* DSM 17395	Construction of the 65 kb plasmid mutant	Current study

Quantitative Real Time-PCR (qRT-PCR)

Pre-cultures of *P. inhibens* P72 and *D. shibae* bacteria were grown as previously described. At OD_{600} of 0.3, cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,000 rpm for 10 min at room-temperature and transferred into ASW (control) and algal filtrates (treatment). The treatment consisted of 75% fresh algal filtrates diluted in 25% of ASW (v/v). Both control and treated cultures were supplemented with L1 trace elements, L1 nutrients, vitamin mix, 33 mM Na_2SO_4, and 5 mM NH_4Cl. *P. inhibens* P72 cultures were additionally supplemented with 5.5 mM Glucose, and *D. shibae* cultures were supplemented with 5.5 mM succinate. After 30 min of incubation at 30 °C with shaking at 130 rpm, the cells were centrifuged at 4,000 rpm for 10

min at 4 °C. Cells were transferred into 450 µL of RLT buffer containing 1% β-mercapto-ethanol and kept at -80 °C until RNA extraction. RNA was extracted using the Isolate II RNA mini kit (Meridian Bioscience, London, UK) according to the manufacturer instructions. Cells were ruptured by adding low Binding Silica Grinding Beads (100 µm) (SPEX, Metuchen, Netherland) to the thawed sample and were then beaten for 5 min at 30 mHz. For further removal of genomic DNA, RNA samples were treated with 2 µL Turbo DNAse (ThermoFisher) in a 60 µL reaction volume. RNA samples were cleaned and concentrated using RNA Clean & Concentrator TM-5 kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer instructions. Equal concentrations of RNA were utilized for cDNA synthesis using Superscript IV (ThermoFisher), according to manufacturer instructions. qRT-PCR was conducted in 384-well plates using the SensiFAST SYBR Lo-ROX Kit (Meridian Bioscience) in a QuantStudio 5 (384-well plate) qRT-PCR cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The qRT-PCR program ran according to enzyme requirements for 40 cycles. Primers are listed in table 5. Primer efficiencies were calculated through standard curves using the QuantStudio 5 software. Gene expression ratios were analyzed as previously shown[76], by geometric averaging of the housekeeping genes *gyrA*, and *recA*. To validate the absence of genomic DNA contamination, the same procedure and program were applied on RNA samples that were not reverse transcribed.

Table 5: Primer list of bacterial genes for qRT-PCR.

Strain	Genetic locus	Gene name	Accession number	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer
D. shibae DFL-12	Chromosome	*recA*	DSHI_RS08365	CCGTAATCTCGA GAGCCTGC	GAAAGTTCCGG CAAGACCAC
	Chromosome	*gyrA*	DSHI_RS07515	GTGAAGCGGTA GAGCTGGTTc	CTCGACGAGAT CCCCTACCA
	191 kb and 126 kb plasmids	*virB8*	DSHI_RS18440 and DSHI_RS20035	TTCCGCTATGTG ACCGACC	CGATCCGGTTG ATGCTGAG
	191 kb and 126 kb plasmids	*virB4*	DSHI_RS18425 and DSHI_RS20020	CGATCTGACCG GCATTCTC	GTCACCAGCCA GTTCGACAG
	191 kb and 126 kb plasmids	*virD4*	DSHI_RS18490 and DSHI_RS20080	GAGCATGATCAT CACGGGc	CGGTGTCGGA CTTTGATTTC
P. inhibens P72	Chromosome	*recA*	PhaeoP72_RS07860	GCTGACACCCA AGTCGGAG	AGCCGAACATA ACGCCAATCT
	Chromosome	*gyrA*	PhaeoP72_RS07800	TCAGCTTATGTC GGGCTTCG	CGGTTCCTGAC CTCCTTCC
	18 kb and 57 kb plasmids	*virB8*	PhaeoP72_RS19740 and PhaeoP72_RS20905	GGGTTCGTCCA GACCTCATC	CCGGCTCGAT GTGGAAAT
	184 kb plasmid	*virB4*	PhaeoP72_RS19755	AAATCCGTAGGT GTTTGCCG	GCCGGATCGA CTCAAGGA
	184 kb plasmid	*virD4*	PhaeoP72_03985	TTTTGCCACTCT CCTCCTGC	CGTTCAAACTG TTGTCGCC
	57 kb plasmid	*virB4*	PhaeoP72_RS20885	GAAGAACAGCT TTCCAGCATC	GCACCTGTTCC GCGTTC
	57 kb plasmid	*virD4*	PhaeoP72_RS20940	TTACGGTGAAG CAAGCCAGC	ACATCTGCATC GGTCACTTTC
	18 kb and 57 kb plasmids	*virB4*	PhaeoP72_RS19755 and PhaeoP72_RS20885	ACCGGCATTCT CGACAGC	GCGTATTGCGT CATCATCAC

| | 18 kb and 57 kb plasmids | virD4 | PhaeoP72_03985 and PhaeoP72_RS20940 | GCTTCGACCAAT AACGACACG | GAAGAGGCGG ATCAGCGG |

Genetic manipulation of Roseobacter bacteria

To insert an antibiotic resistance gene into the 65 kb plasmid of *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, the mutant strain ES172 (Table 1) was generated by inserting a kanamycin-resistant gene in an intergenic region between gene PGA1_RS20320 and gene PGA1_RS19930. Regions of approximately 1000 bp upstream and downstream of the intergenic region were PCR-amplified using primers 1169, 1170, 1171 and 1172, respectively (Table 4). The amplified fragments were assembled and cloned into the pYDR8 vector (Table 6) using restriction-free cloning[78,79]. The resulting plasmid (pYDR9, Table 6) was introduced into competent *P. inhibens* by electroporation. Preparations of competent cells was performed as previously described[80], with slight modifications. Shortly, cells were grown to an OD_{600} of 0.7 in ½ YTS with 40 g/L of sea salts (also termed full salts medium). Bacteria were washed 3 times using 10% (v/v) ice-cold glycerol, centrifuged each time for 5 min at 4 °C and 6000 rpm. The competent cells were subsequently adjusted to an OD_{600} of 20 using 10% (v/v) ice-cold glycerol, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Electroporation was conducted with 300 µl aliquot of electrocompetent cells, using 10 µg of DNA in a 2 mm cuvette at 2.5 V, followed by 4 h recovery in ½ YTS with full salts. The transformed cells were then plated on ½ YTSS plates containing 150 µg/ml kanamycin, and resistant colonies were validated by PCR and DNA sequencing.

Table 6: Plasmids used in the study.

Plasmid name	Origin	Comments
pYDR8	Lab collection	Constructed using pCR8/GW/TOPO vector (Invitrogen), and used in the current study as a vector carrying the kanamycin resistant cassette
pYDR9	Current study	Constructed using pYDR8 vector for creating the 65 kb intergenic mutant of *P. inhibens* DSM 17395

Generating the *Roseobacteraceae* T4SS dataset

All *Roseobacteraceae* genomes (of any quality) available in the Integrated Microbial Genomes & Microbiomes (IMG/M) database[81] were scanned for the presence of the *virB8* gene using the IMG "Function search" tool and K03202 KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes[82]) Orthology (KO) designation for VirB8. The *virB8* genes (K03203) were found in 320 out of 898 *Roseobacteraceae* genomes. The respective scaffolds were scanned for the presence of other *vir* genes (*virB1-B7, virB9-B11* and *virD4*) and were assessed as representing either plasmids or chromosomes (Table S1). Within these 320 genomes a total of 564 *virB8* genes were located on 553 scaffolds. Further assignment of the scaffolds to plasmids or chromosomes was conducted using the presence or absence of plasmid

operational taxonomic unit (pOTU) designation that was assigned during genome annotation in IMG and according to scaffold size. Scaffolds with no operational taxonomic unit designation larger than 300 kb were marked as chromosomes. Scaffolds with no operational taxonomic unit designation and smaller than 300 kb were marked as unknowns. Of note, the T4SS is an extremely versatile apparatus. Conjugative T4SSs typically consist of the archetypal VirB/VirD4 components (encoded by *virB1-11* together with *virD4*). Yet, the precise number of needed genes and their essentiality for a functional T4SS remain poorly understood, particularly in non-model bacteria[83-86]. Consequently, due to the difficulty in predicting which T4SS is conjugative, we set stringent criteria and defined a potentially functional conjugative T4SS (*i.e.,* complete T4SS) as one that includes all the *vir* genes that comprise the T4SSs located on the conjugative plasmids of *D. shibae* and *P. inhibens* P72. Accordingly, T4SSs homologous to Vir but possessing other KO assignments (e.g., Tra), that were not experimentally shown to be conjugative in Roseobacters, were not included in this analysis. In total, our analysis identified 387 out of the 553 scaffolds as carrying a complete set of T4SS genes. However, it is possible that partially complete T4SSs in our analysis or homologous T4SSs (e.g., Tra) may be functional as well[15].

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Dr. Jörn Petersen (Leibniz Institute, DSMZ, Germany) for generously sharing many valuable bacterial strains. We thank Prof. Juan Barja (University of Santiago de Compostela, Spain) for kindly sharing the *P. inhibens* P72 bacterial strain. We thank all members of the Segev lab for insightful comments and discussions.

Funding

This study was supported by funds received from the Weizmann SAERI program granted to Y.D.R, the European Research Council (ERC StG 101075514), the Israeli Science Foundation (ISF 947/18), the Minerva Foundation with funding from the Federal German Ministry for Education and Research, and the de Botton Center for Marine Science, granted to E.S.

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Fig. 1. The *P. inhibens* strain DSM 17395 is unable to serve as a plasmid donor. A) Schematic representation of the conjugation assay. The donor strain (light blue) carries an antibiotic resistance gene (orange) on a native plasmid, while the recipient strain (grey) harbors a chromosomal antibiotic resistance gene (yellow). Successful plasmid transfer from the donor to the recipient will result in transconjugants that are resistant to both antibiotics. Results of conjugations assays performed in **B)** liquid media and **C)** on plates. Conjugation

assays were carried out using *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 as the donor, with a kanamycin-resistance gene on one of its native 65 kb, 78 kb and 262 kb plasmids. Each donor strain was mated with recipient strains, *M. algicola* or *D. shibae*, marked with a gentamicin-resistance gene on their chromosome. As a control ("C" in the graphs), *P. inhibens* P72 carrying a kanamycin-resistance gene on its 57 kb native plasmid was used as a donor and mated with *M. algicola* or *D. shibae* recipients carrying a gentamicin-resistance gene on their chromosome. Dots represent individual biological replicate and lines indicate the mean value. Conjugation efficiency was calculated by normalizing transconjugant cell numbers to donor cell numbers. The title above each graph denotes *Donor/Recipient*.

Fig. 2. The *P. inhiben*s P72 strain serves as a plasmid donor to various recipients. A) Conjugation assays were performed in liquid media with *P. inhibens* P72 as a plasmid donor, carrying on its native 57 kb plasmid a kanamycin-resistance gene. The recipient strains *M. algicola, D. shibae* and *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, were marked with a gentamicin-resistance gene on their chromosome. Dots represent individual biological replicate and lines indicate the mean value. Conjugation efficiency was calculated by normalizing transconjugant cell numbers to donor cell numbers. The title above each graph denotes *Donor/Recipient*. **B)** Gel images of PCR products for validation of the transconjugants. From each donor-recipient pair, seven transconjugant colonies were randomly selected (marked 1-7). Each colony was streaked three times, followed by genomic extraction and PCR reactions. The transconjugants were tested using three sets of primers that identify the donor strain, recipient strain, and the transferred plasmid. Positive controls (PC) included primers and the corresponding strain DNA, and negative controls (NC) included the opposing strain DNA (i.e., primers targeting the donor strain with DNA of the recipient strain). Each gel image corresponds to the graph above it. L marks the 1 kb ladder incorporated in all gels.

Fig. 3. Another Roseobacter strain that carries a plasmid-encoded T4SS can serve as a plasmid donor. A) Conjugation assays were performed with *D. shibae* as a donor strain, marked with a gentamicin-resistance gene on its 126 kb native plasmid. Recipient strains were *P. inhibens* DSM 17395 or *P. inhibens* P72, both marked with a kanamycin-resistance gene on their chromosome. Dots represent individual biological replicate and lines indicate the mean value. Conjugation efficiency was calculated by normalizing transconjugant cell numbers to donor cell numbers. The title above each graph denotes *Donor/Recipient*. **B)** Gel images of PCR products for validation of the transconjugants. From each donor-recipient pair, seven transconjugant colonies were randomly selected (marked 1-7). Each colony was streaked three times, followed by genomic extraction and PCR reactions. The transconjugants were tested using three sets of primers that identify the donor strain, recipient strain, and the transferred plasmid. Positive controls (PC) included primers and the corresponding strain DNA, and negative controls (NC) included the opposing strain DNA (i.e., primers targeting the donor strain with DNA of the recipient strain). Each gel image corresponds to the graph above it. L marks the 1 kb ladder incorporated in all gels.

Fig. 4. Algal exudates do not influence the expression of genes encoding the T4SS.
Relative gene expression of *virB4*, *virB8* and *virD4* genes was assessed using qRT-PCR.
RNA was extracted from bacterial cultures of *D. shibae* and *P. inhibens* P72 strains under (**A**)
control conditions and (**B**) following treatment either with artificial seawater as control (ASW,
orange, data identical to panel A) or with algal exudates (Algal filtrates, green). Data points
represent the mean of three technical replicates originating from one biological sample, lines
represent replicates mean values.

Fig. 5. Algal exudates increase conjugation efficiency. Conjugation assays were performed with either *P. inhibens* P72 as a donor, marked with a kanamycin-resistance gene on its native 57 kb plasmid, or *D. shibae* as a donor, marked with a gentamicin-resistance gene on its native 126 kb plasmid. For *P. inhibens* P72, three strains were tested as recipient: *M. algicola, D. shibae* and *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, and were marked with a gentamicin-resistance gene on their chromosome. For *D. shibae,* the recipient strain was *P. inhibens* DSM 17395, chromosomally marked with a kanamycin-resistance gene. Mating was performed with cultures treated with artificial seawater (ASW) as control (orange) or with algal exudates (algal filtrates, green). Conjugation efficiency was calculated by normalizing transconjugant cell numbers to donor cell numbers. The title above each graph denotes *Donor/Recipient*. Dots represents one biological sample and lines represent mean values. Statistical significance was calculated using a t-test, $p<0.05$ marked *, $p<0.01$ marked **, and not significant marked ns.