Prochlorococcus rely on microbial interactions rather than on chlorotic resting stages to

survive long-term stress

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Running title: Chlorosis and survival in *Prochlorococcus*

Abstract

Many microorganisms produce resting cells with low metabolic activity that allow them to survive

prolonged nutrient or energy stress. We show that *Prochlorococcus*, the dominant phytoplankton

lineage in large regions of the nutrient-poor ocean, cannot survive extended stress alone. In late

stationary phase cultures, some cells retain metabolic activity (single-cell carbon and nitrogen uptake),

but these axenic cultures do not re-grow when transferred into new media. However, when co-cultured

with a heterotrophic bacterium, *Prochlorococcus* survived nutrient starvation for months. This

dependence on heterotrophic bacteria is not limited to nutrient starvation - up to 10% of the

Prochlorococcus cells in the oceans live under conditions of light starvation, surviving by utilizing organic

compounds released by other microorganisms. We propose that reliance on co-occurring heterotrophic

bacteria or on the organic compounds they produce, rather than the ability to survive extended

starvation as resting cells, underlies the ecological success of *Prochlorococcus*.

Introduction

Not all microbial cells living in natural environments are equally active. In aquatic environments, up to

90% of the cells do not exhibit measurable metabolic activity ("vitality"), based on dyes (e.g. that assess

electron transport) or on uptake assays with labeled substrates (1). Several possible and non-exclusive

explanations have been proposed for this heterogeneity. First, inherent differences in activity between

genetically-different organisms, e.g. due to variations in maximum growth rate or the ability to utilize

the specific substrate tested. Second, cells might be at different physiological states, e.g. exponentially

growing, starved or dying, and thus exhibiting different levels of metabolic activity (2, 3). Third, cells

show stochastic fluctuations in their activity, due to noise in gene expression or regulatory networks (4).

Finally, some organisms respond to environmental stress by producing resting stages or spores. Such

cells often exhibit very low (or undetectable) metabolic activity, yet are viable, namely able to return to

an active state and reproduce when environmental conditions return to favorable (5). The presence of

such resting stages, together with a fluctuating activity at the single-cell level and the genetic variability

found within natural populations, are suggested to promote the survival of the population as a whole (2,

6).

Understanding the factors affecting the metabolic activity (vitality) of phytoplankton is of special

interest. These microbial primary producers perform about one-half of the photosynthesis on Earth,

providing energy through carbon fixation at the base of the aquatic ecosystem (7). As phytoplankton

grow, they take up elements such as nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) from the environment, potentially

leading to low nutrient concentrations that may constrain the growth of both the phytoplankton

themselves and co-occurring organisms (8, 9). Phytoplankton viability, including their ability to survive

under conditions of nutrient stress, has been extensively studied, especially for organisms that produce

massive blooms that emerge and decline rapidly (reviewed by (10-12)). For example, some bloom-

forming cyanobacteria such as *Aphanizomenon* species produce morphologically-distinct spores that

show very little photosynthetic activity, yet remain viable in the sediment for long periods of time,

providing the inoculum for the next growth season (13). In laboratory cultures of *Synechococcus*

elegantus PCC 7942 and *Synechocystis* PCC 6803, two unicellular freshwater cyanobacteria, nitrogen

starvation results in a programmed process where cells enter a resting stage, enabling them to survive

prolonged periods of stress (14, 15). As part of this process, cells degrade their photosynthetic

apparatus in a controlled manner, resulting in a loss of chlorophyll autofluorescence and culture

bleaching (a process termed chlorosis). However, the observation that chlorotic cells are viable resting

stages is not universal. Chlorotic cultures of *Microcystis aeruginosa* PCC 7806 were shown to contain a

small population of non-chlorotic cells with high chlorophyll auto-fluorescence (described throughout

this study as "high-fl"). Only these high-fl cells were suggested to revive after the re-addition of a

nitrogen source, while the low-fl cells are presumably dead (16). Chlorotic cells were also observed in

eukaryotic phytoplankton albeit it is not yet clear to what extent such cells remain viable as it may

depend on the specific organism and stress conditions (11, 17, 18).

Prochlorococcus is a pico-cyanobacterium that is extremely abundant in the oligotrophic oceans,

performing an estimated ~8.5% of global ocean photosynthesis (19). The carbon fixed by these

organisms, estimated to produce up to 75% of the daily photosynthetic carbon in the surface layer of

the Pacific subtropical gyre (20), can then be utilized by co-occurring heterotrophic bacteria.

Prochlorococcus cells in the oceans exhibit extremely high genetic diversity (21), and some of this

diversity has been linked with their ability to grow under conditions of extreme nutrient limitation (e.g.

(22, 23)). It has therefore been suggested that this genetic diversity enables *Prochlorococcus* as a group

to thrive across a wide variety of oceanic conditions (24). While the physiological and transcriptional

responses of multiple *Prochlorococcus* lineages to short-term nutrient starvation have been extensively

studied (e.g. (22, 25-29)), little is known about their ability to survive more than a few days under such

conditions. A study on the response of *Prochlorococcus* strains to extended darkness (i.e. C starvation)

has shown that these organisms can survive light starvation only for a limited time (30). In these

experiments, low-fl cell populations reminiscent of chlorotic cells in other cyanobacteria appear after

the light-starved cultures were re-exposed to light, regardless of whether these cultures could continue

growing (30). Our experiments were therefore designed to answer the following questions: i) Do

Prochlorococcus respond to long-term nutrient starvation by producing chlorotic cells? ii) If so, are such

cells metabolically active (vital) and are they able to reproduce and grow when stress conditions end

(viable)? iii) Can chlorotic *Prochlorococcus* cells be observed in nature? To address these questions, we

used fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) to obtain distinct chlorotic sub-populations from axenic

and unialgal laboratory cultures of *Prochlorococcus* which were pre-incubated with isotopically-labelled

tracers for photosynthesis ($H^{13}CO_3$) and nutrient uptake ($^{15}NH_4^+$) and we visualized their activity using

Nanoscale Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (NanoSIMS). This method enabled us to measure

photosynthesis and N uptake at a single cell resolution by quantifying the change in isotopic ratios (31,

32). Our results show that while *Prochlorococcus* do undergo a chlorosis-like process, with some of the

chlorotic cells still photosynthesizing and taking up NH_4^+, the chlorotic cells are unable to re-grow and

thus do not represent resting stages. Instead, co-culture with heterotrophic bacteria in the lab and

mixotrophy in the ocean, two aspects of microbial interactions, enable *Prochlorococcus* to survive long-

term stress even without producing resting stages.

Results and discussion

Emergence of chlorotic sub-populations in *Prochlorococcus* cultures

As *Prochlorococcus* batch cultures reach stationary stage and start declining, the green color of the

cultures disappears, and sub-populations of cells emerge with lower chlorophyll autofluorescence that

can be identified by flow cytometry (Figure 1A, B). This phenomenon is observed in strains from all

major cultured ecotypes, as well as in a marine *Synechococcus*, strain WH8102 (Figure 1C). In the high-

light adapted strain *Prochlorococcus* MIT9312, lower chlorophyll populations emerged in batch cultures

that reached stationary stage due to both N and P limitation, although the timing of sub-population

emergence and the forward light scatter and chlorophyll autofluorescence (analyzed by flow cytometry)

were different under the two nutrient stresses (Supplementary Fig. 1A, B). Cells with lower chlorophyll

autofluorescence also appeared in populations of another strain, the low-light adapted MIT9313, when

these cultures were inhibited in a co-culture with high cell densities of the heterotrophic bacterium

Alteromonas HOT1A3 (Supplementary Fig. 1C, D (33)). Thus, the emergence of populations of cells with

lower chlorophyll autofluorescence under a variety of stress conditions is a pervasive phenomenon

across marine pico-cyanobacteria. We focused our experiments aiming to better characterize this

phenomenon on *Prochlorococcus* strain MIT9313, as the response to stress in this strain has been

extensively studied (e.g. (22, 26, 27, 33-35)). Additionally, in this strain, three clearly separate sub-

populations can be observed when cultured in Pro99 media, facilitating the sorting and subsequent

nanoSIMS analyses (Figure 1B, referred to throughout the study as high-, mid- and low-fl populations).

Figure 1. Emergence of chlorotic sub-populations in *Prochlorococcus* batch cultures as measured by flow cytometry. A) A representative growth curve of an axenic culture of MIT9313, grown in Pro99. The arrows mark the days shown in panel B. B) Flow cytometry scattergrams at the marked time-points from the MIT9313 culture. The x-axis is Forward Scatter (FSC, a proxy for cell size) and the y-axis is the chlorophyll autofluorescence of the cells (Per-CP). The emergence of chlorotic sub-population observed from the late exponential phase (Day 18). C) Chlorotic sub-population observed in ageing batch cultures of *Prochlorococcus*, belonging to different ecotypes: High-Light adapted MED4 (HLI), MIT9312 (HLII) and Low-Light adapted NATL2A (LLI) and MIT9313 (LLIV). In all strains, the chlorotic cells begin to emerge at late growth stage, becoming dominant in declining cultures, while in the exponential phase only one population can be observed. Additional growth curves for this strain and for others, including replicate standard deviations, as shown in Figures 3 and 4 and in

supplementary figures 1, 3, and 6-9.

Assessing the metabolic activity of sorted chlorotic sub-populations

We next asked whether the high, mid- and low-fl populations differ in their vitality, measured here as

their photosynthesis and nutrient uptake rates (incorporation of $H^{13}CO_3^-$ and $^{15}NH_4^+$, respectively). The

uptake ratio of labeled versus unlabeled nutrients were then used to calculate the metabolic activity of

the sorted cells (Table 1). As shown in Figure 2 and Table 1, the mean uptake of both $H^{13}CO_3^-$ and $^{15}NH_4^+$

was highest in the high-fl population, followed by the mid and low-fl populations, with the latter

population indistinguishable from the control, i.e. glutaraldehyde-killed cells. We have repeated the

entire workflow in an independent experiment, and the results are very similar (Supplementary Fig. 2,

Table 1). These results are reminiscent of observations in several eukaryotic phytoplankton (18).

Figure 2. Metabolic activity of sorted sub-populations by NanoSIMS A) Flow cytometry scatterplots before and after sorting of three distinct sub-populations (high, mid and low-fl) of an aging *Prochlorococcus* MIT9313 culture, detected by flow cytometry. The cultures were grown for 30 days in Pro99 and labeled with $H^{13}CO_3^-$ and $^{15}NH_4^+$ for 18h. B) NanoSIMS images of $^{15}N/^{12}C$ analysis of killed cells (negative control) and high, mid and low-fl cells after sorting. C) Scatterplot of $^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$ ratios obtained from NanoSIMS analysis of each sub-population. D, E) Boxplots of the $^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$

enrichment in each sub-population. Lines represent the median, X represents the mean, box borders are 1st quartiles and whiskers represent the full range.

Strain and growth stage	Sub-population	Illumination	V^C (fg cell^{-1} day^{-1})		V^N (fg cell^{-1} day^{-1})	
Batch culture						
MIT9313, exponential growth*	High	Constant light 27 µE	12.92 ± 11.93		2.74 ± 2.43	
MIT9313, old cultures **	High	Constant light 27 µE	2.67-2.77 ± 2.89-3.57		0.62-0.69 ± 0.54-0.63	
	Mid		0.75-0.79 ± 1.73-1.78		0.25-0.32 ± 0.42-0.35	
	Low		0.09-0.14 ± 0.52-0.67		0.08-0.14 ± 0.15-0.12	
MIT9313, old culture***	High	Photo-period 12:12 L/D, 27 µE	1.01 ± 2.67		0.32 ± 0.33	
	Mid		0.48 ± 2.47		0.20 ± 0.20	
	Low		0.13 ± 0.31		0.14 ± 0.11	
Natural samples						
115m	High	Natural cycle	1.04 ± 0.6		1.17 ± 0.20	
115m	Low	approximately	1.14 ± 0.69		1.15 ± 0.38	
125m	High	14:10 L/D,	1.21 ± 0.89		1.28 ± 0.21	

2-5 µE

Table 1: Calculated mean C and N uptake rates from the experiments performed with *Prochlorococcus*

MIT9313 and natural samples. The means and standard deviation were calculated from the uptake

rates values of single cells in each experiment.

*The results for MIT9313 exponential growth refers to the experiment presented in Supplementary Fig.

4.

**The results for old MIT9313 cultures under constant light refer to the two experiments presented in

Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. 2.

*** The results for Old MIT9313 cultures under L/D refer to the experiment presented in Supplementary

Fig. 3. The experiment was sampled after a longer period due to slower growth under a light-dark cycle

compared with constant light (Supplementary Fig 3A).

The mean uptake rates for glutaraldehyde killed cells (control) were 0.06±0.15 fg cell-1 day-1 for C and

0.18±0.02 fg cell-1 day-1 for N, and most likely depict the absorption of the label by non-specific binding

or diffusion.

Within each of the populations, cell-cell heterogeneity was observed in both ^{13}C and ^{15}N uptake

(Fig. 2, Supplementary Fig. 2). Within all of the populations (including the high-fl), some cells were

inactive, and this could not be explained by the limited purity of the FACS-sorting procedure

(Supplementary Tables 1, 2). The coefficients of variation in C and N uptake rates were within the range

shown for other organisms, or higher (Supplementary Table 3 (32, 36)). Similar levels of heterogeneity

(primarily in N uptake) were also seen in cells grown under a 12:12 light-dark cycle, where the

Prochlorococcus cell-cycle follows a diel rhythm, suggesting that this heterogeneity is not due to

different stages of the cell cycle or the diel cycle (Supplementary Table 3, Supplementary Fig. 3). Cell-cell

heterogeneity was also observed in cells from an exponentially-growing, nutrient-replete culture

(Supplementary Figure 4, Table 3), suggesting that this heterogeneity is not exclusively limited to ageing

or stressed cells. This is in accordance with studies assessing the vitality of *Prochlorococcus* cells using

various dyes, which consistently show that a significant fraction of the cells in laboratory cultures are

inactive or potentially dead (37, 38).

In addition to differing in their chlorophyll autofluorescence and metabolic activity, the high-, mid-

and low-fl cell populations also differ by their forward and side light scatter properties, which are

related to cell size and (in larger cells) morphological complexity (Supplementary Fig 5A, B). In

agreement with these observations, cells sorted from the high-fl population and observed by SEM

(Scanning Electron Microscopy) were 20-30% larger than those from the mid- and low-fl populations

(Sup Fig 2C, D).

Evaluating the viability of sub-populations

To determine whether the low-fl *Prochlorococcus* MIT9313 cells are viable resting stages, we tested the

ability of cells from MIT9313 cultured in Pro99 media to grow upon transfer to new growth media at

different times during exponential growth and upon culture decline. As shown in Figure 3A, only cells

from cultures where the high-fl cells were dominant could grow when transferred to new growth media.

No growth was observed upon transfer of cells from stationary or declining cultures where no high-fl

cells were observed. Intriguingly, the presence of high-fl cells was not enough to ensure culture growth

(e.g. day 34 in Figure 3A). This is consistent with a previous study showing that cells belonging to a

different *Prochlorococcus* strain, MED4, that were incubated for three days in the dark, were unable to

resume growth after return to light despite showing no clear difference in the chlorophyll

autofluorescence (30). The probability of growth after transfer did not depend on the number of

transferred cells (39), with as many as 2.5×10^7 cells/ml failing to grow after transfer during culture

decline (cells at ~1/10 of this density grew after being transferred during exponential stage). Thus, non-

chlorotic cells (defined as being within the range of chlorophyll autofluorescence exhibited by

exponentially-growing cells) are not necessarily viable.

One problem with performing experiments in Pro99, which is commonly used to culture

Prochlorococcus, is that the conditions causing cells to reach stationary stage are not always clear (e.g.

(40). We therefore repeated these experiments under conditions where entry into stationary phase is

induced by N or P starvation (Figure 3B, Supplementary Fig 6, (41)). When entry into stationary stage

was induced by N or P starvation, chlorotic cells appeared much faster, and the cultures became non-

viable much earlier – essentially immediately after the cessation of exponential growth. Similar results

were obtained with a different strain of *Prochlorococcus*, MIT9312 (Supplementary Figure 7). However,

a marine *Synechococcus* (strain WH8102) behaved differently, surviving N starvation much longer and

being able to re-grow in nutrient replete media long after the culture started declining, and when

essentially all cells were chlorotic (Supplementary Figure 8). This is reminiscent of the ability of

(presumably axenic) cultures of two freshwater cyanobacteria, *Synechococcus* PCC 7942 and

Synechocystis PCC 6803, to revive after extended N starvation (14, 15).

Figure 3: Time-dependent changes in viability of cells transferred into fresh media at different life cycle stages of a batch culture for MIT9313 in Pro99 (A-C) and when stationary stage is induced by N starvation (D-F). A, D) Growth curves of a MIT9313 culture, in Pro99 media commonly used for *Prochlorococcus* culturing (A) and under conditions where stationary stage is induced by nitrogen starvation (panel D, 2:1 N/P ratio in the growth media, (41)). Colored circles indicate the times point at which triplicate 1ml samples were transferred into 20 ml fresh media. B, E) Flow cytometry scatterplots of the culture shown in panels A and D. Note that, under conditions of N starvation, the cultures shift rapidly from being comprised primarily of high-fl cells (day 19 in panel E, early stationary phase) to mainly mid-fl cells, with essentially no high-fl cells (day 21 in panel E). C, F) Growth curves of cells being transferred at different times to new, nutrient-replete media (assessed via bulk culture fluorescence). In these plots, each line shows a replicate culture. Cells could not re-grow when transferred after more than 31 days in Pro99 and 17 days of nitrogen starvation. This suggests that, in this strain, high-fl cells are not necessarily viable.

The inability of *Prochlorococcus* strains to survive long-term nutrient starvation was surprising,
and we therefore hypothesized that their survival would be enhanced by interactions with co-occurring
heterotrophic bacteria. Indeed, when co-cultured with a heterotrophic bacterium, *Alteromonas* HOT1A3
(33, 42), *Prochlorococcus* strains representing all major cultured ecotypes were able to re-grow after 60
days of N and P stress, whereas all axenic strains failed to do so (Figure 4, supplementary Figure 9).
Interestingly, strain MIT9313, which was initially inhibited by this *Alteromonas* strain (Figure 4A, (33,
43)), was also able to survive long-term starvation in co-culture, suggesting that fundamentally different
interactions occur during exponential growth compared to long-term, presumably nutrient-limited

growth. These results are consistent with the ability of heterotrophic bacteria to extend the survival

time of different *Prochlorococcus* strains under conditions of constant darkness (albeit for only several

days, (30)) and with the ability of different heterotrophic bacteria to support the long-term viability of

batch cultures of *Synechococcus* WH7803 (44). We observed similar results when *Prochlroococcus*

cultures were transferred from nutrient-replete media into sterile sea water with no added nutrients

(Supplementary Figure 10). This suggests that the ability of the heterotrophs to support *Prochlorococcu*s

survival is due to nutrient remineralization rather than to the detoxification of potential waste products,

although a potential role for de-toxification cannot be ruled out (Christie-Oleza et al. 2017).

Figure 4: Co-culture with a heterotrophic bacterium, *Alteromonas* HOT1A3, enables multiple *Prochlorococcus* strains to survive long-term N starvation. A) 10^6 axenic *Prochlorococcus* cells ml^{-1} from different strains were incubated alone (green line) or with the addition of 10^7 *Alteromonas* HOT1A3 cells

ml^{-1} in low-N media (grey line). Bulk culture fluorescence was recorded as a proxy for cell growth, and 1ml from each culture was transferred into 25ml fresh Pro99 media after 60 days. Panel B) The transferred cultures were recorded for additional 40 days. Error bars are standard deviation from triplicate cultures. The late growth of MIT9313 in co-culture is the "delayed growth" phenotype described in (33, 43). C) Flow cytometry scattergrams of the cultures shown in panel A. Co-culture with *Alteromonas* increases the number of *Prochlorococcus* cells seen by flow cytometry, suggesting a reduction in the magnitude of mortality (cell lysis). A decrease in per-cell chlorophyll autofluorescence is still seen.

Exploring the metabolic activity of naturally occurring sub-populations of *Prochlorococcus* at different
depths in the eastern Mediterranean

While chlorotic cells consistently emerge under nutrient starvation in all tested *Prochlorococcus* strains
(Fig 1), growth conditions in laboratory cultures greatly differ from those in the oligotrophic sea. For
example, in the experiments described above, where the immediate cause for cessation of growth is N
or P starvation (Figure 3, Supplementary Figures 6-10), cell densities and nutrient concentrations are still
orders of magnitude higher in the lab than in the nutrient-poor ocean. Under these conditions, pH might
vary significantly, and potentially toxic by-products of cell metabolism can accumulate (40, 44). Indeed,
little is known about the prevalence of chlorosis under natural conditions for phytoplankton in general,
which include variability in light intensity, nutrient concentrations etc. Thus, we wondered whether
chlorotic *Prochlorococcus* cells (defined as low-fl and low C and N uptake) can be identified also in
nature. We focused on the deep euphotic zone (100-140m, above the nutricline) where both inorganic
nutrient concentrations and light availability are low. At this depth, "double" *Prochlorococcus*
populations, differing by their chlorophyll auto-fluorescence, have repeatedly been observed (e.g. (45,

46)). Previously, these double populations have been shown to contain genetically-different cells

belonging to the High-Light adapted (HL, low chlorophyll) and Low-Light adapted (LL, high chlorophyll)

clades (46), However, a recent study using genetic tools suggested that each of the double populations

consists of both HL and LL cells, implying that phenotypic heterogeneity (acclimation) can also

contribute to this phenomenon (47). We therefore asked whether the double population could also be

due to the presence of chlorotic cells, a process that could occur if, for example, LL cells were mixed

above the nutricline, became exposed to nutrient starvation, and subsequently underwent chlorosis. To

test this hypothesis, we characterized the *Prochlorococcus* population structure and single-cell activity

(carbon fixation and NH_4^+ uptake) during late summer in the ultra-oligotrophic Eastern Mediterranean

Sea (Figure 5A, B). At the time of sampling, the water column was highly stratified and nutrients were

depleted down to around 130 m, with a peak in NH_4^+ concentrations slightly above the nutricline (15nM

at 115m and 125m, Fig. 5B). *Prochlorococcus* were the numerically dominant phytoplankton (Fig 5C),

exhibiting a double population at 115 m, but not at samples collected above or below this depth (Fig 5E).

Amplicon sequencing of the Internal Transcribed Spacer between the 16S and 23S genes (ITS, (47, 48))

revealed that between ~100-137 m LL cells (belonging primarily to the LL-I and LL-IV clades) gradually

replace the HL cells. This is consistent with previous studies (e.g. (47, 49)) but contrasting with the sharp

delineation between the flow-cytometrically defined high-chlorophyll and low-chlorophyll

Prochlorococcus populations (Fig. 5E, (47)).

Mean $H^{13}CO_3^-$ and $^{15}NH_4^+$ uptake rates for the majority of the cells sorted from each of the

double *Prochlorococcus* populations at 115m depth were not statistically different, nor were they

different from cells collected at greater water depths (Figure 5. F, G, Kruskal-Wallis test, p=0.7 for C and

p=0.07 for N). Essentially all of the cells from the Eastern Mediterranean were active, although we did

observe some cells with lower C and N uptake rates in the low-fl population at 115m depth (6/45 cells,

Figure 5F). This contrasts with the observation from our lab experiments, where inactive cells were

observed in all populations, and formed the majority of the cells in the chlorotic (mid- and low-fl)

populations. The observation that essentially all of the *Prochlorococcus* cells in natural samples are

active is consistent with a similar study in the North Pacific (32).

At a depth of 115 m, light intensity was low (5-6 μE during the afternoon), potentially enough to

support the growth of some LL strains but not sufficient for active growth under laboratory conditions of

most HL strains, including those that are present based on the ITS sequences (50). However, previous

studies based on cell cycle analysis and on ^{14}C incorporation into divinyl-chlorophyll a have suggested

that, even at this depth, *Prochlorococcus* cells divide every 4-7 days (51-54). The C uptake rates

observed in the cells from 115 and 137 m (~1 fg cell^{-1} day^{-1}, Table 1) were well below the rate required to

support this division rate, even though the experiment was performed around midday when light

penetration was at its maximum. Additionally, unlike the laboratory cultures, in which C incorporation

rates were 3-6 times higher than N-incorporation rates, in our samples from the Mediterranean Sea the

measured C:N uptake ratio was about 1. Thus, a "deficit" exists in the C budget of *Prochlorococcus* at

these depths, suggesting that a significant part of the carbon needed for *Prochlorococcus* cell growth

was not fixed by the cells through photosynthesis, but rather came from the utilization of dissolved

organic C from other sources i.e. through mixotrophy (see below).

Figure 5: Nutrient uptake of naturally occurring *Prochlorococcus* populations at the Eastern Mediterranean Sea. A-C) Oceanic parameters at the sampling site: Temperature, Oxygen and Chlorophyll (A); Nutrient concentration (TOxN refers to total oxidized nitrogen, NO_2+NO_3) (B); Cell counts by flow cytometry (C). D) Relative abundance of different *Prochlorococcus* clades across the water column, determined by ITS sequencing. E) Histograms of chlorophyll autofluorescence, analyzed from flow cytometry of picoplankton throughout the water column. Note the double population at 115m. The circles represent the populations sorted and analyzed by nanoSIMS. F) Scatterplot of $^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$ ratios obtained from NanoSIMS analysis of each sorted sub-population from 115m and the single population from 125m. G) Boxplots of the $^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$ enrichment in each sub-population. Lines represent the median, X represents the mean, box borders are 1st quartiles and whiskers represent the full range. The three populations did not statistically differ (Kruskal-Wallis test).

Stress survival in pico-cyanobacteria: why is *Prochlorococcus* different?

In this study, we demonstrate that phenotypic heterogeneity between clonal *Prochlorococcus* cells

occurs at multiple "scales". In exponentially growing axenic laboratory cultures of two strains, MIT9313

and MED4, C and N uptake rates differ significantly between individual cells (summarized in

Supplementary Table 3). This variation is independent of genetic variability, and is observed to some

extent in natural populations, suggesting this is a common attribute to all *Prochlorococcus* cells.

Additionally, as axenic cultures become stressed, a larger phenotypic change occurs as cells lose their

chlorophyll auto-fluorescence and become chlorotic. Under these experimental conditions, most cells

are inactive (primarily in the low-fl population, as measured in strain MIT9313), although, we cannot

rule out that even low-fl cells still retain a residual level of activity not detectable by the used methods.

Some cells from the chlorotic populations nevertheless retain at least part of their photosynthetic

capacity, and indeed can fix carbon and take up NH_4. Yet, in our experiments, they do not re-grow when

condition become more favorable. In *Synechococcus elegantus* PCC 7942, chlorotic cultures retain

approximately 0.01% of their photosynthetic activity, as well as a residual level of protein translation,

although it remains unclear whether this is a process shared by all cells in the culture or whether this

activity is only due to a small subset of more active cells (14). The clear difference between the ability of

axenic *Synechococcus elegantus* PCC 7942 and *Synechocystis* PCC6803 to survive long-term N starvation,

and the inability of axenic *Prochlorococcus* cultures to do so, suggests an inherent difference in the

physiology and genomic functional capacity between these unicellular cyanobacteria.

Entry into chlorosis in *Synechocystis* is a regulated process that involves the organized degradation of

the phycobilisomes in parallel with an increase in the storage products glycogen and

polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB) (15). The photosynthesis apparatus of *Prochlorococcus* is different from that

of other cyanobacteria, using unique chlorophyll a2/b2 binding proteins rather than phycobilisomes

(55), and indeed they lack orthologs of the nblA gene required for phycobilisome degradation during

chlorosis (15). Additionally, while *Prochlorococcus* likely use glycogen as a C storage pool (56), they lack

the phaA-C and phaE genes required for PHB biosynthesis and which are induced in *Synechocystis* PCC

6803 under chlorosis (although these genes are not required for revival from chlorosis (15)). Taken

together, these differences suggest that *Prochlorococcus* lack the genetic toolkit employed by

Synechocystis PCC6803 and *Synechococcus elegantus* PCC7942 to enter into a resting stage. However,

we note that *Synechococcus* WH8102 also lacks the gene nblA gene, yet can survive N starvation much

longer in axenic culture than the tested *Prochlorococcus* strains can (Sup Fig 8). This suggests that

additional molecular mechanisms besides nblA-mediated degradation of the phycobilisomes are

important for long-term survival of nutrient starvation in these organisms.

If *Prochlorococcus* are indeed incapable of producing resting stages in response to nutrient or light

starvation, what are the evolutionary drivers of this phenotype, and what are the consequences for the

dynamics of *Prochlorococcus* populations in the ocean? While the open oligotrophic ocean is often

considered a relatively stable environment, nutrient concentrations do fluctuate (8), and phytoplankton

(including *Prochlorococcus*) inhabiting these waters show multiple signs of nutrient stress (57). Many of

the microbes that live in such environments comprising a large fraction of the surface ocean have small,

highly streamlined genomes (58) and this has been suggested to be an adaptation to low nutrient

concentrations (24, 58, 59) . Therefore, it is possible that the lack of resting stages is a result of this

genome streamlining (the genomes of *Synechococcus elegantus* PCC7942 and *Synechocystis* PCC6803

are ~3.2mbp and ~4mbp with their plasmids, respectively, compared to ~1.4-2.5 mbp for

Prochlorococccus strains).

Surviving nutrient stress "with a little help from my friends".

Despite the clear effect of nutrient stress on *Prochlorococcus* in axenic laboratory culture, manifesting in

chlorosis and reduction of vitality, we observed relatively few less-active (potentially chlorotic)

Prochlorococcus cells in the deep euphotic zone of the Eastern Mediterranean (approximately 5% of the

population at 115 m, Figure 5F). It is possible that cell stress and chlorosis change as a function of the

diel cycle, and indeed previous studies have suggested *Prochlorococcus* cell mortality increases during

the night (20, 60). As the sampling of natural population in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea took place

during the day (~12:00-16:00) we cannot exclude this hypothesis. Alternatively, less-active or chlorotic

cells may be removed by selecting grazing (ref*). Finally, the ability of *Prochlorococcus* to thrive under

conditions of extreme nutrient limitation is often explained by their small cell size (increasing their

biomass-specific diffusion), their generally low nutrient requirements, and their specific metabolic

strategies to minimize the per-cell elemental quotas (61-63). However, these mechanisms appear not to

work in axenic laboratory cultures, and thus we propose that interactions with co-occurring

microorganisms, e.g. through the recycling of inorganic nutrients or the exchange of organic

compounds, enable *Prochlorococcus* to survive when nutrient-saving mechanisms are not sufficient, as

suggested for its close relative *Synechococcus* (44). Indeed, the observation that *Prochlorococcus* can

compete with heterotrophic bacteria for amino acids (64), carbohydrates (65) and perhaps DMSP (66,

67) suggests that the utilization of organic molecules by the phototrophic *Prochlorococcus* (mixotrophy)

is prevalent and important in natural communities. This is supported by genomic analyses (68, 69). The

importance of mixotrophy is not limited to organic forms of N or P, however: based on the field data

shown in Figure 5, and as shown in laboratory cultures by Coe and coworkers (30), mixotrophy in

Prochlorococcus might be important also during light starvation. To determine the potential magnitude

of this effect, we calculated the fraction of the *Prochlorococcus* cells in the north Atlantic and Pacific

gyres (Hawaii and Bermuda time series study sites, respectively (49)) that are found under conditions

where the average integrated illumination is not enough to support their growth under laboratory

conditions (50). As shown in Figure 6, an average of ~8-10% of the *Prochlorococcus* cells are likely light-

starved during stratified periods, including the vast majority of LL adapted ecotypes (see supplementary

text for more details).   Notably, cell-specific amino acid uptake rates of *Prochlorococcus* from the

southern Atlantic Ocean increase with depth, and high-fl cells take up more than low-fl cells, although to

what extent this supports the C and N needs of the cells is unknown (64).

Regardless of the specific forms of dissolved organic carbon being utilized by the cells, the lack of any

observed mechanism for the production of resting stages by *Prochlorococcus* may be considered

another manifestation of the "Black Queen Hypothesis", which states that microorganisms "outsource"

essential survival mechanisms such as detoxification of reactive oxygen species to the surrounding

microbial community (70). These forms of microbial interactions likely affect the distribution and activity

of *Prochlorococcus* on a global scale. The increased survival of *Prochlorococcus* under harsh conditions,

supported by its associated heterotrophic bacteria, may enable it to remain active at the single cell level

even during long periods of unfavorable conditions (71, 72). Thus, the tight interactions between

Prochlorccoccus and its bacterial "supporters" likely affects photosynthesis and carbon cycling at the base

of the aquatic foodweb, with potentially profound implications for overall oceanic productivity and

carbon cycling.

Figure 6: Estimating the number of *Prochlorococcus* cells found below their photic zone at Hawaii and Bermuda. A, B) The percent of total *Prochlorococcus* cells found below their photic zone at Hawaii (A) and Bermuda (B), defined as the integrated illumination level supporting the growth of representative strains in laboratory cultures (50) (grey line shows this depth for HL strains). The black line shows the mixed layer depth (MLD), the grey areas are non-stratified conditions where cells may be mixed from

depth to the surface. C, D) The percentage of each *Prochlorococcus* ecotype below its photic depth. For

more information see supplementary text. The data are taken from (49).

Material and Methods

Prochlorococcus **growth and Stable Isotope Incubations**

Axenic *Prochlorococcus* strains were grown in Pro99 media under constant cold while light (27 μE) at

22 °C. Axenicity of the strains was tested routinely, as well as before all major experiments, using test

media (ProMM, (39)). Additionally, no evidence for contaminating heteroteophic cells was observed in

flow cytometry, scanning electron microscopy or when axenic *Prochlorococcus* cultures were used as

negative controls for 16S amplicon sequencing. Bulk chlorophyll fluorescence (FL) (ex440; em680) was

measured almost daily using a Fluorescence Spectrophotometer (Cary Eclipse, Varian). In

parallel, samples for flow cytometry were taken for cell numbers. When three distinct sub-populations

appeared in the flow cytometry, the cultures were labeled with 1mM Sodium bicarbonate-^{13}C and 1mM

Ammonium-^{15}N chloride (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) for 18-24 hours. The optimal incubation time based on

preliminary isotope labeling experiments with *Prochlorococcus* MED4, showing that uptake is identified

already after 3 hours and is linear until 24 hours under our growth conditions (Supplementary figure 11).

Incubations were stopped by fixing 2 ml of the culture with 2X EM grade glutaraldehyde (2.5% final

concentration, Sigma) and subsequently storing at 4 °C until the sorting analysis. Non-labeled cells that

were killed before labeling (by adding 2.5% glutaraldehyde) were used as a negative control.

Cell Sorting and Filtration

Sorting of sub-population was carried out using a BD FACSAria III sorter (BD Biosciences) at the Life

Sciences and Engineering Infrastructure Center, Technion, Israel. Each sample was sorted for 3 sub-

populations: Non-chlorotic (High-fl), Semi chlorotic (Mid-fl) and Chlorotic (Low-fl) (Figure 2A). The

sorting gates for each sub-population were determined from the population observed in forward scatter

(FSC, a proxy for cell size) and auto-fluorescence (PerCP, chlorophyll auto-fluorescence). After sorting,

the sorted sup-population were gently filtered on 13 mm diameter polycarbonate filters (GTTP, 0.2 µM

pore size, Millipore, MA), washed twice with sterile sea water and air-dried. The filters were stored at

4□C until nanoSIMS analyses.

Nanoscale secondary ion mass spectrometry (nanoSIMS) and data analysis

The samples were coated with a layer of ca. 30 nm gold with a Cressington 108 auto sputter coater

(Watford, United Kingdom). Random spots were employed for NanoSIMS analyses. SIMS imaging was

performed using a NanoSIMS 50L instrument (Cameca, Paris, France) at the Leibniz-Institute for Baltic

Sea Research Warnemünde (IOW). A $^{133}Cs^+$ primary ion beam was used to erode and ionize atoms of the

sample. Images of secondary electrons, $^{12}C^-$, $^{13}C^-$, $^{12}C^{14}N^-$ and $^{12}C^{15}N^-$ were recorded simultaneously using

mass detectors equipped with electron multipliers (Hamamatsu). The mass resolving power was

adjusted to be sufficient to suppress interferences at all masses allowing, e.g. the separation of $^{13}C^-$ from

interfering ions such as $^{12}C^1H^-$. Prior to the analysis, sample areas of 50×50 µm were sputtered for 2 min

with 600 pA to erode the gold, clean the surface and reach the steady state of secondary ion formation.

The primary ion beam current during the analysis was 1 pA; the scanning parameters were 512×512

pixels for areas of 30x30 to 48x48 µm, with a dwell time of 250 µs per pixel. 60 planes were analysed.

Analyses of NanoSIMS measurements

All NanoSIMS measurements were analysed with the Matlab based program look@nanosims (73).

Briefly, the 60 measured planes were checked for inconsistencies and all usable planes accumulated,

regions of interest (ROI's) (i.e. *Prochlorococcus* cells and filter regions without organic material for

background measurements) defined based on $^{12}C^{14}N$ mass pictures, and $^{13}C/^{12}C$ as well as $^{12}C^{15}N/^{12}C^{14}N$

ratios calculated from the ion signals for each region of interest.

Uptake rate calculation

Uptake rate was estimated using the following equation, based on that of (74), as follows:

$$V = \frac{\left(\%P_t - \%P_0\right)}{\left(\%D_i - \%D_0\right)}\frac{Q}{t}$$

Where $\%P^*_t$ is the concentration (atom %) of the heavy isotope in the particulate matter at the end of

the incubation, $\%D^*_i$ is the concentration of the dissolved tracer added to the incubation (and assumed

not to change over the short incubation time), and $\%P^*_0$ and $\%D^*_0$ are the natural heavy isotope

concentrations in the particulate and dissolved matter, respectively. We estimated Q, the cell quota (in

fg cell^{-1}) of C or N, based on measurements of the biomass of MED4 and MIT9313 (66 fg cell^{-1} and 158 fg

cell^{-1}, respectively, (75)) and assuming that C comprises 50% and N comprises 7.5% of the cell biomass.

For heavy isotopes concentration in the particulate and dissolved phases before incubation we used the

natural values for isotopic ratios of ^{13}C and ^{15}N (1.12% and 0.37% respectively). For the experiment

shown in Supplementary Fig. 8, we measured the NH_4^+ concentration in the media and added the ^{15}N

tracer to 50% final concentration. Since all other experiments were performed in declining cultures we

assumed that the NH_4^+ was depleted from the media, and thus $\%D^*_t$ was defined as 90%, based on

previous measurements of NH_4^+ concentrations in old cultures. We used a value of 50% for the initial

percentage of ^{13}C, based on dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) measurements (41). For the terminal

concentrations of ^{15}N and ^{13}C in the particulate phase ($\%P^*_t$) we used the values of $^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$

that were obtained from the NanoSims analysis of the cells. $^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$ below the natural values

resulted with negative uptake values, and were treated as zero uptake.

Mean and standard deviation of C and N uptake rates were calculated from the uptake rate values of

individual cells (Table 1). The uptake rate values were not corrected for negative control (killed cells),

which are presented for comparison in table 1. Since $^{13}C/^{12}C$ and $^{15}N/^{14}N$ values of individual cells were

not normally distributed, for significance analysis we used non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney and

Kruskal-Wallis tests) performed using the Real Statistics Resource Pack software (Release 5.4 www.real-

statistics.com).

Isotope labelling and phylogenetic analysis of a natural marine bacterioplankton population at sea

Water collection and labelling experiment procedure

Mediterranean seawater was collected during August 2017 (station N1200, 32.45 degrees N, 34.37

degrees E) from 11 depths by Niskin bottles and divided into triplicates of 250 ml polycarbonate bottles.

Two bottles from each depth were labeled with 1mM Sodium bicarbonate-^{13}C and 1mM Ammonium-^{15}N

chloride (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) and all 3 bottles (2 labelled and 1 control) were incubated at the original

depth and station at sea for 3.5 hours on day time. The short incubation time was chosen to minimize

isotope dilution and potential recycling and transfer of ^{13}C and ^{15}N between community members (32).

After incubation, bottles were brought back on board and the incubations were stopped by fixing with

2X EM grade glutaraldehyde (2.5% final concentration) and stored at 4⬚°C until sorting analysis.

DNA collection and extraction from seawater

Samples for DNA collected on a 0.22 μm Sterivex filters (Millipore). Excess water was removed using a

syringe and 1 ml Lysis buffer (40 mM EDTA, 50 mM Tris pH 8.3, 0.75 M sucrose) was added and both

ends were closed with parafilm. Samples were kept at -80°C until extraction. DNA extracted by using a

semi-automated protocol includes manually chemical cell lysis before the automated steps. The manual

protocol began with thawing the samples, then the storage buffer was removed using a syringe and 170

µl lysis buffer added to the filter. 30 µl of Lysozyme (20 mg/ml) added to filters and incubate at 37°C for

30 min. After incubation, 20 µl proteinase K and 200 µl Buffer AL added to the tube for 1 hour at 56°C

(with agitation). Then, the supernatant transferred to a new tube, which subjected to the QIAcube

automated system (at the BioRap unit, Faculty of Medicine, Technion) following the manufacturer's

instructions using QIAamp DNA Mini Protocol: DNA Purification from Blood or Body Fluids (Spin

Protocol) from step 6. All DNA samples were eluted in 100 µl DNA free distilled-water.

16S and ITS PCR amplification

PCR amplification of the ITS was carried out with specific primers for *Prochlorococcus* CS1_16S_1247F

(5'-ACACTGACGACATGGTTCTACACGTACTACAATGCTACGG)   and   Cs2_ITS_Ar   (5'-

TACGGTAGCAGAGACTTGGTCTGGACCTCACCCTTATCAGGG) (47, 48). The first PCR was performed in

triplicate in a total volume of 25 µl containing 0.5 ng of template, 12.5 µl of MyTaq Red Mix (Bioline) and

0.5 µl of 10 µM of each primer. The amplification conditions comprised steps at 95°C for 5 min, 28/25

(16S/ITS) cycles at 95°C for 30 sec, 50°C for 30 sec and 72°C for 1 min followed by one step of 5 min at

72°C. All PCR products validated on 1% agarose gel and triplicates were pooled. Subsequently, a second

PCR amplification was performed to prepare libraries. These were pooled and after a quality control

sequenced (2x250 paired-end reads) using an Illumina MiSeq sequencer. Library preparation and

pooling were performed at the DNA Services (DNAS) facility, Research Resources Center (RRC),

University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC). MiSeq sequencing was performed at the W.M. Keck Center for

Comparative and Functional Genomics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC).

ITS Sequence processing Paired-end reads, in the format of fastq files were analyzed by the DADA2

pipeline (76). Quality of the sequences per sample was examined using the Dada2 'plotQualityProfile'

command. Quality filtering was done using the Dada2 'filterAndTrim' command with parameters for

quality filtering were truncLen=c(290,260), maxN=0, maxEE=c(2,2), truncQ=2, rm.phix=TRUE,

trimLeft=c(20,20). Following error estimation and dereplication, the dada algorithm was used to correct

sequences. Merging of the forward and reverse reads was done with minimum overlap of 4 bp.

Detection and removal of suspected chimera was done with command 'removeBimeraDenovo'. In total,

388,417 sequences in 484 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were counted. The ASVs were aligned in

MEGA6 (77) and the first ~295 nucleotides, corresponding to the 16S gene, were trimmed. The ITS

sequences were then classified using BLAST against a custom database of ITS sequences from cultured

Prochlorococcus and *Synechococcus* strains as well as from uncultured HL and LL clades.

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Author contributions

DRR, DA, TLK, AV, MV and DS designed experiments, DRR, DA, TLK, LZ, NN and DS performed

experiments and field analyses, DRR, DA, TLK, AV, and FE performed NanoSIMS analyses, DRR, DA, TLK,

AV, LZ, FE, NN, HPG, MV and DS analyzed results, DRR, DA, TLK and DS wrote manuscript with

contributions from all authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests

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