

1 Phage and bacteria diversification through a prophage
2 acquisition ratchet

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16

Abstract

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Lysogeny is prevalent in the microbial-dense mammalian gut. This contrasts the classical view of lysogeny as a refuge used by phages under poor host growth conditions. Here we hypothesize that as carrying capacity increases, lysogens escape phage top-down control through superinfection exclusion, overcoming the canonical trade-off between competition and resistance. This hypothesis was tested by developing an ecological model that combined lytic and lysogenic communities and a diversification model that estimated the accumulation of prophages in bacterial genomes. The ecological model sampled phage-bacteria traits stochastically for communities ranging from 1 to 1000 phage-bacteria pairs, and it included a fraction of escaping lysogens proportional to the increase in carrying capacity. The diversification model introduced new prophages at each diversification step and estimated the distribution of prophages per bacteria using combinatorics. The ecological model recovered the range of abundances and sublinear relationship between phage and bacteria observed across eleven ecosystems. The diversification model predicted an increase in the number of prophages per genome as bacterial abundances increased, in agreement with the distribution of prophages on 833 genomes from marine and human-associated bacteria. The study of lysogeny presented here offers a framework to interpret viral and microbial abundances and reconciles the Kill-the-Winner and Piggyback-the-Winner paradigms in viral ecology.

34 Introduction

35 The human gut contains one of the highest concentrations of bacteria and phages—viruses that
36 infect bacteria—across ecosystems ([Knowles et al. 2016](#); [Wigington et al. 2016](#); [Parikka et al. 2017](#)).
37 This high concentration of microbes is sustained by the daily supply of nutrient-rich compounds
38 received from food intake and microbial metabolism ([Blaut 2011](#); [Cotillard et al. 2013](#); [Mirzaei
39 and Maurice 2017](#)). In other ecosystems—mostly aquatic environments—an increase of resources
40 has been linked to bacterial growth and phage lytic life cycle. This phage strategy produces new
41 phage particles upon infection and subsequently bursts the bacterial host (lysis). Combined with
42 the bacterial growth, the lytic life cycle ensures a rapid turnover of nutrients characteristic of the
43 kill-the-winner (KtW) dynamics ([Maurice et al. 2011](#); [Brum et al. 2016](#); [Thingstad and Lignell
44 1997](#)). In the nutrient-rich and microbial dense gut ecosystem, thus, one would expect a similar
45 phage lytic strategy.

46 Yet the lysogenic life cycle seems to be prevalent in the gut, where upon infection the phage
47 genome integrates in the bacterial host as a prophage, forming a phage-bacteria symbiont called
48 lysogen. Markers of lysogeny have been observed in viral genomic and metagenomic data from
49 healthy adults ([Furuse et al. 1983](#); [Letarov and Kulikov 2009](#); [Reyes et al. 2010](#); [Minot et al.
50 2011, 2013](#); [Mirzaei and Maurice 2017](#); [Beller and Matthijnssens 2019](#); [Shkoporov and Hill 2019](#)).
51 Besides, the frequency of prophages in bacteria is positively correlated with the bacterial growth
52 rate ([Lauro et al. 2009](#); [Touchon et al. 2016](#)). This empirical observation in single cells aligns
53 with having an increase of lysogeny in productive environments like the gut ([Mirzaei and Maurice
54 2017](#); [Kim and Bae 2018](#)). Additionally, the virus-to-microbe ratio (VMR) in the gut is significantly
55 lower than in environments with lower microbial densities ([Knowles, Silveira, et al 2016](#); [Wigington
56 et al. 2016](#); [Parikka et al. 2017](#)). The combination of the factors mentioned above have led to
57 the piggyback-the-winner (PtW) dynamics, which considers lysogeny as a substantial ecological
58 strategy for phages in high microbial density environments ([Knowles et al. 2016](#); [Silveira and
59 Rohwer 2016](#)).

60 The prevalence of lysogeny in gut environments contrast with observations from marine studies
61 over the years, where lysogeny had been characterized as an ecological strategy of phages to survive
62 situations at limiting growth conditions ([Weinbauer 2004](#)). Prophages integrate in poor growth
63 conditions and remain dormant until resources improve. Then the lytic pathway activates the
64 production of new phage particles ([Jiang and Paul 1998](#); [Wilcox and Fuhrman 1994](#); [Payet and
65 Suttle 2013](#); [Maurice et al. 2009](#); [Paul and Weinbauer 2010](#); [Maurice et al. 2011](#); [Brum et al. 2016](#)).
66 This paradox of lysogeny at low versus high productive environments might stem from having
67 overlooked the positive effects of lysogenic conversion in the bacterial host.

68 Prophages provide multiple positive attributes to the host ([Brüssow et al. 2004](#); [Howard-Varona](#)

69 et al. 2017). They confer immunity to the host cell against similar and dissimilar phages—
70 superinfection exclusion mechanism—without necessarily compromising the host’s fitness in labo-
71 ratory experiments (Bondy-Denomy et al. 2016; Mavrich and Hatfull 2019). They can also provide
72 metabolic pathways that improve the host’s competitive edge in different conditions (Bossi et al.
73 2003; Edlin et al. 1975, 1977), supply regulatory proteins (Paul 2008), and promote the expression
74 of promiscuous bacterial enzymes (Hultqvist et al. 2018). Superinfection exclusion provided by
75 prophages also favors the acquisition of transducing virions that kill sensitive bacteria, increasing
76 the gene transfer to lysogens (Haaber et al. 2016; Touchon et al. 2017). This includes antibiotic
77 resistance genes (Colavecchio et al. 2017). Prophages also enhance the adaptation and fitness of
78 lysogens by encoding bacterial virulence factors implicated in animal infection and immune re-
79 sponse evasion (Costa et al. 2018; Ohnishi et al. 2001; Hayashi et al. 2001; Waldor and Mekalanos
80 1996; Fortier and Sekulovic 2013). In addition, the domestication of prophages in bacteria removes
81 the capability of generating new viral particles while conserving phage genes (Bobay et al. 2014), a
82 process linked to the evolutionary acquisition of important bacteria elements such as gene transfer
83 agents (Lang et al. 2012), bacteriocins, and type VI secretion systems (Michel-Briand and Baysse
84 2002; Leiman et al. 2009).

85 Our hypothesis is that these beneficial aspects of lysogeny are particularly favorable at high
86 production and bacterial concentration conditions. We propose that as microbial productivity in-
87 creases, ecosystems transition through recurrent lysogenic-lytic cycles, as illustrated in Figure 1.
88 In an established microbial community with lytic phage turnover, an increase in resources would
89 favor the emergence of lysogens due to the superinfection exclusion defense mechanism and the
90 other advantages conferred by prophages, in consonance with the piggyback-the-winner dynamics
91 (Knowles et al. 2016; Silveira and Rohwer 2016). If the increase in resources is sustained, by virtue
92 of the kill-the-winner dynamics (Thingstad et al. 2014; Våge et al. 2018), adapted virulent and
93 temperate phages that can prey on abundant lysogens will rise, diversifying the community and
94 increasing its richness (Martiny et al. 2014). As the microbial productivity and concentration in-
95 creases, this recurrent lysogenic-lysis cycle would lead to a prophage ratchet, predicting an increase
96 in the frequency of prophages in bacteria (Figure 1).

97 To test this hypothesis, we developed an ecological mathematical model with lytic and lysogenic
98 phage-bacterial community compartments. This ecological model was coupled with a diversification
99 model that estimated the accumulation of prophages in bacterial genomes. Using physiological
100 values for the viral-bacterial traits extracted from the literature, the ecological model recovered viral
101 and bacterial abundances observed across eleven ecosystems, and predicted a relationship between
102 bacterial abundance and richness—defined from a viral predation standpoint. The diversification
103 model predicted distributions of prophage per bacteria that agreed with abundances of prophages

104 estimated bioinformatically in bacteria from aquatic environments and the human gut. It also
 105 provided predictions for the other ecosystems studied, which will further test the PtW-KtW cyclic
 106 framework introduced here.

107 Methods

108 In this study, the terms phages and bacteria refer to the model. The terms viral-like-particles
 109 (VLPs) and microbial cells refer to environmental data. The terms viruses and microbes are used
 110 when discussing the model and environmental data.

111 **Lytic community compartment.** The lytic compartment was modeled using a one-to-one net-
 112 work of phage and bacteria species. A bacterial species was defined ecologically based on being a
 113 prey of a different phage, and, for each community, the total number, n , of phage-bacteria species
 114 pairs was fixed. Phages in this community adopted the lytic cycle, without distinguishing between
 115 temperate and virulent phages. The model aimed to estimate the total phage and bacterial abun-
 116 dances in a community rather than the rank abundance of different taxonomic groups. The phage
 117 and bacterial life traits were approximated to be homogeneous in each community, but different
 118 communities had assigned different physiological values, which were explored stochastically (see
 119 the sampling section below). The net rate of each species in the community was given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \overbrace{\frac{dB_i}{dt}}^{\text{bacterial rate}} &= \overbrace{r \left(1 - \frac{B}{K}\right) B_i}^{\text{logistic growth}} - \overbrace{dB_i P_i}^{\text{lytic infection}}, \\
 \overbrace{\frac{dP_i}{dt}}^{\text{phage rate}} &= \overbrace{c dB_i P_i}^{\text{lytic burst}} - \overbrace{m P_i}^{\text{phage decay}},
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{1}$$

120 Here, B_i denoted each species of sensitive bacterium, and P_i each species of lytic phage. The index i
 121 identified each species and ranged from 1 to n , leading to $2n$ coupled equations per lytic community.
 122 The bacterial net production rate was the balance between the bacterial growth rate and the
 123 infection rate. In the bacterial growth term, the intrinsic growth rate r was reduced by a logistic
 124 factor that accounted for the total concentration of bacteria in the lytic community, $B = \sum_{i=1}^n B_i$,
 125 with respect to the carrying capacity, K . The functional response of phages preying on bacteria
 126 can introduce richer dynamics (Weitz and Dushoff 2008), but it is not usually considered in phage
 127 ecological models (Thingstad and Lignell 1997; Weitz et al. 2015) due to the lack of environmental
 128 parametrization values and its potential variability across different ecosystems (Hunsicker et al.
 129 2011). The phage-bacteria infection mechanism was encoded as a standard mass action term, which
 130 has been reported to have a similar infection rate constant in different environments (Thingstad

131 et al. 2014; Barr et al. 2015; Joiner et al. 2019). This reduced the number of parameters in the
 132 model. The infection rate was assumed to be proportional to the product of bacterial and viral
 133 species concentrations, that is, mass action for each phage-bacterial host pair, where d represented
 134 the infection rate constant. The viral net production was the balance of the lysis (burst size, c ,
 135 times the infection rate) and viral decay (with a decay constant m).

136 The coexistence equilibrium concentrations for each agent in the community, B_i^* and P_i^* , were
 137 obtained by solving analytically the steady-state of Eq. (1), that is, $dB_i/dt = 0$ and $dP_i/dt = 0$.
 138 Coexistence was required for the n species in the community, that is, $B_i^* > 0$ and $P_i^* > 0$. The
 139 stability conditions were obtained analytically using a linear approximation around the equilibrium
 140 values (Strogatz 2015). The Jacobian of the dynamical system was obtained at the coexistence
 141 equilibrium, and the determinant of the characteristic polynomial was transformed until extract-
 142 ing analytical expressions for all eigenvalues. The derivation is detailed in the Supplementary
 143 Information (S.1.1).

144 **Lysogenic community compartment.** This community was formed by n temperate phage-
 145 lysogen pairs. Each lysogen had an active integrated prophage that could spontaneously induced,
 146 producing temperate phages. Thus this community was formed by n temperate phage-lysogen
 147 pairs. This compartment represented bacteria that had recently incorporated a prophage and
 148 was escaping the lytic top-down control in the community through the superinfection exclusion
 149 mechanism observed in laboratory experiments Brüßow et al. 2004. Except indicated otherwise, in
 150 the models the term lysogen refers to these escaping lysogenic community. The set of differential
 151 equations for the net production rate of escaping lysogens (L_i) and temperate phages (T_i) was
 152 given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \overbrace{\frac{dL_i}{dt}}^{\text{lysogenic rate}} &= \overbrace{r \left(1 - \frac{L}{K_L}\right) L_i}^{\text{logistic growth}} - \overbrace{\beta L_i}^{\text{prophage induction}}, \\
 \overbrace{\frac{dT_i}{dt}}^{\text{phage rate}} &= \overbrace{c\beta L_i}^{\text{lytic burst}} - \overbrace{mT_i}^{\text{viral decay}} - \overbrace{\chi dT_i L_i}^{\text{superinfection exclusion}},
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

153 The index i identified each species and ranged from 1 to n , leading to $2n$ coupled equations as in the
 154 lytic community. The net production rate of lysogens was the balance between the lysogenic growth
 155 rate and the spontaneous prophage induction rate. The lysogenic growth was the intrinsic growth
 156 rate times a logistic term that accounted for the fraction of the total concentration of lysogens in
 157 the community, $L = \sum_{i=1}^n L_i$, with respect to the carrying capacity in the lysogenic compartment,
 158 K_L . The phage net production in the compartment was given by the production of temperate

159 phages upon spontaneous prophage induction minus the phage decay and the removal of viable
160 viruses due to superinfection exclusion. A value of $\chi = 1/2$ accounted for a mix of surface defense
161 mechanism with reversible phage-host binding ($\chi = 0$ limit) and defense mechanism inactivating
162 phage DNA ($\chi = 1$ limit) [Jasien 2017](#).

163 The equilibrium concentrations, L_i^* and T_i^* , were obtained analytically by solving the algebraic
164 equations that satisfied steady-state, $dL_i/dt = 0$ and $dT_i/dt = 0$, for the coexistence regime, that
165 is, $L_i^* > 0$ and $T_i^* > 0$ for the n species pairs. The stability conditions were obtained analytically
166 using a linear approximation around the equilibrium values ([Strogatz 2015](#)). The Jacobian of
167 the dynamical system was obtained at the coexistence equilibrium, and the determinant of the
168 characteristic polynomial was transformed until extracting analytical expressions for all eigenvalues.
169 The derivation is detailed in the Supplementary Information ([S.1.2](#)).

170 **Lytic-lysogenic coupling.** The dynamics of the lytic-lysogenic model described in Eqs. (1) and
171 (2) was studied for single species with additional terms accounting for direct interaction [Jasien](#)
172 [2017](#). The superinfection exclusion mechanism led to a dominance of the lysogenic community.
173 This was in agreement with laboratory experiments [Chaudhry et al. 2019](#), but led to a relatively low
174 phage concentration as well as phage-to-bacteria ratio compared to environmental data [Wigington](#)
175 [et al. 2016](#); [Knowles et al. 2016](#); [Parikka et al. 2017](#). To circumvent this issue, the lytic and
176 lysogenic communities were treated in separated compartments, and the lytic community was given
177 a preferential treatment. A given ecosystem was assumed to have an established lytic community
178 with n phage-bacteria pairs. Sustaining this community in equilibrium required a carrying capacity
179 $K > B^*$. The remaining carrying capacity, $\Delta K = (K - B^*)$, was assumed to provide potential
180 resources for the community of lysogens to be established by escaping escaping top-down control
181 due to the superinfection exclusion mechanism [Brüssow et al. 2004](#). The available resources were
182 assumed to promote the formation of new lysogens, and as they increased in abundance it was
183 assumed that phages would evolve to apply top-down control, by virtue of the KtW motif ([Våge](#)
184 [et al. 2018](#)). The model presented here did not have the resolution to explore the arms race between
185 this emerging lysogens and evolving phages. Instead, it assumed that the carrying capacity that
186 escaping lysogens had access to grow, K_L , was proportional to the remaining carrying capacity
187 from the lytic compartment,

$$K_L = f(n, B^*)\Delta K . \quad (3)$$

188 The *escaping lysogenic* factor, f , was established using physical arguments that led to

$$f(n, B^*) = n \frac{B^*}{B_{max}} . \quad (4)$$

189 The arguments were as follows. First, it was assumed that new emerging lysogens would be more
190 likely to form in a richer community. This was based on the lysogenic-lytic cycle hypothesis and
191 the associated speciation through prophage integration. This led to the proportionality term n in
192 the escaping lysogenic factor above. Second, it was assumed that an increase in the concentration
193 of top-down controlled bacteria in the lytic compartment would increase the encounter rate with
194 temperate phages and promote the emergence of new lysogens. This led to the proportionality
195 term B^* . The escaping lysogenic factor must be unitless, so the contribution of the concentration
196 needs to be normalized. This was done dividing the concentration B^* by the maximum packing
197 concentration of bacteria $B_{max} \approx 10^{12}$ bacteria/mL. This was calculated by assuming a bacterial
198 volume of $1 \mu\text{m}^3$ (Milo and Phillips 2015). The total bacterial concentration was the sum of the
199 bacteria in both compartments:

$$M^* = B^* + L^* . \quad (5)$$

200 The same applied to the total phage concentration:

$$V^* = P^* + T^* . \quad (6)$$

201 **Sampling of coexisting equilibria.** Reference values for the intrinsic growth rate (r), infection
202 rate (d), burst size (c), and decay rate (m) were obtained from Thingstad 2000 and Weitz et al. 2017,
203 which published models that used established empirical values. The induction rate of prophages (β)
204 was estimated from phage lambda (Rokney et al. 2008) and phage P1 (Rosner 1972). The range of
205 carrying capacities were extrapolated from the microbial concentrations observed across ecosystems
206 (Knowles et al. 2016). The reference value for each parameter can be found in Table 1. To account
207 for environmental variability, each parameter was investigated for a range that spanned an order
208 of magnitude higher and lower with respect to the reference value. The combination of parameters
209 was explored using latin-hypercube sampling (LHS) (McKay et al. 1979; Weitz et al. 2017). For
210 each given community, that is, a fix number of species n , 2500 equilibria points were sampled
211 in three different scenarios: purely lytic, purely lysogenic, and lytic-lysogenic community. These
212 equilibria included coexisting and non-coexisting solutions. The fraction of coexisting equilibria
213 differed for different communities and scenarios, so 500 coexisting equilibria were randomly selected
214 in each community for analysis. This protocol was applied to communities ranging from $n = 1$ to
215 1000 phage-bacteria pairs.

216 In the LHS, each parameter defined an orthogonal dimension on a hypercube. The range
217 of each parameter was divided into an evenly spaced number of regions equal to the number of
218 points sampled (2500 per fixed n and community model). Each sampling contained a value from
219 a unique region of each parameter, and the value within this region was selected randomly from

220 a uniform distribution. No partition was used more than once throughout the sampling process.
221 All parameters were sampled in linear space except for the carrying capacity, which spanned over
222 seven orders of magnitude (from 10^4 to 10^{11} bacteria/ml) and was sampled in a logarithmic scale
223 on base 10. For lytic communities with fixed richness, this sampling strategy was analogous to
224 that introduced in [Weitz et al. 2017](#).

225 A sensitivity analysis was applied to assess how the variation of the parameter values impacted
226 the total concentration of bacteria (M) and phages (V). The analysis was performed around
227 the mid-range reference value for the intrinsic growth rate (r), infection rate constant (d), decay
228 rate constant (m), burst size (c), induction rate constant (β), superinfection exclusion factor (χ),
229 richness (n), and carrying capacity (K). Technical details are provided in the Supplementary
230 Information, Section [S.4](#) (Sensitivity analysis).

231 A variant of the model incorporating a grazing effect on bacteria was also explored. Grazers
232 were introduced as a generic predator pressure on the bacterial population by the term ($-gB_i$) in
233 the population of bacteria. The grazer pressure rate constant, g , was assumed to be half of the
234 bacterial replication rate $r/2$ ([Fuhrman and Noble 1995](#); [Thingstad and Lignell 1997](#)). This term
235 did not affect the results significantly. Grazers competed with phages, reducing their population
236 abundance only in scenarios with relatively low carrying capacity. The main impact was the
237 amount of percentage of sampled points that displayed stable coexistence, which dropped from
238 90% to 70%. To reduce the number of parameters in the model, the term was not included in the
239 final version of the model.

240 **VLPs and microbial cell concentrations.** Virus-like particles (VLP) and microbial cell counts
241 were extracted from 22 studies covering eleven ecosystems as reported previously in [Knowles et al.](#)
242 [2016](#). The meta-analysis included data from animal ([Barr et al. 2013](#); [Furlan 2009](#); [Kim et al. 2011](#)),
243 coastal/estuarine ([Bettarel et al. 2006](#); [Bouvier and Maurice 2011](#); [Hewson et al. 2001](#); [Maurice](#)
244 [et al. 2011, 2013](#); [Parsons et al. 2015](#); [Schapira et al. 2009](#)), coral reef ([Payet et al. 2014](#)), deep ocean
245 ([Muck et al. 2014](#)), drinking water ([Rinta-Kanto et al. 2004](#)), open ocean ([Parsons et al. 2012](#)), polar
246 lakes ([Laybourn-Parry et al. 2007](#); [Lisle and Priscu 2004](#); [Madan et al. 2005](#)), sediment ([Bettarel](#)
247 [et al. 2006](#); [Glud and Middelboer 2004](#); [Mei and Danovaro 2004](#); [Patten et al. 2008](#)), soil ([Amosse](#)
248 [et al. 2013](#)), soil pore water ([Amosse et al. 2013](#)), and temperate lake/river ([Bouvier and Maurice](#)
249 [2011](#); [Maurice et al. 2010](#)) ecosystems. The studies used either flow cytometry or epifluorescence to
250 estimate cell and viral counts. Epifluorescence was used in 14 out of 22 studies for cell density (84%
251 of the cell data) and 19 out of 22 studies for viral density (4% of the VLP data). The data on VLP
252 and cell counts is provided in Source File 1. The raw image data were not available. The counts
253 were obtained from tables and figures in the original manuscripts. The combined dataset was

254 analyzed using the non-parametric method of smooth splines (*smooth.spline*) with cross-validation
255 implemented by B. D. Ripley and Martin Maechler in the R language for statistical computing
256 (Chambers et al. 1992; R Core Team 2018). Linear, least-squares regressions were calculated in
257 R for logged VLPs and logged microbial concentrations as well as logged virus-to-microbe ratios
258 (VMRs) and logged microbial concentrations. The logged data was in base 10. This analysis was
259 applied to each ecosystem and all ecosystems combined. For the combined ecosystem analysis,
260 the median values were used in the linear regression to reduce oversampling bias from individual
261 ecosystems.

262 **Ecological model predictions.** From the sampled communities in the model, linear statistical
263 models were obtained for the richness, n , as a function of the median phage and bacterial con-
264 centrations using least-squares method. This statistical model was used to estimate the effective
265 richness for each ecosystem studied using the median values for the VLPs and microbial cell abun-
266 dances. For each ecosystem, the final richness was the average of the richness obtained from VLPs
267 and microbial cell abundances. The percentage of bacteria escaping top-down control as lysogens
268 was studied as a function of the community richness for the lytic-lysogenic model. A Hill function
269 of order one (Michaelis-Menten) was fitted using a linear regression (least-squares method) on a
270 double-reciprocal plot (Lineweaver-Burk) to obtain a statistical model of the percentage of escap-
271 ing lysogeny as a function of community richness. This statistical model was combined with the
272 average richness obtained for each ecosystem to predict the percentage of the community escaping
273 top-down control through lysogeny.

274 **Diversification model for the distribution of prophages per bacteria.** A combinatoric
275 model was developed to estimate the number of prophages per bacteria accumulated in different
276 ecosystems. The integration of a prophage and its associated phenotypic advantages to the lysogen
277 represent a substantial genetic variant with respect the original bacterium. Thus, in the diversi-
278 fication model, the integration of a prophage defined the formation of a new bacterial strain. At
279 each diversification step, a newly evolved temperate phage was introduced in the community. Its
280 integration as a prophage defined new bacterial strains. In the first evolutionary step ($z = 1$),
281 the model contained a bacterial community composed of a single bacterial strain ($s = 1$) free of
282 prophages ($q = 0$). In step two ($z = 2$), a temperate phage was introduced. Its integration as a
283 prophage on an undetermined fraction of the initial bacterial strain formed a community with two
284 strains ($s = 2$): the original free-prophage bacterial strain ($q = 0$) and a new strain containing one
285 prophage ($q = 1$). In the third diversification step ($z = 3$), a newly evolved temperate phage was
286 added to the community. Its integration as a prophage promoted the formation of new strains. This
287 led to three total strains ($s = 3$) and two alternative scenarios or states: in state 1, the prophage

288 integrated in a fraction of the free prophage strain, leading to a community with a free-prophage
289 strain ($q = 0$) and two strains with a different prophage each (two $q = 1$ strains); in state 2, the
290 prophage integrated in a fraction of the single-prophage strain from the prior diversification step,
291 leading to a community with a free-prophage strain ($q = 0$), a one-prophage strain ($q = 1$), and a
292 newly formed two-prophage strain ($q = 2$). This diversification process of generating strains was
293 repeated subsequently for an arbitrary number of diversification steps, z , containing at each step
294 $s = z$ number of strains per state. A recursion relationship was derived to calculate the probability
295 of having q prophages per bacteria in a system with z strains, $P(z, q)$.

296 **Distribution of prophage per bacteria from low and high productive environments.**

297 The environmental distribution of prophages per bacteria was assessed from a low (marine sur-
298 face) and high (human gut) productive environments. Phispy (version 3.2) (Akhter et al. 2012)
299 was ran against a curated database of bacterial genomes from the Pathosystems Resource Integra-
300 tion Center (PATRIC). The process of curation focused on adding environmental annotation and
301 removing plasmids, incomplete genomes, and metagenomes. A total of 83 genomes from marine
302 surface bacteria and 750 from human gut were analyzed. Prophage genes were identified based on
303 sequence similarity and genomic signatures as described previously (Akhter et al, 2012). A group
304 of 30 or more prophage genes in a genome defined a single prophage in a bacterial genome. See
305 Source Files 2 and 3.

306 **Diversification model predictions.** The average number of prophages per bacteria obtained
307 in marine surface and human gut environments was combined with the estimated richness from
308 marine and animal gut communities to calibrate the prophage diversification and lytic-lysogenic
309 community models. This facilitated the prediction of prophage frequency per bacteria in different
310 ecosystems. The theoretical number of strains or diversification steps, z , was estimated by obtain-
311 ing the theoretical average of prophages per bacteria, $\langle q(z) \rangle = \sum_{q=0}^{q=z-1} qP(z, q)$, nearest to the
312 average number of prophages obtained, respectively, for marine surface and human gut bacteria.
313 The two theoretical diversification steps, z , were related with the effective number, n , of phage-
314 bacteria pairs in marine surface and human gut assuming a power function model, $z(n) = an^b$.
315 This determined the values for a and b . The parameters obtained were $a = 27.96$ and $b = 2.04$.
316 This power function model was applied to estimate the number of strains (diversification steps),
317 z , as a function of the community richness, n , for each ecosystem studied. The number of strains
318 (or steps) obtained determined the probability of number of prophages per bacteria, $P(z, q)$, for
319 the eleven ecosystems studied.

320 Results

321 In the lytic community, Eq. (1), the equilibrium concentrations for each species of bacteria and
322 phage were respectively, $B_i^* = m/(cd)$ and $P_i^* = (r/d)(1 - B^*/K)$, where i ranged from 1 to the
323 total number of species in the community n . The total bacterial and phage equilibrium concentra-
324 tions were, respectively,

$$B^* = n \frac{m}{cd} \quad (7)$$

325 and

$$P^* = n \frac{r}{d} \left(1 - \frac{B^*}{K}\right) . \quad (8)$$

326 The total bacterial concentration, B^* , was determined by the phage properties, that is, phage
327 decay rate m , burst size c , and infection rate d . This was due to the top-down control applied by
328 lytic phages. The bacterial population was also proportional to the richness of phage-bacteria pairs
329 in the community n . The total phage concentration, P^* , was a function of the bacterial growth
330 rate r , the infection rate d , and the fraction of underutilized resources in the lytic community
331 $(1 - B^*/K)$. The total phage concentration had a quadratic dependence on the phage-bacterial
332 host pair richness, n . The community richness that maximized the concentration of phages was
333 $n_{P_{max}} = 2Km/(cd)$. The analytical expressions for the $2n - 2$ eigenvalues derived from the
334 linear stability analysis indicated that the total phage and bacteria concentrations were stable
335 for carrying capacities larger than the total bacterial population, $K > B^*$ (see Supplementary
336 section S.1.1). The individual species displayed an oscillatory behavior with an angular frequency
337 $\omega = \sqrt{rm(1 - B^*/K)}$. This was a consequence of having multiple one-to-one phage-bacteria pairs
338 sharing the same resources, that is, carrying capacity, K .

339 In the lysogenic community, Eq. (2), the equilibrium distribution of lysogens was determined
340 by the initial concentrations of lysogenic species, $L_i(t)/L(t) = L_i(0)/L(0)$. The total concentration
341 of lysogens was

$$L^* = \left(1 - \frac{\beta}{r}\right) K_L . \quad (9)$$

342 The total concentration of lysogens was proportional to the carrying capacity in the lysogenic
343 compartment, K_L , and it was reduced by the fraction of spontaneous prophage induction per
344 replication (β/r) . Thus, contrary to bacteria in the lytic compartment, the lysogenic community
345 displayed a bottom-up control. This was a consequence of the superinfection exclusion mechanism,
346 which removed the lytic predator pressure on the lysogens. The concentration of temperate phage
347 species in the lysogenic community was $T_i^* = c\beta L_i^*/(m + \chi d L_i^*)$. This led to a total concentration of
348 temperate phages, T^* , as a function of the distribution of lysogenic species. But the concentration
349 of temperate phages generated from the lysogenic community had a small contribution to the pool

350 of phages due to the small spontaneous induction rate. Two extreme cases illustrate this finding.
351 A homogeneous distribution of lysogens, $L_i^* = L_j^*$, led to the total temperate phage concentration
352 $T^* = c\beta L^*/(m n + \chi d L^*)$. A community dominated by a single lysogenic species, $L_1^* \approx L^*$ and
353 $L_{i>1}^* \approx 0$, led to $T^* = c\beta L^*/(m + \chi d L^*)$. Both expressions were Hill functions of order one
354 with respect the lysogenic community, reaching the same plateau as the population of lysogens
355 increased, regardless of the rank abundance of lysogenic species in the community,

$$T^* \approx \frac{c\beta}{\chi d} . \quad (10)$$

356 For the reference values given in Table 1, this was $T^* \sim 2 \cdot 10^2$ phage/ml. Thus, the contribution
357 of temperate phages from the active lysogenic community was small, and the choice of the specific
358 distribution of the lysogenic community did not affect the results of the model significantly. The
359 stability analysis was performed for the most general case, that is, with no specific distribution
360 of lysogens (see Supplementary section S.1.2). There was n negative eigenvalues and $n - 1$ null
361 eigenvalues, and the total concentration of lysogens remain stable for spontaneous induction rates
362 smaller than the bacterial growth rate, $\beta < r$, which was the case for the empirical values, Table
363 1.

364 In the lytic-lysogenic community model, the total bacterial (M^*) and phage concentrations
365 (V^*), which combined the lytic and lysogenic communities sampled stochastically, covered, respec-
366 tively, the range 10^4 – 10^{10} bacteria/ml and 10^5 – 10^{10} phages/ml, in consonance with the ranged
367 observed across the eleven ecosystems studied (Figures 2a and 2b). The phage concentration in-
368 creased sublinearly as a function of the bacterial concentration with an exponent $\alpha = 0.79 \pm 0.04$
369 (SE) ($R^2 = 0.99$, $p < 0.001$, $n_p = 7$), in agreement with the exponent observed environmentally
370 ($\alpha = 0.84 \pm 0.11$ (SE), $R^2 = 0.86$, $p < 0.001$, $n_p = 11$). This power-function relating viral and mi-
371 crobial abundances was a first order approximation. A more refined statistical analyses presented
372 in the Supplementary Information indicated that the exponent of the viral-microbial relationship
373 becomes smaller with microbial concentration for both the model and the environmental data
374 (Figures S.1, S.2, and S.3).

375 The phage-to-bacteria ratios (PBR) in the model ranged from 10^2 to 10^{-2} phage/bacterium
376 (Figures 2c). This aligned with the virus-to-microbe ratios (VMR) observed environmentally (Fig-
377 ure 2d). PBR decreased as a function of bacterial concentration following a power function with
378 exponent $\alpha_{PBR} = -0.21 \pm 0.04$ (SE) ($R^2 = 0.83$, $p < 0.001$, $n_p = 7$), which was consistent with the
379 trend of environmental virus-to-microbe ratios ($\alpha_{VMR} = -0.16 \pm 0.11$ (SE), $R^2 = 0.86$, $p < 0.001$).
380 As expected, the trend in PBR (or VMR) was related with the phage-bacteria (or viral-microbial)
381 exponent by $\alpha_{PBR} \approx \alpha - 1$, since $PBR = V/M$. In communities with fixed richness, the stochastic

382 sampling produces locally a sublinear trend that is intensified as lysogeny increases (Figure S.1).
383 It is worth noting that no parameters were fitted in the model, except to the values used for the
384 minimum and maximum richness (n).

385 The sensitivity analysis indicated that richness (n) was the most relevant parameter in the
386 model, with a sensitivity factor $S_{M,n} \approx 1.5$ in the bacteria population and $S_{V,n} \approx 1$ in the phage
387 population (Figure S.6). This was followed by the infection rate constant (d), which displayed a
388 sensitivity factor $S \approx 1$ in both populations. The decay rate (m) and burst size (c) (both phage
389 traits) were also sensitive in the bacteria population (sensitive factor $S \approx 1$), while the growth
390 rate affected the phage population (sensitive factor $S \approx 1$). The carrying capacity was the last
391 relevant parameter in the bacteria population (sensitive factor $S \approx 0.5$). The other parameters did
392 not have a relevant impact in the community (sensitivity factor, $S \approx 0$). For further details, see
393 Supplementary Information S.4.

394 The purely lytic community model, lacking the lysogenic compartment, recovered similar ranges
395 of phage and bacteria concentrations (Figure S.5a). As in the case of the lytic-lysogenic community
396 model, this was due to the variation of richness, n , across communities. The phage concentration
397 followed a linear relationship with the microbial concentration ($\alpha = 1.00 \pm 0.01$ (SE), $R^2 = 1.00$,
398 $p < 0.001$). Accordingly, the average phage-to-bacteria (PBR) ratio was constant, $PBR \approx 10$
399 (Figure S.5b), that is, it did not vary with respect to the microbial concentration ($\alpha_{PBR} = 0.00 \pm 0.01$
400 (SE), $R^2 = 0.02$, $p = 0.736$), in disagreement with the trend observed environmentally for the virus-
401 to-microbe ratio (Figure 2b). Lysogeny, thus, was necessary in the model to recover a sublinear
402 relationship between phage and bacterial concentrations across ecosystems.

403 The percentage of lysogeny, $L[\%]$ in the lytic-lysogenic community increased as a function of
404 the total bacterial concentration, M^* , saturating near 10^{10} bacteria/ml (Figure 3a). The param-
405 eters obtained for the fitted Hill function of order one were $a = 97.1 \pm 0.7$ and $b = (2.86 \pm 8) \cdot 10^8$
406 bacteria/ml (see details in the caption of Figure 3). The model indicated that the median per-
407 centage of lysogeny increased abruptly at bacterial concentrations larger than 10^6 bacteria/mL. In
408 particular, the median percentage of lysogeny was 1% at $\sim 3.0 \cdot 10^6$ bacteria/mL, 10% at $\sim 3.3 \cdot 10^7$
409 bacteria/mL, 50% at $\sim 3.0 \cdot 10^8$ bacteria/mL, and 90% at $\sim 3.6 \cdot 10^9$ bacteria/mL.

410 To facilitate the comparison with empirical data, the estimated phage-bacteria pair richness
411 obtained for each ecosystem was expressed relative to the ecosystem with the lowest predicted
412 richness, that is, deep ocean (Figure 4a). The relative richness obtained across ecosystems was
413 ~ 1 (deep ocean), ~ 7 (open ocean), ~ 12 (soil pore water), ~ 16 (drinking water), ~ 18 (coral
414 reef), ~ 64 (polar lakes), ~ 85 (temperate lakes), ~ 88 (coastal estuaries), ~ 104 (soil), ~ 248
415 (animal), and ~ 978 (sediment). The phage-bacteria host pair richness of a community increased
416 with the microbial and viral concentrations in ecosystems (Figure 2b).

417 The percentage of escaping lysogens predicted across ecosystems was (Figure 4b) $\sim 0.0073\%$
418 (deep ocean), $\sim 0.11\%$ (open ocean), $\sim 0.15\%$ (soil pore water), $\sim 0.20\%$ (drinking water), $\sim 0.16\%$
419 (coral reef), $\sim 0.37\%$ (polar lakes), $\sim 0.78\%$ (temperate lakes), $\sim 1.5\%$ (coastal estuaries), $\sim 0.5\%$
420 (soil), $\sim 3.7\%$ (animal), and $\sim 27\%$ (sediment). The percentage of escaping lysogeny increased with
421 richness, but some ecosystems, such as coral reefs and soils, displayed a relatively lower lysogeny
422 with respect the contiguous ecosystems. This was due to their higher virus-to-microbe ratios.

423 In the diversification model, the number of bacterial strains with q prophages after z evolution
424 steps (strains in the system) was related to the number of strains containing $q - 1$ prophages in the
425 prior evolution step plus $(z - 1)!$ times the number of bacterial strains having q in the prior step,
426 that is, $R(z, q) = R(z - 1, q - 1) + (z - 1)!R(z - 1, q)$. The total number of strains in the ensemble
427 at step z was $z!$. The probability of having q prophages per bacteria in a given evolutionary step
428 was

$$P(z, q) = \frac{R(z, q)}{z!} = \frac{1}{z}P(z - 1, q - 1) + \frac{z - 1}{z}P(z - 1, q) . \quad (11)$$

429 This determined the theoretical distribution of prophages per bacteria as a function of the total
430 number of strains (evolutionary steps) z .

431 The empirical distributions of prophage per bacteria were obtained for superficial sea water
432 (5 ± 2 (SD) prophage/bacteria, 83 genomes) and human gut (14 ± 5 (SD) prophage/bacteria,
433 750 genomes) (Figure 5a). The theoretical distributions were centered by fitting the prophage
434 evolution generation number (z) to recover the average number of prophage per bacteria obtained
435 empirically, leading to $z_1 = 182$ (marine surface) and $z_2 = 1.41 \cdot 10^6$ (human gut). The theoretical
436 distributions of prophage per bacteria recovered the same distribution shape of the empirical data.
437 By applying the effective richness (n) derived from the ecology model, the evolutionary model
438 predicted the distributions of prophage per bacteria for each ecosystem (Figure 5b). The average
439 number of prophages (\pm SD) per bacteria predicted for each ecosystem was (Figure 5c): open
440 ocean (3.1 ± 1.6), soil pore water (4.0 ± 1.8), drinking water (5 ± 2), coral reef (5 ± 2), temperate
441 lakes/rivers (8 ± 3), polar lakes (8 ± 3), coastal/estuarine (8 ± 3), soil (9 ± 3), animal (10 ± 3), and
442 sediment (13 ± 4).

443 Finally, the lytic-lysogenic community model was then reinterpreted using an effective single
444 lytic virus-host community with variable burst size. This aimed to facilitate the comparison of
445 the lytic-lysogenic community model with the original PtW model (Knowles et al. 2016), which
446 treated lysogeny implicitly in a single phage-bacteria species system by reducing burst size as a
447 function of eutrophic conditions. The equilibrium values and stability of the lytic compartment
448 were recovered by renormalizing the infection rate by the underlying community richness: $d \rightarrow d/n$
449 (see Eq. S.17). Note that the absence of the explicit phage-bacteria network removed the oscillatory
450 modes obtained in the explicit lytic community. The lysogenic compartment was absorbed by the

451 effective burst size $c_{eff} = (d/n)/m(B^* + L^*)$. This led to an effective burst size that decreased
452 with bacterial concentration with a power law function with exponent $\alpha = -0.19 \pm 0.04$ (SE)
453 ($R^2 = 0.82$, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 3b).

454 Discussion

455 Over decades, lysogeny has been interpreted as an ecological strategy for phages to find refuge in
456 their bacterial hosts during starvation and low production conditions (Weinbauer 2004; Paul and
457 Weinbauer 2010; Maurice et al. 2009; Brum et al. 2016). The human gut and other host-associated
458 microbiomes, however, are dominated by lysogenic bacteria and temperate phages despite being
459 highly productive and microbial-dense environments (Minot et al. 2011; Reyes et al. 2010; Minot
460 et al. 2013; Mirzaei and Maurice 2017; Kim and Bae 2018). To explain this paradox, here we
461 hypothesized that the benefits acquired by the bacterial host during phage integration favor the
462 emergence of lysogens at high microbial abundances. It is propose that lysogens escape the lytic
463 top-down control of phages, and eventually phages evolve to lytically infect the escaping lysogens,
464 forming a lysogeny-lysis cycle. The recurrence of this lysogeny and lysis cycle as resources increase
465 lead to a diversification of the viral and microbial communities (Figure 1). This PtW-KtW cyclic
466 hypothesis was tested by coupling a lytic-lysogenic ecological model and a prophage acquisition
467 evolutionary model.

468 In the ecological model, lysogeny increased as a function of resources, density, and richness (Fig-
469 ure 3). The model recovered microbial and viral concentrations observed empirically across eleven
470 ecosystems, ranging from 10^4 cells/ml and 10^5 phages/ml to 10^{10} cells/ml and 10^{10} phages/ml
471 (Wigington et al. 2016; Knowles et al. 2016; Parikka et al. 2017). It also recovered the empirical
472 sublinear trend between viral and microbial concentrations (exponent ~ 0.7). In the model, the
473 fraction of lysogens increased from 1% at $\sim 10^6$ bacteria/mL to 90% at $\sim 10^9$ bacteria/mL. This
474 was a consequence of lysogenic bacteria escaping top-down control through superinfection exclusion
475 (Brüssow et al. 2004; Touchon et al. 2017). Thus, in environments with $\sim 10^6$ bacteria/mL, the
476 signal associated to lysogeny is predicted to be weak, in consonance with metagenomic observations
477 in marine systems (Knowles et al. 2016; Luo et al. 2020). In environments with higher microbial
478 density, instead, the lysogeny signal is predicted to be strong, a result consistent with observations
479 in animal gut (Minot et al. 2011; Reyes et al. 2010; Minot et al. 2013; Mirzaei and Maurice 2017;
480 Kim and Bae 2018).

481 Richness was defined as the number of phage-bacterial host pairs in the community richness, n .
482 The increase in richness was associated to an increase of phage and bacteria concentrations. This
483 is consistent with genomic data across gradients of microbial abundance, showing an increase of

484 phage-host pair diversification (Coutinho et al. 2019). The purely lytic community model recovered
485 similar ranges of phage and bacterial concentrations (Figure S.5a). In this scenario, however, the
486 viral concentration across communities with different richness displayed a linear trend (exponent
487 ~ 1) with a constant average virus-to-microbe ratio of ~ 10 (Figure S.5b)—in disagreement with
488 the sublinear trend observed environmentally (Figure 2). For communities with fixed richness,
489 however, the lytic model displayed a sublinear trend. A prior lytic model with fixed richness
490 showed that this is a consequence of the stochastic sampling of the phage-bacteria traits (Weitz
491 et al. 2017). The purely lytic community model, thus, displays a Simpson’s paradox, where the
492 local sublinear trend observed in communities with fixed richness differs from the global trend
493 when comparing communities across richness (Simpson 1951; Knowles et al. 2017). This paradox
494 is a consequence of both viral and microbial concentrations scaling linearly with richness, Eqs. (8)
495 and (7).

496 At each step of the diversification model, an evolved temperate phage was assumed to be
497 able to integrate as a prophage, defining new bacterial strains in the community. The average
498 number of prophages per bacteria increased with the number of diversification cycles, in consonance
499 with the distributions of prophages observed in the genomes of marine and human gut bacteria
500 (Figure 5a). The calibration of the model using the mean prophage number per bacteria in these
501 two ecosystems predicted 10,000 times more PtW-KtW cycles in the human gut than in marine
502 surface communities, consistent with the increase in the frequency of prophages as a function of
503 the environment productivity (Lauro et al. 2009; Lee and Patterson 2002; Bakenhus et al. 2017;
504 Touchon et al. 2016). The microbial community colonization of the human gut in early childhood is
505 extremely dynamic, showing sequential changes in dominant phage and bacteria (Breitbart et al.
506 2008; Sharon et al. 2013; Lim et al. 2015; Mirzaei and Maurice 2017). The PtW-KtW cycles
507 introduced here would eventually lead to the stable, richer, and lysogenic communities observed
508 in adulthood (Minot et al. 2013; Reyes et al. 2010; Shkoporov and Hill 2019). The predicted
509 distribution of prophages per bacteria in the other ecosystems studied can be tested empirically
510 in future work (Figures 5b and 5c).

511 The accuracy of the model could be improved by adding the molecular mechanisms leading to
512 the formation of new lysogens, which has been modeled at single strain-level but proven hard to
513 incorporate into ecological scenarios (Steward and Levin 1984; Wang and Goldenfeld 2010; Maslov
514 and Sneppen 2017; Wahl et al. 2018; Weitz et al. 2019; Chaudhry et al. 2019). The accuracy could
515 be also improved by incorporating by incorporating specific predator and immune system pressure
516 (Thingstad and Lignell 1997; Thingstad 2000; Winter et al. 2010; Dwayne et al. 2017; Caron et al.
517 2017; Talmy et al. 2019), variable energy sources (Thingstad and Lignell 1997; Weitz et al. 2015),
518 and ecosystem-specific ranges for phage-bacteria traits and nested viral-microbial networks (Flores

519 et al. 2011; Thingstad et al. 2014; Gao et al. 2017; Hendricks 1972; Kirchman 2016; De Paepe and
520 Taddei 2006).

521 Conclusion

522 The ecological-evolutionary community model introduced here assumed a recurrent cycle of lysogeny
523 and lysis. Productive microbial conditions promoted lysogeny (piggyback-the-winner) and the se-
524 lection of phages able to control lysogens protected by superinfection exclusion (kill-the-winner).
525 The model recovered viral and microbial concentrations observed across 11 ecosystems and pre-
526 dicted an increase in the frequency of prophages in bacteria, consistent with observations in marine
527 ecosystems and the mammalian gut. The prophage-acquisition ratchet explains the observation of
528 high lysogeny in rich microbial environments.

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849 Figures and Tables

Parameter	Description	Environmental reference value
r	Bacterial growth constant	$\frac{1}{24} \text{ hr}^{-1}$
m	Viral decay constant	$\frac{1}{6} \text{ hr}^{-1}$
β	Induction rate of lysogen	$\frac{1}{24} \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ hr}^{-1}$
d	Infection rate	$10^{-8} \text{ mL bacteria}^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$
c	Burst size	20
χ	Lysogen immunity	$\frac{1}{2}$
K	Carrying capacity	$10^4\text{--}10^{11} \text{ bacteria mL}^{-1}$

Table 1: Parameters of the ecological model and reference empirical values. See the Methods section for the range explored for each parameter and literature sources.

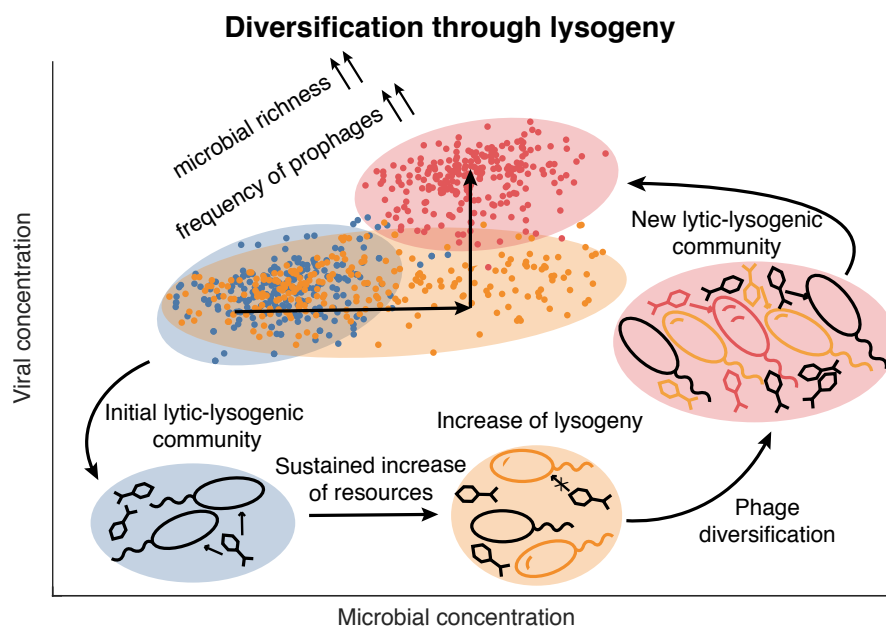


Figure 1: **Diversification through lysogeny.** The figure illustrates the central hypothesis of the research presented here. Upon increasing resources, an established viral-microbial community (blue) transitions to a new community (orange), where the microbial concentration increased due to the opportunistic growth of newly formed lysogens that escaped lytic phage top-down control by the superinfection exclusion mechanism. If the increase of resources is sustained, phages able to top-down control these newly form lysogens will eventually be selected and lead to a new mature viral-microbial community (red). This process increases the number of viral-host pairs (richness) and number of prophages per bacteria.

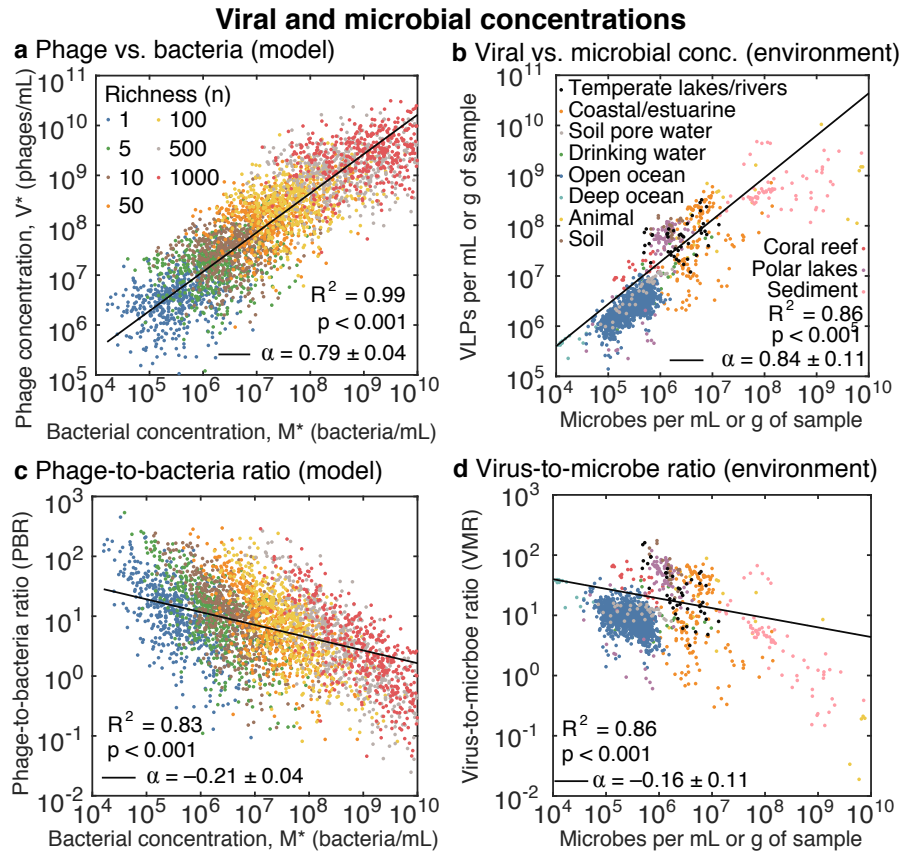


Figure 2: **Viral and microbial concentrations.** **a**, Phage equilibrium concentrations versus bacterial concentrations in the ecological lytic-lysogenic model. The colors distinguish communities with different richness, that is, number of bacteria species or phage-bacteria host pairs. **b**, Environmental concentration of virus-like particles (VLPs) versus microbial concentrations from eleven ecosystems (see legend for colors). Each ecosystem is plotted separately in Figure S.4. **c**, Phage-to-bacteria (PBR) versus bacterial concentration obtained in the model (same color coding as in panel **a**). **d**, Environmental virus-to-microbe ratio (VMR) versus microbial concentration for the ecosystems listed in panel **b**. **a-d**. The solid lines correspond to the linear regression of the logged data. The slope ($\alpha \pm SE$), p-value ($\alpha \neq 0$), and the coefficient of determination (R^2) are displayed.

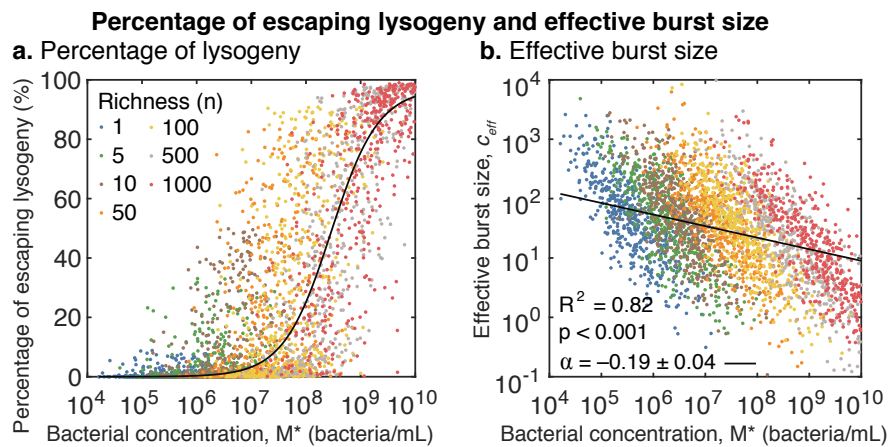


Figure 3: Percentage of lysogeny and effective burst size. **a**, Sampled percentage of active lysogeny as a function of bacterial concentration for the lytic-lysogenic community model. The solid line corresponds to the best fitted sigmoidal function $L[\%] = aB^*/(b + B^*)$ for the medians of the percentage of lysogeny, $L[\%]$, and total bacterial concentrations, B^* , for each community, n . The parameters were obtained using the nonlinear least-squares Gauss-Newton algorithm implemented in the Nonlinear Least Squares (nls) function in R. The values obtained for the parameters corresponded to $a = 97.1 \pm 0.7$ and $b = (2.86 \pm 8) \cdot 10^8$ bacteria/ml. **b**, Effective burst size (c_{eff}) as a function of bacterial concentration for the interpretation of the lytic-lysogenic community model as an effective single phage-bacteria community pair model. **a-b**, The colors correspond to communities with richness ranging from $n = 1$ to $n = 1000$.

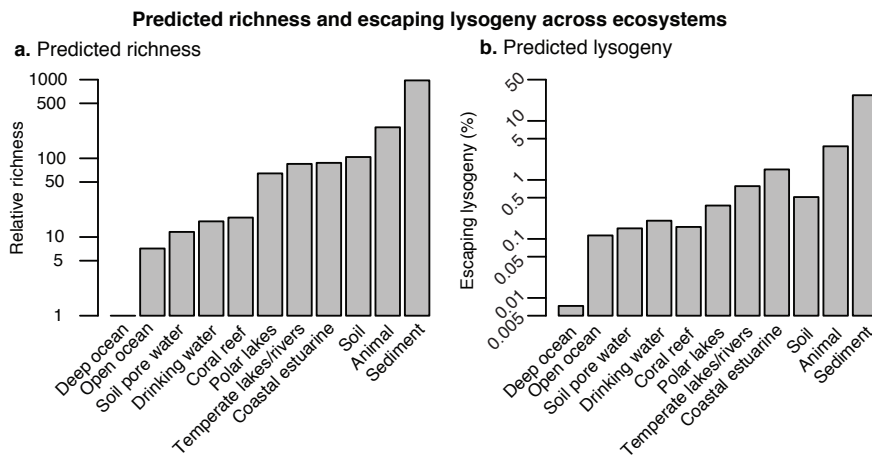


Figure 4: **Predicted richness and escaping lysogeny across ecosystems.** **a**, Relative community richness predicted for different ecosystems using the lytic-lysogenic community model. The values are given relative to the Deep Ocean data (lowest richness). **b**, Percentage of escaping lysogeny predicted by the model for the different ecosystems.

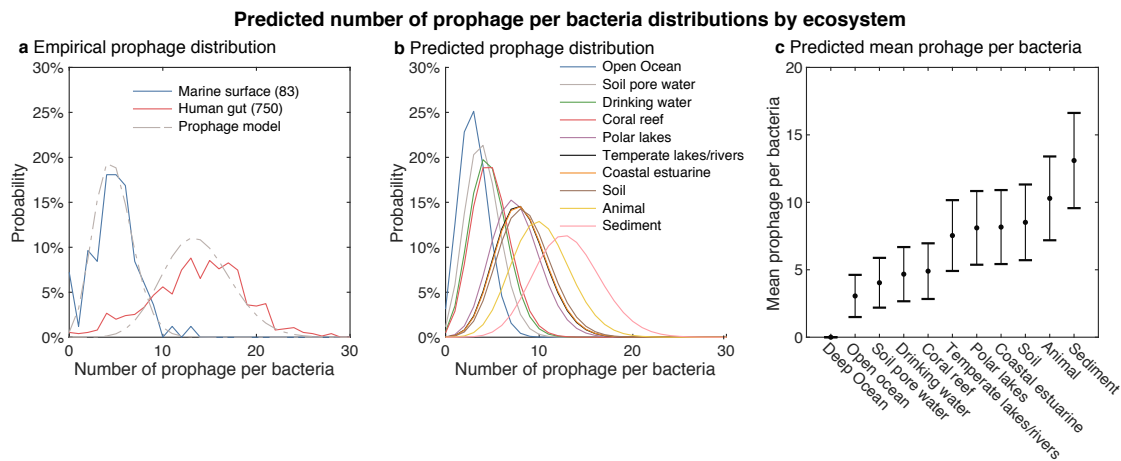


Figure 5: **Evolutionary model predictions.** **a**, Percentage of number of prophage per bacteria found in marine surface ecosystems (blue line) and human gut samples (red line), as well as the prophage distributions obtained from the prophage accumulation evolutionary model (grey dashed line). **b**, Predicted probability distributions for the number of prophages per bacteria in each ecosystem using the prophage accumulation evolutionary model. **c**, Mean number of prophage per bacteria predicted in each ecosystem. The error bars correspond to the associated standard deviations.