

Pelagic food web patterns: do they modulate virus and nanoflagellate effects on picoplankton during the phytoplankton spring bloom?

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7	Pascaline Ory ¹ * [†] , Hans J. Hartmann ^{1†} , Florence Jude ² , Christine Dupuy ¹ , Yolanda Del Amo ² ,
8	Philippe Catala ³ , Françoise Mornet ⁴ , Valérie Huet ¹ , Benoit Jan ¹ , Dorothée Vincent ⁵ , Benoit
9	Sautour ² , Hélène Montanié ^{1†}
10	
11	1 Littoral, Environnement et SociétéS (LIENSS) Université de La Rochelle UMR 6250 CNRS-ULR, 2 rue
12	Olympe de Gouges, 17042 La Rochelle Cedex, France
13	2 Environnements et Paleoenvironnement Océaniques (EPOC) Université de Bordeaux 1 UMR 5805 CNRS, 2
14	rue du Professeur Jolyet, 33120 Arcachon, France
15	3 Observatoire Océanologique de Banyuls-sur-Mer UMR 7621 CNRS-Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Avenue
16	Fontaulé, 66650 Banyuls-sur-Mer, France
17	4 UMS 3109 CNRS-IFREMER Environnement Littoral Atlantique, Place du Séminaire, 17137 L'Houmeau,
18	France
19	5 Laboratoire d'Océanologie et de Geosciences (LOG) Université du Littoral Coté d'Opale UMR CNRS 8187, 32
20	avenue Foch, 62930 Wimereux, France
21	*Corresponding author: Tel +335 46 45 83 14 E-mail address: pory01@univ-lr.fr
22	† These authors contributed equally to this work
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26 Effects of viruses and nanoflagellates on picoplankton

27 Summary

28 As agents of mortality, viruses and nanoflagellates impact on picoplankton populations. We 29 examined the differences in interactions between these compartments in two French Atlantic bays. 30 Microbes, considered here as central actors of the planktonic food web, were first monitored 31 seasonally in Arcachon (2005) and Marennes-Oléron (2006) bays. Their dynamics were evaluated to categorize trophic periods using the models of Legendre and Rassoulzadegan (1995) as a 32 33 reference framework. Microbial interactions were then compared through 48h-batch-culture experiments performed during the phytoplankton spring bloom, identified as herbivorous in 34 35 Marennes and multivorous in Arcachon. Marennes was spatially homogeneous compared to 36 Arcachon. The former was potentially more productive, featuring a large number of heterotrophic 37 pathways, while autotrophic mechanisms dominated in Arcachon. A link was found between 38 viruses and phytoplankton in Marennes, suggesting a role of virus in the regulation of autotroph 39 biomass. Moreover, the virus-bacteria relation was weaker in Marennes, with a bacterial lysis 40 potential of 2.6% compared with 39% in Arcachon. The batch experiments (based on size-41 fractionation and viral enrichment) revealed different microbial interactions that corresponded to 42 the spring-bloom trophic interactions in each bay. In Arcachon, where there is a multivorous web, flagellate predation and viral lysis acted in an opposite way on picophytoplankton. When together 43 they both reduced viral production. Conversely, in Marennes (herbivorous web), flagellates and 44 45 viruses together increased viral production. Differences in the composition of the bacterial 46 community composition explained the combined flagellate-virus effects on viral production in the 47 two bays.

48

49 Introduction

The long held paradigm that primary production is transferred through a herbivorous chain to small and large phytovores neglects the importance of most microorganisms. Yet bacteria, which are present at up to 10^6 cells.ml⁻¹, and viruses, whose concentration can reach 10^8 viral particles.ml⁻¹, 53 dominate in the oceans (Borsheim et al., 1990; Hennes and Suttle, 1995; Li, 1998). Bacteria were 54 primarily considered as remineralizers providing inorganic nutrients for primary producers. Later, 55 the microbial loop concept (Azam et al., 1983) highlighted the role of bacteria as recyclers of DOM 56 originating either from primary production or from losses at different trophic levels. Thus, the role 57 of bacteria in the microbial loop evolved from that of a matter sink to a trophic link towards 58 bacterivorous organisms. Moreover, bacterial community dynamics are not only controlled by 59 resources i.e. bottom-up control, such as the availability of inorganic nutrients and the quality of 60 DOM (Kirchman et al., 2000), but also by predation i.e. top-down control, examples being the 61 mortality induced by protists such as nanoflagellates and ciliates and by viral lysis. (Sanders et al., 62 1992; Fuhrman, 1999). The selectivity of protist predation based on size, motility, shape and cell surface properties of prey (Gonzalez et al., 1990; Monger et al., 1999) can potentially impact on the 63 64 morphological characteristics of bacteria and shape their community composition (BCC) (Hahn and 65 Hofle, 2001; Posch et al., 2001). On an ecosystem level, protist predation may exert a stronger control in oligotrophic waters than in eutrophic waters (Gasol et al., 2002). 66

67 Since the 1990's, viruses have been considered as an additional factor in the mortality of bacteria (Fuhrman, 1999), other micro-organisms such as microalgae (Cottrell and Suttle, 1995) and 68 69 unpigmented flagellates (Garza and Suttle, 1995; Massana et al., 2007). Virus-mediated bacterial 70 mortality could account for 48-84% of bacterial production in oligotrophic areas and 59% in 71 eutrophic areas (Boras et al., 2009). Regarding the biogeochemical aspects of the ecosystem, viral 72 lysis shunts carbon flow (Fuhrman, 1999): 6 to 26% of photosynthetically fixed carbon flows back 73 to DOM, becoming available for microbial uptake and consequently modifying the competitive 74 balance of phytoplankton and bacteria for limiting nutrients (Wilhelm and Suttle, 1999). Moreover, 75 viral infection could potentially maintain the species richness of bacteria, as described in the "kill 76 the winner" concept (Thingstad and Lignell, 1997). The density dependence of viral infection could 77 limit dominant and competitive bacteria and give an advantage to less competitive ones (Bouvier and Del Giorgio, 2007; Weinbauer et al., 2007; Auguet et al., 2009), although this idea is still 78

controversial (Winter et al., 2004). In addition, host specificity could concern strains instead of
species because of the phenotype plasticity of the viral permissivity-resistance characters
(Schwalbach et al., 2004; Fuhrman, 2009).

82 Even if virioplankton is mainly composed of bacteriophages (Fuhrman, 1999; Suttle, 2005), a link 83 with phytoplankton or chlorophyll *a* concentrations, suggesting phytophage pathogenicity 84 (Wommack and Colwell, 2000), has already been underlined in some long term surveys where there 85 were high densities of algal cells (Maranger et al., 1994) as well as in offshore stations (Boehme et 86 al., 1993; Guixa-Boixereu et al., 1999) or in coastal regions at the deep chlorophyll a maximum (Baudoux et al., 2008). Organisms less than 3µm in size may be responsible of large part of primary 87 88 production, in particular in oligotrophic areas (Platt et al., 1983). Autotrophic as well as 89 heterotrophic pico- and nanoplankton are too small to be efficiently consumed by metazoans (Sherr 90 and Sherr, 1988); they are mainly consumed by flagellates and ciliates (Sherr and Sherr, 1994) and 91 can significantly contribute to their diet (Hirose et al., 2008). However, the grazing yield from 92 phytoplankton is lower than from bacteria. Furthermore, predation on protists indirectly affects bacterial grazing, enhancing viral impact (Boras et al., 2009). Thus, as the preferential prey of 93 94 copepods (Nielsen and Kiorboe, 1994), ciliates can be considered as a trophic link between pico-95 and nano-plankton and mesozooplankton (superior trophic levels) (Calbet and Saiz, 2005).

96 To assess the importance of microbiological plankton compartments in matter flow, Legendre and 97 Rassoulzadegan (1995) described 4 major trophic concepts each incorporating different dominant 98 carbon pathways: (1) The herbivorous or classical food web, which is based on large-phytoplankton 99 (>5µm) primary production leading to large zooplankton organisms. (2) The microbial food web, in 100 which primary production is mainly due to small phytoplankton and comprises pathways involving 101 heterotrophic bacteria and protozoa. (3) The microbial loop, a nearly closed system where carbon 102 flows are limited to heterotrophic bacteria and unpigmented protists; DOM released by the grazers 103 becomes substrate for bacteria. (4) Finally, the multivorous food web, a transitional trophic system 104 comprising diverse heterotrophic carbon pathways in which both large and small phytoplankters are105 significant primary producers.

Accordingly, the question arises: do the interactions between microbial compartments (in particular 106 107 between viruses, picoplankton and nanoflagellates) vary depending on the trophic pathway? So far, 108 despite the clear importance of heterotrophic microorganisms in pelagic food webs, descriptions of 109 trophic models have mostly been based on primary producer size, water column stratification and nutrients (Rivkin et al., 1996; Marquis et al., 2007). Thus, to answer this question, two sites along 110 111 the French Atlantic coast that are distinctive in terms of their river inputs and hydrology (shape, 112 mixing regime and water residence time) were chosen as study case areas to describe the temporal 113 succession of trophic pathways. The temporal dynamics of abiotic parameters and microbiological compartments were assessed over 7 months in Arcachon Bay in 2005 and over one year in 114 115 Marennes Oléron Bay in 2006. Located North-Southward along the coast of the Bay of Biscay. 116 Arcachon and Marennes-Oléron Bays are both semi-enclosed and macrotidal lagoons, largely 117 composed of intertidal mudflats (Blanchet et al., 2008; Allard et al., 2009). Like many estuaries and 118 bays, the 2 basins are highly productive, featuring a large-phytoplankton spring bloom (Struski and 119 Bacher, 2006; Glé et al., 2008). In this context, does the large-phytoplankton spring bloom entail 120 similar trophic pathways in each bay and thus similar interactions between the above-mentioned 121 microbial compartments? To answer this question, we first defined the trophic succession for each 122 bay, then located the spring phytoplankton bloom within this succession, and finally in vitro experiments were performed during this period to analyse the quantitative and qualitative impact of 123 124 nanoflagellate grazing and viral lysis on picoplankton.

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130 **Results**

131 IN SITU SURVEYS

132 Environmental context

133 The evolution of the abiotic parameters in the 2 bays followed a typical temperate-coastal pattern 134 featuring peak temperatures and salinities in the summer together with low nutrient levels during the period of low runoff. On average, Arcachon Bay (Arc) had fewer nutrients than Marennes (M-O) 135 136 (Table S1 and S2). Arc waters were spatially heterogeneous, with significant differences of salinity, 137 temperature and most nutrients between the 2 stations (ANOVA, H₀ no difference between stations 138 is rejected, p<0.05). By contrast, M-O was homogeneous over 4 of the 5 stations (ANOVA p>0.05). The Charente station differed from the four others, with higher nutrient levels and lower salinity 139 140 (ANOVA with Tukey multiple comparisons, p>0.05) (Table S1).

141

142 Zonation and seasonality of microbial distribution

143 The bacteria/virus relationship ($r^2 \ge 0.6$) in Arc was stronger than in M-O. However, the response of 144 bacteria to increasing viruses was weaker in Arc (log/log regression slopes ≤ 0.6) than in M-O 145 (slopes ≥ 0.84 , Table 1). In Arc, bacterial (BA) and viral (VA) abundances in Comprian were 146 significantly higher than in B13 (ANOVA, p < 0.0002, Table 1). In M-O, the BA/VA relationship 147 was equal in 4 of the 5 stations (Slope comparison, ANCOVA, p<0.05, n=96), but the relationship 148 was insignificant at Charente station (p=0.09) (Table 1). Nevertheless, no significant differences in 149 the annual abundance of viruses and bacteria were found between the 5 stations (ANOVA, p<0.05). Consequently, the global monthly and annual means (BA: $4.11\pm0.34\times10^6$ cells.ml⁻¹ and VA: 150 3.38±0.34x10⁷ particles.ml⁻¹) are representative for the whole basin. The VBR (virus to bacteria 151 152 ratio) was higher in M-O (annual mean= 11.16 ± 5.39) compared to Arc (4.06 ± 1.17 and $4.89 \pm$ 1.96 at B13 and Comprian, respectively). In M-O, VBR tended to be higher from November to 153 April (>10) and lower during summer (<10), while no trend was visible in Arc (data not shown). 154

155 The results of PCA and HAC were analysed to compare the spatial and temporal organization of the 2 bays (Fig. 1). Only samples from January to August were taken into account. Nutrients (23%) and 156 157 viruses (7.5%) contributed positively to axis 1 while Cryptophyceae (10%), salinity (5%), diatoms 158 (5%) and Synechococcus (5%) contributed negatively. Small phytoeukaryotes (16%), temperature 159 (14%), bacteria (12.5%) and ciliates (12.5%) contributed positively to axis 2. The 2 axes accounted for 52.67% of the total variance among the samples. Along the first axis, Arc was distinguished 160 161 from M-O by low nutrients (Table S1), a high abundance of autotrophs [Diatoms (mean: $3.52\pm4.17 \times 10^{5}$ cell.l⁻¹ vs. $0.65\pm1.45 \times 10^{5}$ cell.l⁻¹), Cyanobacteria (mean: $1.77\pm2.83 \times 10^{4}$ vs. 162 $3.9\pm2.9\times10^{3}$ cell.ml⁻¹), Cryptophyceae (6.46±5.17x10⁴ vs. 13±28cell.l⁻¹)], as well as low VA 163 $(5.71\pm5.23\times10^6 \text{ vs. } 3.37\pm1.21\times10^7 \text{ particles.ml}^{-1})$. Seasonal clusters were found along the second 164 165 axis for both basins ("winter": January - April and "summer": May - August), principally due to 166 higher summer temperatures combined with a higher abundance of microorganism in Arc (bacteria, 167 ciliates and pico- nanophytoplankton). Furthermore, a spatial subdivision appeared in Arc along axis 1, distinguishing the inner (Comprian) from the outer (B13) sampling station. By contrast, the 168 169 M-O stations were homogeneous, although the Charente station points were always shifted to the 170 right because of a lower salinity and a higher level of nutrients. Moreover, the Charente station was 171 also distinguished by large amounts of suspended matter (Table S1).

172 Based on the results of this multivariate assessment, the basin dynamics were further distinguished 173 using the inner station of Arc (Comprian) and averages of the five M-O stations (because of their spatial homogeneity) using multiple regressions. VA and BA dynamics can be related to the more 174 175 complex relationships in M-O compared to Arc (Table 2). The opposite was observed for 176 heterotrophic nanoflagellates. There are several important details: (i) in winter, BA was positively 177 related to viruses in both bays and to HNF in M-O but negatively in Arc. In summer, only the link 178 with viruses remained along with supplementary links with nutrients (ammonium, nitrite and 179 phosphate); (ii) there was a negative relationship between viruses and picophytoplankton all year 180 long in both bays as well as with HNF in Arc during the summer; viruses were positively linked to

181 chla all year round in M-O but not in Arc. (iii) HNF were negatively related to ciliates during winter182 (Table 2).

183

184 *Temporal succession of trophic pathways*

185 Herbivorous food webs were identified for 20% of the sampling period in Arc (February and August) and for 27% of the period in M-O (May and July-August, Fig. 2A,B). Multivorous webs 186 were present for 21% of the period in Arc (May and the second half of August) and for 25% of the 187 188 period in M-O (3 weeks in February-March and 2 months between mid-October and mid-189 December). The microbial food web represented about half of the sampling period in both bays, yet 190 they were not synchronized, except during March-April (Fig. 2). Finally, the microbial loop was 191 absent in Arc, while it was present for 5% of the period in M-O (two weeks at the end of March and 192 one in September). During these two periods, bacteria grew 2.0x and 2.4x, viruses 2.0x and 2.0x, 193 nanoflagellates 6.7x and 1.5x and ciliates 0 and 20x, respectively (Fig. 2B, "Microbial loop").

BA and VA evolved in parallel during all the trophic periods in Arc. However, the synchronisation
was less obvious in M-O, particularly during the herbivorous and multivorous phases when VA did
not decrease as much (-1.6x) as BA (-2.1x).

In Arc, the small phytoplankton (annual mean = $3.4 \pm 1.5 \times 10^4$ cells.ml⁻¹) were dominated by 197 198 picoplankton, with 3 major growth periods (early April, early May accompanied by nanoplankton, and from mid-June to end of July, also accompanied by nanoplankton). Large-phytoplankton, with 199 an annual mean of $4.73\pm4.16\times10^5$ cells.l⁻¹, dominated at the beginning of the year, with mainly 200 201 dinophyceae and cryptophyceae species; this was followed later by two diatom peaks (mid-May and late August). Three periods of growth of small phytoplankton were observed in M-O (annual mean 202 $= 1.98 \pm 1.71 \times 10^4$ cell.ml⁻¹) that were mostly due to picoplankton (end of April, 4.9×10^4 cells.ml⁻¹, 203 early June, 6.8×10^4 cells.ml⁻¹ and early July, 4×10^4 cells.ml⁻¹). Large-phytoplankton (annual 204 mean= $7.05\pm14.6\times10^4$ cells.l⁻¹) developed at the end of March (mainly diatoms), early May (mainly 205 206 diatoms) and early July (diatoms and dinoflagellates). Moreover, picophytoplankton and large phytoplankton accounted for the viral dynamics during the herbivorous and multivorous periods in
M-O (simple regression, p=0.01 and p=0.006, respectively).

Nanoflagellate numbers increased systematically during the microbial phases in both Arc and M-O at the beginning of the herbivorous and multivorous periods, just before the large-phytoplankton blooms. Small cells dominated in the latter (annual mean: $88.2\pm6.9\% <3\mu$ m cells, Fig. 2). In Arc, the pigmented/unpigmented ratio of nanoflagellates was higher (mean=11.6 vs. 3.9 in M-O).

Ciliate dynamics followed those of bacteria in M-O except in mid-February (Fig. 2B). Heterotrophic species dominated (annual mean of *Strombidium spp* plus *Strobilidium spp*: 55% and 48% of the total abundance, respectively). The only exception was during the spring phytoplankton bloom when autotrophic and potentially autotrophic taxa (*Myrionecta rubra*, *Tontonia spp*, *Laboea sp*) represented 60% and 80% of the total abundance. In Arc, ciliate dynamics followed those of nanoflagellates, increasing during the microbial food web periods.

Finally, beyond the fact that the changes in the trophic pathways in the two bays are not synchronized, the major difference was the contrasting organization at the beginning of the year, which was herbivorous in Arc and microbial in M-O. Moreover, during the large-phytoplankton spring blooms, M-O featured a herbivorous web pathway while Arc was in a multivorous phase.

223

224 IN VITRO EXPERIMENTS

Experiments were performed with water from Arcachon-Comprian (2006; T°*in situ*= 18.6°C; S= 32 PSU) and the Marennes-Station E (2007; T°*in situ*= 15°C; S= 32.5 PSU) collected at morning high tide. During incubation, the nighttime/daytime water temperature varied from 19.5°C to 23.3°C in Arc and from 18°C to 22°C in M-O, respectively.

229

230 Protists

In Arc, the abundance of picophytoeukaryote (picoeuk) was equivalent in all treatments at the beginning of the experiment $(1.8 \times 10^3 \text{ cells.ml}^{-1})$. In the absence of predators, virus enrichment had a positive effect from 18h to 38h, during which picoeuk abundance increased 18-fold (Fig. 3A). But
in the presence of flagellates, picoeuk abundance dropped 4.5-fold. In M-O water, the abundance of
picoeuk was not significantly different between treatments despite an initial difference due to the
filtration step.

Pigmented nanoflagellates were few and varied little in both sites, (means: 6.4×10^4 cells.l⁻¹ in Arc and 9.6×10^4 cells.l⁻¹ in M-O), making up <1% and <10% of the total nanoflagellates, respectively. The nanoflagellates started growing at 18h (Fig. 3E). Their growth rates were 2- to 4-fold higher in Arc than in M-O (in 3µ-Tr and 20µ-Tr respectively). Moreover, in both bays, the nanoflagellates in the latter were significantly higher than in 3µ-Tr (2way-ANOVA p<0.01) while the small cells (<3µm) dominated and grew more rapidly than the large ones. During the 48h incubations, the small/large flagellate ratio increased from 5 to 100 in Arc and from 1.5 to 20 in M-O.

244

245 Bacterial abundance and growth rate

During the different treatments, bacterial abundance after 48h increased 20-35 fold in Arc
(stationary phase) and 20-60 fold in M-O (logarithmic phase) (Fig. 3B). In Arc, the net bacterial
abundance increase (NBI) was always significantly greater in virus enriched treatments (p=0.005).
In M-O, the viral enrichment enhanced BA only in the 0.8µm treatments (p<0.05).

The maximum specific bacterial growth rate (μ max) showed significant differences between treatments: μ max was significantly higher in both bays with virus-enriched treatments compared to the corresponding controls (2way ANOVA, p=0.02) (cf Fig. 3B black versus clear symbols). The growth stimulation was 9-14% in Arc and 12-33% in M-O. However, the presence of flagellates did not significantly modify μ max in either of the bays (20 μ m and 3 μ m treatments versus 0.8 μ m treatments; Fig. 3B)

In Arc, during the exponential phase, the growth rate of population 6 of HNA cells, which were the most abundant, was stimulated in enriched- 0.8μ -Tr (+44%) compared to the control, while populations 3, 4 and 5 were inhibited. The presence of flagellates (3μ and 20μ treatments) masked

this particularity. In M-O, the growth rate of population 3 in the presence of flagellates was significantly higher than those of the other populations (data not shown).

261

262 Viral abundance and production

The initial viral abundance was multiplied 2-3-fold in enriched-treatments in both Arc and M-O 263 (Fig. 3C). In Arc, some viruses were produced during the first 12 hours, except in 20µ-Tr. A second, 264 stronger production phase was observed between 24 and 38h in all treatments, persisting till the end 265 266 of the experiment in 3µ-Tr. The presence of flagellates significantly decreased the total viral production rate (-50% in 3μ -Tr and -75% in 20μ -Tr) from 0.04 h⁻¹ in 0.8 μ -Tr to 0.02 h⁻¹ in 3μ -Tr 267 and to 0.01 h⁻¹ in 20µ-Tr (2way-ANOVA, p=0.0002). Moreover, viral enrichment decreased the 268 269 viral production rate notably in presence of small predators (-47.5%, p=0.009) and in their absence, yet not significantly (-23%; p=0.1). In M-O, VA evolved differently with the various treatments: 270 271 viruses were produced between 12 and 18h only in the presence of flagellates (3µ- and 20µ-272 treatments). There was a second production phase from 38h in all treatments except in the enriched-0.8µ-Tr and 20µ-Tr. The net viral production over 48h was negative (-31%, -72%, -5.3%, -70% and 273 274 -65% in 0.8µ-Tr, enriched-0.8µ-Tr, 3µ-Tr, 20µ-Tr and enriched-20µ-Tr respectively) except in 275 enriched-3µ-Tr (+5.8%). In contrast to Arc, a combination of the presence of flagellates and virus enrichment increased 2.5-fold the total viral production rate (from 0.01 h^{-1} in 0.8µ-Tr to 0.025 h^{-1} in 276 enriched-3µ-Tr). The addition of viruses alone had the opposite effect (2way-ANOVA, interaction, 277 p=0.006), inducing a significant 6.5-fold decrease (from 0.01 h^{-1} in 0.8µ-Tr to 0.0016 h^{-1} in 278 279 enriched-0.8µ-Tr).

280

281 Virus mediated bacteriolysis

In Arc, we calculated that $70\pm15\%$ of the bacterial stock was lysed per day $(0.8\mu$ -Tr). In the presence of flagellates, this impact decreased significantly to $33.7\pm1.9\%$ (3μ -Tr) and $39\pm11\%$ (20μ -Tr) (ANOVA: p=0.01). By contrast, virus mediated lysis was less severe in M-O ($13.6\pm1.7\%$ of bacterial stock lysed per day without any predators). Small flagellates had no effect (9.4 \pm 4.6% in 3 μ -Tr, p>0.05). However, in the presence of all the flagellates (20 μ -Tr), the percentage of lysed bacteria significantly decreased to 2.6 \pm 0.3% (ANOVA, p=0.009).

288

289 Bacterial enzymatic activity and community composition

290 In Arc, the change in specific maximum velocity of potential aminopeptidase activity (specific 291 Vmax) was similar in all treatments, with a peak at 24h. Specific activity dropped at 38h except in 292 3µ-Tr, where a strong activity was maintained until the end of the experiment (Fig. 3D). There was 293 a negative relationship between picoeuk abundance and bacterial proteolytic activity, which was 294 significant only in the presence of flagellates (Simple regression: $r^2=92\%$ p<0.0001 n=15 in 3µ-Tr, 295 $r^2=29\%$ p=0.022, n=15 in enriched-3µ-Tr). The specific Vmax peaked also at 24h in M-O, except in 296 the enriched-3µ-Tr at 12h. In both bays, peaks of activity occurred during the exponential growth 297 phase of bacteria (Fig. 3B, D). Moreover, a decline in bacterial activity coincided with an increase in viral abundance in both bays: in M-O, there was a negative relationship between VA and specific 298 299 Vmax in the 0.8µ and 3µ treatments (log VA=4.11-0.63 x logVmax, $r^2=0.15$, n=60, p=0.002). This 300 relationship was still significant ($r^2=0.13$, p=0.007) when 20µ treatments were taken into account.

301

At the beginning of the incubations, the *Eubacteria* were less FISH-targeted in Arc (53% of DAPI stained bacteria in 0.8µ-Tr and 35% in 3µ-Tr) than in M-O (62% in 0.8µ-Tr and 81% in 3µ-Tr). In Arc, the dominance of γ -proteobacteria (Gamma) was further increased in the presence of small nanoflagellates (15% versus 8%), while α - and β -proteobacteria (Alpha and Beta) were present in relatively similar proportions (2-2.5%) (Fig. 4). In M-O, Gamma were more numerous in the 0.8µ treatments (8.9%) than in the 3µ treatments (3%), while among the other groups, only Beta in 0.8µ-Tr showed up significantly (2.6%).

309 Over 48h, the proportion of *Eubacteria* increased in both bays (78-85% in Arc, 83-90% of 310 total cells in M-O), with a dominance of Gamma. However, while the proportion of Gamma at 48h 311 was higher in Arc in the presence of flagellates $(70\pm5.4\%)$ than in their absence $(58\pm3\%)$, 312 independent of viral enrichment, Gamma dominated in M-O (≈80%) with no difference between 313 treatments (Fig. 4). Furthermore, at 48h in Arc, a positive effect of viruses was observed on Beta 314 and Alpha in the presence of flagellates (+38% in enriched-3µ-Tr compared to the control 0.8µ-Tr), 315 counterbalancing the negative impact of predators (-65% in 3µ-Tr). However, earlier on, at 12h, 316 Alpha cells were sensitive to virus inputs (-70% and -75% in enriched-0.8µ-Tr and enriched-3µ-Tr 317 respectively, compared to the corresponding control). In M-O, among the rare groups, Alpha 318 increased notably in virus-enriched treatments without predators at 48h (+50% in enriched-0.8µ-Tr). 319 By contrast, nanoflagellates restrained their growth (-49.6% in 3µ-Tr compared to the 0.8µ-Tr 320 control), and even more so after viral enrichment (-76.2% in enriched-3µ-Tr) (Fig. 4). Conversely, 321 the combined effect of nanoflagellates and viruses resulted in an increase of Beta cells at 12h 322 (enriched-3µ-Tr) while the presence of flagellates alone reduced Beta growth (3µ-Tr versus 0.8µ-323 Tr). At 48h, this pattern was reversed: Beta cells increased in the presence of flagellates (+112% 324 compared to the control) while they decreased with additional viral enrichment (-50%).

325

326 **Discussion**

For each site, the survey concerned only one year without taking into account the potential interannual variability of microbial dynamics in the pattern of trophic succession (Guarini et al., 2004; Glé et al., 2007). Unfortunately, due to logistic restricitions, the comparison of the bays had to be carried out for two adjacent years, and the bias of inter-annual variability cannot be assessed.

After *in situ* surveys of one year, 48h *in vitro* incubation experiments were performed with different water categories treated by differential filtration, corresponding to a top-down manipulation of microbial compartments and consequently the removal of predators. Because of the complexity of the microbial food web, with parameters such as predation/competition links and the size overlap of predators and competitors, the size-fractionation method may reduce or eliminate some elements of normal trophic webs. Currently employed methods, including artificially composed trophic webs, necessarily simplify natural systems. We consider that, of those currently employed, the filtration
method is one which involves the least disturbance of the webs (Chen et al., 2009).

339

340 Temporal trophic succession

341 Several previous studies have analysed seasonal production patterns in Arcachon Bay (Arc) (Robert et al., 1987; Glé et al., 2008) and Marennes Bay (M-O) (Guarini et al., 1998; Struski and Bacher, 342 343 2006). In Arc, river runoff and high levels of tidal exchange create a gradient of nutrients along the 344 basin, except for phosphate (Glé et al., 2008). Seasonally, as in our study, Arc is early nutrient 345 limited with a depletion of nitrate from May to the autumn and of phosphate during spring. In M-O, 346 nutrient availability was higher and limitations were only encountered episodically during certain 347 years (Soletchnik et al., 1998; Struski, 2005). However, during our 2006 in situ survey, no 348 limitations were found. Based on our multivariate analysis. Arc is spatially heterogeneous while M-349 O is spatially homogeneous, despite the influence of the Charente River. Moreover, as already illustrated by Soletchnik et al. (2007), seasonal variations, characterized by changes in salinity, 350 351 temperature and chla are higher in M-O than in Arc.

Our trophic organization framework was based on microbiological and environmental dynamics, as 352 353 proposed by Legendre and Rassoulzadegan (1995). Mousseau et al. (2001) illustrated the 354 periodicity of trophic organization using ratios of biomasses, production and uptake rates. For the 355 present study, the entire spectrum of abundance from virioplankton to mesozooplankton were used in a similar manner to Rodriguez et al. (2000). We used microbial abundance instead of biomass 356 since the contact rates between virus/host cells or prey/predator determine viral infections and 357 grazing rates. Our empirical trophic-period definitions were validated by a factorial discriminant 358 359 analysis (FDA) in which the discriminant variable was the defined trophic model (Fig. S1). The 360 clusters remained separated even in the absence of the abundance data used for characterizing the trophic organization (Lambda Wilks test, p<0.05). 361

362 The microbial food web dominated in the two bays for 54% and 43% of the seven months of the 363 surveys in Arc and M-O, respectively; although this consisted of short periods of domination in M-364 O and only 2 long ones in Arc. This domination was longer than what has been found in other 365 coastal sites: on the Canadian East coast and in Plymouth Channel, the microbial food web 366 dominated for less than 20% of the year and only during summer (Rodriguez et al., 2000; Mousseau 367 et al., 2001). A herbivorous food web dominated in Canada for 50% of the year while it represented 368 only 15% (2 short phytoplankton blooms) in Plymouth Channel. In the latter, there was a 369 domination of the transition model i.e. the multivorous food web. In our study sites, the herbivorous 370 web persisted over longer periods in M-O (43% of the first seven months) while the transitional 371 multivorous web dominated in Arc (22% over the same period). The trophic systems of Arc, a 372 largely closed lagoon, appear to be more stable and less subject to trophic variations than the more 373 open M-O (Fig. 2; see also Fig. 4 in Soletchnik et al., (2007). In the latter, there was a succession of 374 microbial and herbivorous models without a systematic passage through the transitional multivorous model. Moreover, the microbial food web was easier to distinguish from the other webs 375 376 than in Arc (Fig. S1). Consequently, the dominance of the microbial food web attests the importance of microbial compartments in both ecosystems. 377

Another major difference between the bays is the contrasting trophic organization during winter: a herbivorous food web in Arc and a microbial food web in M-O. The presence of winter blooms has already been described in the Bay of Biscay (Labry et al., 2001; Marquis et al., 2007) and suggested for the two basins through analyses of long-term data series (Soletchnik et al., 2007). These phytoplankton blooms are influenced neither by temperature nor by nitrogen or phosphorus availability but are probably due to silicate input combined with a potential for salinity stratification or light availability.

The spring phytoplankton bloom occurred at the same period in both bays (April-May) yet it was greater in Arc, where it consisted of large phytoplankton forms such as diatoms and picoplankton. However, estimations of pelagic primary production illustrate a higher annual productivity in M-O of 185 gC.m⁻².yr⁻¹ compared with 103 gC.m⁻².yr⁻¹ in Arc (Struski and Bacher, 2006; Glé et al., 2008).

390

391 Grazing and viriolysis control

392 Our results demonstrate that primary producers (small and large phytoplankton cells) and 393 autotrophy-based mechanisms (cf. PCA results) are important in Arcachon Bay (Arc). However, 394 Marennes Bay (M-O) is characterized by a higher potential for primary production, suggesting an 395 uncoupling between phytoplankton abundance and productivity. The difference in phytoplankton 396 abundance could be typically explained by (1) pelagic and benthic metazoan grazing, which is 397 relatively low in M-O (Sautour and Castel, 1998) compared to Arc; (2) flushing out, which is 398 relatively higher in M-O because it is quite an open system; (3) settling (Sautour and Castel, 1993); 399 (4) light limitation (Pomeroy and Deibel, 1986; Sautour and Castel, 1993) and trophic status (meso-400 eutrophic in M-O vs. mesotrophic in Arc).

401 In addition, we show that in M-O, phytoplankton could also be controlled by viruses; this is 402 corroborated by the simultaneous virus-bacteria uncoupling (Fig. 2). Viruses have been shown to 403 modify the taxonomic diversity of their host communities, i.e. prokaryotes (Thingstad and Lignell, 404 1997), and protists (Suttle, 2007) restraining the rapidly growing and succeeding species. Moreover, 405 these successions of active phage-host systems would maintain a relatively constant baseline of host standing stocks (Wommack and Colwell, 2000). In addition, in M-O, virus infection could maintain 406 407 the phytoplankton standing stock baseline at a low level. Thus, viral production may rely on 408 autotroph lysis as well as bacterial lysogeny events. Moreover, the *in vitro* experiments show that, 409 in the presence of protist predators, the potential for viral lysis of the bacteria standing stock was 410 lower in M-O (2.6%) than in Arc (39%) during the phytoplankton bloom. Indeed, viral control of 411 phytoplankton was less clear in Arc and the link between bacteria and viruses was strong. Without 412 nanoflagellates, the release of large numbers of free viruses was in line with an increase in bacterial 413 mortality of up to 70% of the bacterial standing stock, as already suggested by the contrasting

414 dynamics of nanoflagellates and viruses during the *in situ* survey (Fig. 2; Table 2). In contrast, the 415 dynamics of nanoflagellates and viruses were similar in M-O, and during the spring bloom, virus-416 mediated bacterial mortality did not change significantly (9.4-13.6% with and without small 417 nanoflagellates, respectively).

Thus, the two trophic models that prevailed during the phytoplankton spring bloom are also reflected in the interactions between the microbial compartments. The impact of nanoflagellates and viruses on picoplankton differs in a multivorous web (Arc) compared to a herbivorous web (M-O).

The *in vitro* experiments carried out in Arc showed that the strong potential for viral bacteriolysis (viral shunt: Wilhelm and Suttle, 1999) contributes to the development of picophytoeukaryotes (picoeuk) due to an increased supply of organic and inorganic nutrients. The presence of nanoflagellates, previously described as predators of picoeuk (Sherr and Sherr, 1994), appears to counteract the indirect positive effect of viruses on the latter. Thus, the contrasting effect of viruses and nanoflagellates on picoeuk can be defined as antagonist top-down control.

While the herbivorous web dominated in M-O, the antagonist impact could not be observed during *in vitro* experiments because of the very low abundance of picoeuk in the sampling water. The bacterioplankton were the only picoplankton compartment affected by viral enrichment in M-O: through the viral shunt, the absence of picoeuk reduces the competition for nutrients and thus increases the positive effect of viral enrichment on the growth of non-lysed bacteria.

432 In our study, nanoflagellate treatment in both bays did not affect bacterial abundance or growth, in contrast to published data (Zhang et al., 2007). However, this does not necessarily mean that 433 434 predation by nanoflagellates had no effect. Indeed, flagellate grazing on picoeuk in Arc potentially 435 released particulate organic matter, provoking the observed increase of bacterial proteolysis. 436 Furthermore, with size-selective predation, the loss of bacteria through grazing is compensated by 437 the growth of predation-resistant cells, suggesting that nanoflagellates can affect the phenotypic structure of bacterioplankton (Gonzalez et al., 1990; Monger and Landry, 1991; Simek et al., 1997; 438 439 Posch et al., 1999). Moreover, considering the BCC data, the morphological diversity of bacteria

440 and the mean biovolumes of bacterial sub-populations, there should be a preferential grazing of α proteobacteria (small coccoid-shaped cells) by nanoflagellates compared to β -proteobacteria (large 441 442 bacillus-shaped cells). Beta dominate in freshwater but can also be found in coastal waters, without 443 a defined marine or riverine origin (Nold and Zwart, 1998). Indeed, they are present in both bays in 444 proportions equivalent to more specifically marine groups like Alpha during spring phytoplankton 445 blooms. More specifically, the hypothesis that Alpha are more vulnerable to grazing is confirmed in 446 M-O. Moreover, Beta are not as opportunistic as Gamma but nevertheless are metabolically very 447 reactive: the sensitivity of Alpha to grazing and to viral infection provides nutrients for Beta, which 448 are resistant, and this is highlighted by an increase of bacterial proteolysis.

However, Beta were as vulnerable to grazing as Alpha in Arc. A different clonal composition of
Beta could explain the variable response to predation pressure between the two bays (Brümmer et
al., 2003; Schwalbach et al., 2004).

452 The variable responses of bacterial groups to viral lysis in the present study confirm previous results concerning BCC (Bouvier and Del Giorgio, 2007) and bacterial metabolism (Middelboe et al., 453 454 1996). Consequently, viral production can be modified according to the trophic period. During the multivorous phase of the phytoplankton spring bloom in Arc, viral production was synergistically 455 456 depleted by the presence of flagellates and viral enrichment. The predation of picoeuk and bacteria 457 decreases the number of host cells and could lead to a general drop of lytic or lysogenic viral 458 production. Moreover, the acquisition of viral resistance, as observed with Alpha bacteria in virus-459 enriched incubation, would accentuate the negative impact on viral production. During the 460 herbivorous phase of the phytoplankton spring bloom in M-O, the response in terms of viral 461 production was the opposite. In the presence of flagellates, after virus enrichment, the development 462 of predation-resistant and virus-sensitive Beta, at the expense of Alpha, led to a positive synergistic 463 action of predators and viruses on viral production. This stimulation in the presence of flagellates has already been described (in contrast to the inhibition found in Arcachon) and explained by 464 465 changes in BCC under grazing pressure (Simek et al., 2001; Weinbauer et al., 2003; Weinbauer et 466 al., 2007; Pradeep Ram and Sime-Ngando, 2008). Interestingly, our results also suggest that this
467 stimulation occurs during the herbivorous period.

468 **Conclusion**

469 The temporal structure of trophic networks has been described in two bays on the French Atlantic 470 coast, providing major new elements for future studies, in particular for comparing microbiological 471 relationships during similar trophic periods.

472 Considering that trophic periods were defined in the same way for the two bays, the results of 473 picoplankton and viral production can be extrapolated in relation to how multivorous and 474 herbivorous trophic models work in general. Thus, during a multivorous period, viral lysis together 475 with flagellate grazing may reduce viral production and act antagonistically toward picoeukaryotes. 476 During a herbivorous period, flagellates and virus could both stimulate viral production. These contrasting responses sustain the debate about potential shifts in viral production due to grazing: 477 478 positive or undetectable responses have already been found (Hornak et al., 2005; Weinbauer et al., 479 2007). For the first time, a negative effect of flagellate predation and viral lysis on viral production 480 has been described and linked to a trophic model, the multivorous food web.

481

482 **Experimental procedures**

483 Study site and sampling strategy of in situ surveys

484 The study was carried out in two sites along the Bay of Biscay on the French Atlantic coast, Arcachon Bay and Marennes Oleron Bay, which are 150 km apart. Both are shallow, soft-bottom 485 bays that are under strong tidal influence (Fig. S2). Arcachon Bay (44°40N, 1°10W) is a 180 km² 486 487 triangular shaped coastal lagoon that communicates with the Atlantic through a broad channel to the south (Fig. S2). The Levre River is the major source of freshwater for the lagoon (100 000 $\text{m}^3.\text{y}^{-1}$; 488 489 Glé et al., 2007) which has a meso- to macrotidal regime with amplitudes from 1.1m to 4.9m. It is 490 about 25 m deep at the entrance but the inside channels are shallow (5-10 m), while about 70% of 491 the bay is covered by intertidal flats (Blanchet et al., 2008). The water residence time is more than 492 3 weeks in the South East part of the bay. Marennes Oleron Bay to the North (46°00N, 1°10W) is 493 similar in size (175 km²) and depth (mean=8.6m; Stanisière et al., 2006), and intertidal mudflats 494 cover about 60% of its surface (Fig. S2). Freshwater arrives mainly from the Charente River, with 3x10⁹ m³.v⁻¹, or 90% of the total freshwater input (DDE-Charente Maritime/HYDRO-MEDD/DE). 495 496 The bay is characterised by a macrotidal system, with amplitudes from 2 to 6m. It communicates 497 with the ocean through two passes, the Pertuis de Maumusson to the South and the Pertuis 498 d'Antioche to the North, with a relatively short residence time of 11 days. Tidal exchanges are 499 greater through the northern pass, resulting in a north-south circulation of oceanic (Bay of Biscay) 500 water (Struski, 2005).

Sampling was carried out twice weekly, from January to August 2005, at 2 stations in Arcachon Bay: B13, near the mouth of the Bay, which is under oceanic influence, and Comprian, in the inner basin, which is affected by the continental runoff. Five stations were surveyed in Marennes Oleron Bay on a bi-monthly basis (January to December 2006). The stations were spread out over the entire basin: one was close to the southern pass (A= Auger), two were above mudflats close to the continent (Br=Brouage) and island (O= Oleron) coasts, one was close to the northern pass (B=Boyard) and one near the mouth of the Charente River (C=Charente).

Water samples were collected in both bays near the surface (<1m) using Niskin bottles. Subsamples were fixed on board. The rest were kept in 8L polypropylene dark bottles for laboratory analyses (transfer time <3h). Physical parameters (temperature, salinity, pH) were recorded on board with multiparameter probes (Seabird SBE25 in Arcachon and YSI 6600EDS-M in Marennes).

512

513 Batch culture design

Experimental water was collected at high tide at the surface from the central Comprian station in Arcachon Bay on 17 May 2006 and from the northern "E" station in Marennes Bay (Fig. S2) on 24 April 2007. The experimental protocols were based on a slightly modified version of the method of Auguet et al. (2009). In the lab, three water categories were obtained by sequential filtration from 518 75L of seawater: (1) <20 μ m, filtered through nylon membranes, (2) <3 μ m, filtered through 519 Versapor acrylic polymer membranes (Gelman Sciences Inc.) and (3) <0.8 μ m, filtered through 520 cellulose acetate membranes (Sartorius). Viral particles were then concentrated from 40L of <0.2-521 water, as a high molecular weight concentrate (HMWC) using a 30kDa polysulfone cartridge 522 (Sartorius). Viral-free water was kept for use as dilution water. Six different treatments were 523 prepared with the three water categories (Table 3), each diluted ten fold with the dilution water and 524 enriched (x2) or not with viruses (HMWC).

Each of the six treatments were triplicated in 2.4L Nalgene polycarbonate bottles filled with 2200 ml and incubated under *in situ* conditions of light and temperature in circulating seawater tanks. Samples for bacterial, viral, phytoplankton and flagellate counts were collected at 0, 6, 12, 18, 24, and 48h. Samples for bacterial activity and diversity were collected every 12h. Samples for ciliate abundance were collected at the beginning and the end of the experiment (<20µm treatment).

530

531 *Physical and chemical parameters*

Seston was assessed by filtering 200 to 500 ml of water according to turbidity and processed
according to Auguet et al. (2005). Samples for dissolved inorganic nutrients (Silicate (Si),
Phosphate (PO₄), Urea, Ammonium (NH₄), Nitrite (NO₂) and Nitrate (NO₃)) were filtered (20ml,
Whatman GF/F) into glass flasks and stored at -20°C for analyses with an autoanalyser (Bran and
Luebbe, AA3 for Arcachon and Skalar for Marennes (Strickland and Parsons, 1972)).

537

538 Biological parameters

Chlorophyll *a* (chla) and pheopigment were analysed by filtering 200 ml of water through Whatman
GF/F filters (25 mm). Filters were stored for less than a month at -20°C before extraction (acetone
90% overnight at 4°C and shaken). Samples were analysed by the fluorimetry method (Turner, TD
700) according to Yentsch and Menzel (1963).

543 Subsamples (3ml) for viral and bacterial counts were fixed with 0.02-µm filtered formaldehyde (2% 544 final concentration) and stored for less than a week at 4°C. Samples were enumerated by epifluorescence microscopy after staining for 30 min with Sybr Green I (Noble and Fuhrman, 1998). 545 546 Bacteria and viruses were counted in at least 15 fields chosen randomly under blue excitation (Zeiss 547 Axioskop 1000x). Using flow cytometry (FACSCalibur, Bekton Dickinson) and Sybr-GreenI staining, bacteria cells were distinguished between High Nucleic Acid (HNA) and Low Nucleic 548 549 Acid (LNA) cells. Furthermore, for batch culture samples, HNA cells were clustered in 4 sub-550 groups (populations 3, 4, 5 and 6) according to decreasing biovolume (2, 0.8, 0.3 and 0.15 μ m³, 551 respectively) and fluorescence. Small phytoplankton cells (<10µm; picoeukaryotes, nanoeukaryotes 552 and Synechococcus) were analysed using flow cytometry according to Joux et al. (2005). 553 Microphytoplankton (>10µm) and ciliate subsamples were fixed and stained in alkaline lugol (final 554 concentration, 1%). 10-20 ml subsamples were decanted in Utermöhl settling chambers before 555 counting and sizing by inverted microscopy (white light, Leica DMIRB, 400x – 630x). For ciliate samples, the suspended matter of a 1L subsample was settled for 6h at *in situ* temperature before 556 557 siphoning off the top 850ml and fixing a 150ml aliquot of the siphoned water. Nanoflagellates (60ml) were fixed with paraformaldehyde (final concentration 1%) and stored at 4°C for less than a 558 559 week. Cells filtered onto 0.8µm black polycarbonate membranes (Nucleopore) were stained with 560 DAPI (Porter and Feig, 1980) and counted under ultraviolet excitation (Zeiss Axioskop 1000x) with a distinction between unpigmented (HNF) and pigmented (ANF) nanoflagellates based on the 561 absence of chlorophyll fluorescence under green excitation. At least 100 nanoflagellates were 562 563 counted for each slide.

Mesozooplankton were collected 1m below the surface in Arcachon Bay using a standard 200µm
WP-2 net towed slowly against the current. The catch was fixed in 5% seawater/formalin and
counted with a binocular loupe.

567

569 Bacterial growth, viral production and bacterial mortality

The maximum specific growth rate (h^{-1}) of bacteria was calculated from log transformed abundance 570 data during the exponential growth phase in each bottle. Total viral production rate (h⁻¹) was 571 572 calculated by adding the net increase of logarithmic viral abundance during each peak divided by the incubation time. The bacterial mortality (cell.ml⁻¹.h⁻¹) induced by viral lysis was determined in 573 unenriched treatments from the viral production (sum of the net increase of viral abundance divided 574 by the duration of the experiment, particles.ml⁻¹.h⁻¹) divided by an assumed burst size of 50. The 575 percentage of bacterial cells lysed (d⁻¹) was equivalent to the bacterial mortality rate (cell.ml⁻¹.d⁻¹) 576 577 divided by the total bacterial abundance.

578

579 Bacterial activity

Leucine aminopeptidase activity was measured in duplicate at T0, 12, 24, 36 and T48h by using L-580 581 Leucine-7-amino-4-methylcoumarin hydrochloride (Leu-MCA, Sigma) as a model protein substrate, according to Hoppe (1993). The enzyme Vmax was determined by adding substrate to the sample, 582 giving a final saturating concentration of 1000µM. Incubations were performed in the dark and at in 583 *situ* temperature for around 5h, then stopped using Sodium-dodecyl sulfate (1% final concentration) 584 585 The release of 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin dye (MCA, Sigma) was measured with a spectrofluorometer (Kontron, model SFM 25) at 380nm excitation and 440nm emission. Solutions 586 587 of MCA (20 to 2000nM) were used as a standard for calibration. The potential enzymatic activity per cell was obtained by dividing Vmax by the corresponding bacterial abundance (specific Vmax, 588 $fM.cell^{-1}.h^{-1}).$ 589

590

591 Bacterial diversity

Bacterial community composition was determined with fluorescent *in situ* hybridization using eight
Cy-3 labelled probes (MWG-Biotech): a mix of Eub 338 I,II and III for Eubacteria, Pla5a for
Planctomycetes, CF319a for Cytophaga-Flavobacterium cluster, Alf1b for *α-proteobacteria*, Bet43a

595 for *β-proteobacteria*, Gam42a for *γ-proteobacteria*, Arch915 for *archaea* and a non specific probe 596 as a control (Amann et al., 1995; Bouvier and Del Giorgio, 2007).

Samples were fixed in paraformaldehyde (2% final) and stored for at least 12h at 4°C before 597 598 freezing at -20°C. Bacteria were filtered onto 0.2µm polycarbonate membranes (Whatman), rinsed 599 with 0.2µm-filtered milli-Q water, dried and stored at -20°C. Pieces of membrane were hybridized with 9μ of hybridization solution (Cy3-labelled probe, 2.5ng. μ ⁻¹) for 4h30 at 46°C and washed at 600 48°C for 15 mn. The membrane was then rinsed for a few seconds successively in 0.2µm-filtered 601 602 Milli-Q water then 80% ethanol and finally air dried. Bacterial cells were counter-stained with DAPI mounting solution $(0.25\mu g.\mu)^{-1}$ in (Citifluor (Biovalley)/Vectashield (Ablys, SA, Paris): 4/1). 603 604 At least 10 fields were counted on an epifluorescence microscope (Axioskop, Zeiss) using Cv3 (blue) and DAPI (UV) filters. 605

606

607 Identification of trophic dynamics

Trophic periods were defined empirically using the 4 conceptual trophic flux models of Legendre and Rassoulzadegan (1995), primarily from the abundances of phytoplankton and bacteria but also taking into account the dynamics of viruses, HNF and ciliates (Table 4).

611 The herbivorous food web is characterized by blooms of large (>10 μ m) phytoplankton cells. During 612 this period there is in general an increase in the number of ciliates. The microbial food web is 613 defined by an increase of small autotrophs (phytoplankton <10µm) and heterotrophs (bacteria). Their potential predators (HNF and ciliates) may increase in number. The microbial loop, a closed 614 615 system maintained by nutrient regeneration, is characterized by high abundance of exclusively 616 heterotrophic micro-organisms (bacteria, HNF and ciliates). Finally, the multivorous food web is a 617 transitional model where all trophic pathways are actively contributing to the dynamics of the 618 ecosystem.

619 The trophic organization identified for each bay was then formalized using multivariate factorial620 discriminant analysis (FDA). FDA classifies the samples using predefined criteria (i.e. the trophic

model) to discriminate samples according to independent variables (all abiotic and biotic parameters). Prior to the FDA analysis, data were normalized and tested for heteroskedasticity (Levene test, Ho: equal variances between criteria). The purpose was to test whether samples are classified as predicted by the empirical trophic model and to assess the relative importance of the independent variables in the classification. The significance of clustering is tested by a Wilks Lambda test (low Lambda values corresponds to significant (p<0.05) clustering).

627

628 Statistical analysis

To compare field data between the 2 bays, the Arcachon results (3-day intervals) were regrouped by

630 sliding means to obtain 15-day time steps, as in Marennes Bay. Statistical analyses were performed

631 with log transformed data using XlStat (Addinsoft; version 7.5.2: one way- or two way-ANOVA,

632 simple regression, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) combined with Hierarchical Ascendant

633 Classification (HAC), Factorial Discriminant Analysis (FDA)) and Minitab (version 15: stepwise

634 multiple regressions and Levene test for Heteroskedasticity).

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Table and figure legends:

Table 1: Annual means and simple linear regressions between bacterioplankton (BA) and virioplankton (VA) at the sampling stations of Marennes
 Oléron Bay (2006) and Arcachon Bay (2005). Linear regressions were performed with log transformed data.

	Stations	BA (cells.ml ⁻¹)	VA (particles.ml ⁻¹)	Equation	r²	р	n
Marennes	Auger	4.04x10 ⁶ (min-8.70x10 ⁵ /max-1.01x10 ⁷)	3.18x10 ⁷ (min-5.24x10 ⁶ /max-5.97x10 ⁷)	log BA= 1.5logVA-4.7	0.60	< 0.0001	20
	Boyard	3.95x10 ⁶ (min-1.01x10 ⁶ /max-1.30x10 ⁶)	3.36x10 ⁷ (min-1.82x10 ⁷ /max-5.59x10 ⁷)	log BA= 1.45logVA-4.39	0.46	0.001	20
	Charente	4.60x10 ⁶ (min-1.16x10 ⁶ /max-1.17x10 ⁷)	3.96x10 ⁷ (min-2.01x10 ⁷ /max-6.36x10 ⁷)	log BA= 0.84logVA+0.23	0.18	0.092	17
	Oléron	3.70x10 ⁶ (min-1.05x10 ⁶ /max-9.03x10 ⁶)	3.07x10 ⁷ (min-1.82x10 ⁷ /max-5.07x10 ⁷)	log BA= 1.74logVA-6.51	0.45	0.001	20
	Brouage	4.28x10 ⁶ (min-7.10x10 ⁵ /max-1.8x10 ⁷)	3.35x10 ⁷ (min-1.66x10 ⁷ /max-6.08x10 ⁷)	log BA= 1.6logVA-5.5	0.51	0.001	19
Arcachon	B13	1.05x10 ⁶ (min-3.10x10 ⁵ /max-1.58x10 ⁶)	4.48x10 ⁶ (min-7.50x10 ⁵ /max-8.11x10 ⁶)	log BA= 0.6logVA+2.06	0.83	< 0.0001	31
	Comprian	1.32x10 ⁶ (min-5.00x10 ⁵ /max-2.38x10 ⁶)	6.70x10 ⁶ (min-1.44x10 ⁶ /max-1.01x10 ⁷)	log BA= 0.47logVA+2.93	0.60	< 0.0001	31

857 Table 2. Stepwise linear regression of bacteria, virus, flagellate and ciliate abundance according to environmental parameters in Arcachon and Marennes bays for the entire year and according to the season. The seasons were defined based on the PCA results. Descriptors: BA: Bacterial 858 abundance, VA: Viral abundance, HNF: Heterotrophic nanoflagellate abundance, ANF: Autotrophic nanoflagellate abundance, HNA: Abundance of 859 high nucleic acid bacteria, Cil: Ciliate abundance, Pico: Picoplankton abundance, Nano: Nanoplankton abundance, Syn: Synechococcus abundance, 860 Dino: Dinophyceae abundance, Diat: Diatom abundance, Cop: Copepods abundance T°w: Water temperature, S%: Salinity, Crypto: Cryptophyceae 861 abundance, Seston Org: Organic seston concentration, NH₄: Ammonium, PO₄: Phosphate, NO₂: Nitrite, Chla: Chlorophyll a concentrations, Pheo: 862 Pheopigment concentrations. Logarithmic transformations were applied to all data. The coefficient of determination (adjusted r²) was corrected 863 according to the number of variables used in the regression. Copepods were analysed only at Arcachon and taken into account in stepwise regression 864 analysis, but their inclusion does not interfere with regression results except for HNF in winter. Bold parameters are discussed in the text. 865

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		Multiple regression equations	r² adjusted	n
	Annual	$ \begin{array}{l} \log BA=\!2,\!72\!\!+\!0,\!02T^\circ w^{***}\!\!-\!0,\!48 \log Syn^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!23 \log Pico^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!2\log Nano^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!39 \log VA^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!013S^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!09 \log HNF^{**} \log VA=\!6,\!18\!\!+\!0,\!42 \log BA^{***}\!\!-\!0,\!007S^{**}\!\!-\!0,\!003 \operatorname{coef}^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!31 \log Chla^{***}\!\!-\!0,\!14 \log Cil^{***}\!\!-\!0,\!116 \log Pico^{***}\!\!-\!0,\!22\% HNA^{***} \log HNF=\!\!-5,\!23\!\!+\!0,\!86 \log PH^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!125 \log Diat^{***} \log Cil=\!1,\!19\!\!+\!0,\!46 \log Chla^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!44 \log Nano^{***}\!\!+\!0,\!11 \log Diat^{***} \end{array} $	90.70 71.02 23.68 60.15	84 84 84 84
Marennes	Winter	log BA= 2,02+0,02T°w***+ 0,5logVA*** +0,002coef***+ 0,09logHNF** log VA=4,35+0,68log BA***-0,004coef***-0,28logSyn**+0,14logPheo* log HNF= -8,16+1,23logpH***-0,3logSeston Org*+0,17logDiat** log Cil=7,45+1,27logChla***-0,58logVA**-0,41logPheo**	81.21 77.31 47.01 47.87	40 40 40 40
	Summer	$ \begin{split} &\log BA = 2,94 + 0,32 logNano^{***} + 0,17 logNH_4^{**-} 0,19 logNO_2^{**-} 0,38 logSyn^{***} + 0,2 logPico^{***} + 0,41 logVA^{**} + 0,11 logchla^{**} log VA = 7,61 - 0,003 coef^{**} + 0,2 logchla^{**} + 0,11 logNH_4^{**} log HNF = \\ &log HNF = \\ &log Cil = 0,07 + 0,52 logchla^{***} + 1,03 logNano^{***-} 0,04 T^{\circ} w^{***} + 0,07 logDino^{**} \end{split} $	74.8 27.21 71.64	44 44 44 44
	Annual		04.11	21
	- initual	log BA= -2,16+0,55log VA***+0,52logPico***+0,24logSyn*** log VA= 2,36+1,38log BA***-0,73logSyn***- 0,46logPico* *-0,19logDino**-0,03T°w**+0,01S%* log HNF=18,19+0,22logCrypto***-0,9logVA***-1,04logCil***+1,94logSeston Org**-0,37logNH ₄ * log Cil= 1,36+1,29logSeston Org***+1,11%HNA**+0,74logPico***-0,4logPO ₄ ***+0,13logDino**	94.11 92.83 84.16 97.38	31 31 31 31
Arcachon	Winter	log BA= 0,97+ 0,44logVA*** +0,99logANF***- 0,38logHNF** log VA= 8,48-0,52logDino*** log HNF=15,47-2,1logNano***- 0,49logCil*** +0,28logCop**+0,3logPO ₄ * log Cil= -3,09+1,61logSyn***	91.04 64.67 94.96 82.23	14 14 14 14
	Summer	log BA= 2,47- 0,51logNH₄***+0,57logVA***+0,33logPO₄*** log VA= 2,93- 0,14logHNF* ++0,75logChla***+0,76logBA***-0,22logSyn** log HNF= -14,53+0,4logCrypto***-0,55logDiat***+0,56S%**-0,61logPheo* log Cil= 15,49+1,58logSeston Org***-0,24S%***+0,2logVA**-0,53logNO ₂ *	95.86 96.71 92.83 98.16	17 17 17 17

***p<0.001 **p<0.01 *p<0.05

Table 3. Description of treatments used in batch culture experiments, with abbreviations employed
877 in the text.
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Water category	Organisms	Treatment	Abbreviation	
-0 9um	Bacteria Virus	Control	0.8µ-Tr	
<0.0µm	Picophytoeukaryotes	Virus enriched	Enriched-0.8µ-Tr	
		Control	3µ-Tr	
<3µm	+ Small nanoflagellates	Virus enriched	Enriched-3µ-Tr	
-20um	Lorgo flogollatos	Control	20µ-Tr	
<20µm	+ Large nagenales	Virus enriched	Enriched-20µ-Tr	

Table 4. Definitions of the characteristics of the four trophic models defined by Legendre and
Rassoulzadegan (1995) and according to Rodriguez et al. (2000) and Mousseau et al. (2001).
Arrows describe the abundance dynamics of the biological compartments (increasing, decreasing or
fluctuating). ** Major parameters taken into account for the definition of trophic periods;
* secondary parameters. HNF: unpigmented nanoflagellates.

Trophic model	Large phytoplankton (>10µm)**	Small phytoplankton (<10µm)**	Bacteria**	Virus*	HNF*	Ciliates*
Herbivorous food web	/	\searrow	/	\leftrightarrow	\longleftrightarrow	/
Multivorous food web			×	/	>	
Microbial food web	\searrow	/	/		_	
Microbial loop	\mathbf{i}	\searrow	/		/	\longleftrightarrow

Table S1. Mean, minimum and maximum values of the abiotic and chlorophyll *a* parameters, with dates, at Marennes Bay (4 inner stations: A, B, O, Br and one riverine station: C). C was analysed separately because of the significant differences compared to the four other stations (H_0 rejected in a Tukey multiple comparison test). The seasons were defined based on the clustering of stations using PCA. Winter season: January to 5 April and November-December 2006. The remainder of the year was considered as the summer season. Runoff data were supplied by DDE-Charente Maritime/HYDRO-MEDD/DE for the Charente River.

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Marennes	Winter		Summer			
	Mean	Min/date	Max/date	Mean	Min/date	Max/date
Water temperature (°C)						
A,B,O,Br	9.19	5.1/1Mar.	14.5/28 Nov.	18.74	13.3/2 May	24.7/26 Jul.
С	8.59	4.8/7 Feb.	12.9/28 Nov.	19.67	13.6/2 May	24.8/26 Jul.
Salinity (PSU)						
A,B,O,Br	31.96	28.3/4 Apr.	34.3/7 Nov.	33.86	31/25 Apr.	35.3/24 Aug.
C	20.61	10.4/1 Mar.	29.8/24 Jan.	28.2	12.7/25 Apr.	33.9/1 Aug.
Nitrate (µM)						
A,B,O,Br	42.40	12.09/12 Dec.	97.98/28 Nov.	15.12	0.53/1 Aug.	78.17/25 Apr.
C	90.76	46.95/7 Nov.	192.9/12 Dec.	47.46	6.65/1 Aug.	167.5/25 Apr.
Ammonium (µM)						
A,B,O,Br	7.16	0.01/12 Dec.	68.62/28 Nov.	2.43	0.35/25 Apr.	18.85/24 Aug.
C	13.07	1.15/18 Jan.	68.83/12 Dec.	2.66	0.41/ <i>14 Jun</i> .	7.4/25 Apr.
Phosphate (µM)						
A,B,O,Br	0.97	0.5/5 Apr.	3.04/1 Mar.	0.48	0.01/2 May	1.22/18 Sep.
C	1.25	0.77/12 Dec.	1.61/28 Nov.	1.70	0.39/4 Jul.	3.8/2 May
Silicate (µM)						
A,B,O,Br	27.74	11.35/18 Jan.	94.28/12 Dec.	13.97	4.19/2 May	56.43/26 Jul.
C	39.14	27.03/24 Jan.	58.09/28 Nov.	31.97	18.3/2 May	60.45/18 Sep.
Chl a (μ g.l ⁻¹)						
A,B,O,Br	1.18	0.34/7 Feb.	8.31/1 Mar.	3.8	1.03/18 Sep.	16.78/2 May
<u> </u>	3.58	0.43/24 Jan.	15.53/7 Nov.	4.34	1.35/30 Oct.	13.84/2 May
Total seston $(mg.l^{-1})$						
A,B,O,Br	44.16	9.54/24 Jan.	163.34/7 Nov.	16.24	4.8/5 Jun.	134.6/24 Aug.
C	1637.9	18.31/7 Feb.	8820.5/1 Mar.	57.92	12.38/5 Jun.	263.5/24 Aug.
Charente runoff $(m^3.s^{-1})$	104.19	24.50/16 Nov.	380/10 Mar.	29.46	9.83/8 Sep.	71.2/25 Apr.

903 Table S2. Mean, minimum and maximum values of the abiotic and chlorophyll *a* parameters with date occurrence at Arcachon Bay (B13 and 904 Comprian stations). The seasons were defined based on the results of PCA clustering temporally the sampling stations; winter season from January to 905 the end of April 2005. The rest of the year was considered as the summer season. Runoff data were supplied by DIREN-Aquitaine/HYDRO-906 MEDD/DE for Leyre River

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Arcachon	Winter		Summer			
	Mean	Min/date	Max/date	Mean	Min/date	Max/date
Water temperature (°C)						
B13	10.30	7.4/5Mar.	14.8/29 Apr.	18.04	14.27/14 May	21.07/23 Jul.
Comprian	10.01	5.4/5 Mar.	16.42/29 Apr.	20.72	16.85/14 May	22.92/16 Jul.
Salinity (PSU)						
B13	34.26	24.02/29 Apr.	34.55/9 Apr.	34.49	32.3/16 Jul.	35.4/2 Jul.
Comprian	31.06	30.15/10 Feb.	32/9 Apr.	33.5	31.4/6 May.	35/30 Aug.
Nitrate (µM)						
B13	5	0.77/29 Apr.	11.21/19 Feb.	0.27	0.19/23 Jul.	0.48/6 Ma.
Comprian	8.19	2/2 Apr.	15.51/31 Jan.	0.93	0.26/16 Jul.	4.99/6 May
Ammonium (µM)						
B13	0.93	0.12/29 Apr.	4.71/ <i>31 Jan</i> .	0.15	0.03/14 May	0.59/30 Aug.
Comprian	1.98	0.59/12 Mar.	6.46/ <i>31 Jan</i> .	1.15	0.42/16 Jul.	2.38/30 Aug.
Phosphate (µM)						
B13	0.76	0.37/29 Apr.	2.34/26 Mar.	0.27	0.18/30 Aug.	0.36/6 May
Comprian	0.59	0.28/10 Feb.	1.8/26 Mar.	0.4	0.27/9 Jul.	0.82/13 Aug.
Silicate (µM)						
B13	4.65	0.82/9 Apr.	7.10/23 Jan.	3.6	1.31/20 Aug.	11.11/25 Jun.
Comprian	13.96	6.59/2 Apr.	21.93/31 Jan.	10.69	5.75/30 Aug.	17.78/25 Jun.
Chl a (μ g.l ⁻¹)						
B13	0.95	0.44/12 Mar.	1.61/2 Apr.	0.77	0/30 Aug.	1.55/28 May
Comprian	1.09	0.6/5 Mar.	1.9/2 Apr.	1.37	0.72/18 Jun.	2.32/4 Jun.
Total seston $(mg.l^{-1})$						
B13	34.64	5.59/2 Apr.	216.2/23 Jan.	0.765	0.470/6 May	1.15/18 Jun.
Comprian	33.74	6.44/19 Mar.	208.7/23 Jan.	0.920	0.56/30 Aug.	1.36/9 Jul.
Leyre runoff $(m3.s^{-1})$	13.46	9.69/26 Mar.	22.8/27 Apr.	6.44	4.02/25 Aug.	16.5/1 May





Fig. 1. Ordination by principal component analysis (PCA) of the basin stations obtained from microbiological, physical and chemical log transformed data in Arcachon (January to September 2005; ▲ B13, ■ Comprian, with sampling date) and Marennes-Oléron Bay (2006; ● with sampling stations

and date). Arrows parallel to each axis: structuring variables. Ellipses: clusters based on hierarchical ascendant classification analysis (HAC)

performed with coordinates of the station plots (straight and dotted lines: first and second discriminant in HAC, respectively).



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Fig. 2. Temporal dynamics of bacteria (\blacktriangle), viruses (\blacksquare), nanoflagellates (\square), ciliates (x) abundance and chlorophyll *a* (Δ) concentration in the 2 study sites, Arcachon in 2005 (A: Comprian station) and Marennes in 2006 (B: Mean of the 5 stations). The trophic periods are represented by different background patterns: \square Herbivorous food web; \square Multivorous food web; \square Microbial food web; \square Microbial loop. Arrows indicate the *in vitro* experiment periods.





Fig. 3. Time course of the logarithmic abundance of picophytoeukaryotes (A), abundance of
bacteria (B), viruses (C), heterotrophic nanoflagellates (HNF) (E) and specific aminopeptidase
bacterial activity (D) in Arcachon and Marennes experiments. Means ± SD of triplicate incubations
for each treatment.



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Fig. 4. Bacterial community composition based on FISH analysis: dynamics of Alpha-, Beta- and Gamma-proteobacteria in different treatments of Arcarchon and Marennes experiments. Gamma abundance at T48 is read on the right axis of each graph. Means ± SE of triplicate incubations for each treatment.



943 Fig. S1. Ordination by factorial discriminant analaysis (FDA) of samples from Arcachon (Comprian station) and Marennes (mean of the 5 stations). 944 FDA generated from microbiological, physical and chemical data (log transformed) and using an empirical trophic model as a criterion variable (\blacksquare , \blacktriangle , 945 •): (1) with all the parameters and (2) excluding the principal factors used for the definition of trophic groups (large and small phytoplankton and 946 bacteria abundance). Samples are clustered according to the trophic pattern. The microbial loop class was combined with the microbial food web class 947 because few samples representing the former were found in Marennes and it was absent in Arcachon. Independent variables: salinity, water 948 temperature, silicate, phosphate, ammonium, nitrate, nitrite, organic seston, pheopigment and chlorophyll a concentrations, abundance of viruses, 949 bacteria, autotrophic nanoflagellates, heterotrophic nanoflagellates, ciliates, picoplankton, nanoplankton, Synechococcus, diatoms and Dinophyceae, 950 biomass of ciliates and bacteria, copepods. Structuring variables are annotated along each axis: S%: salinity, ANF: Autotrophic nanoflagellates, Ciliate 951 biom: Biomass of ciliates, Chla: Chlorophyll a concentration, Picopk: Picoplankton abundance, Nanopk: Nanoplankton abundance, Si: Silicate, NO₂: 952 Nitrite, NO₃: Nitrate, NH₄: Ammonium, PO₄: Phosphate, Seston org.: Organic seston, Pheo: Pheopigment concentration, T°w: water temperature.



956 957 Fig. S2. Map of the 2 study sites, Marennes-Oléron Bay and Arcachon Bay, Atlantic coast, France, 958 showing the locations of the in situ sampling stations: Marennes Bay, stations Boyard 959 (45°58'43.73''N, 1°12'30.47''W), Charente (45°58'54.94''N, 1°07'17.28''W), Oléron Brouage (°53'45.58''N, 1°07'52.15''W) and 960 (45°55'41.47''N, 1°11'47.1''W), Auger 961 (45°48'02.3"'N, 1°13'22.7"W). Arcachon Bay, stations B13 (44°36'54.98"'N, 1°14'4.15"W) and Comprian (44°40'22.8"N, 1°04'38.1"W). Location of the sampling stations for in vitro 962 experiments: in Marennes Bay, station E (45°59'18.7"'N, 1°10'0.69"W), in Arcachon Bay, station 963 964 Comprian.

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