

Exploring the phycosphere of Emiliania huxleyi: from bloom dynamics to microbiome assembly experiments

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1	Exploring the phycosphere of <i>Emiliania huxleyi</i> : from bloom dynamics to
2	microbiome assembly experiments
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29 Abstract

30 Coccolithophores have global ecological and biogeochemical significance as the most 31 important calcifying marine phytoplankton group. The structure and selection of prokaryotic 32 communities associated with the most abundant coccolithophore and bloom-forming species, 33 Emiliania huxleyi, are still poorly known. In this study, we assessed the diversity of bacterial 34 communities associated with an E. huxleyi bloom in the Celtic Sea (Eastern North Atlantic), 35 exposed axenic E. huxleyi cultures to prokaryotic communities derived from bloom and non-36 bloom conditions and followed the dynamics of their microbiome composition over one year. 37 Bloom-associated prokaryotic communities were dominated by SAR11, Marine group II 38 Euryarchaeota, Rhodobacterales and contained substantial proportions of known indicators of 39 phytoplankton bloom demises such as Flavobacteriaceae and Pseudoalteromonadaceae. 40 Taxonomic richness of bacteria derived from natural communities that associated with axenic 41 E. huxleyi rapidly shifted and then stabilized over time. The succession of microorganisms 42 recruited from the environment were consistently dependent on the composition of the initial 43 bacterioplankton community. Phycosphere-associated communities derived from the E. 44 huxleyi bloom were highly similar to one another, suggesting deterministic processes, whereas cultures from non-bloom conditions show an effect of stochasticity. Overall, this work sheds 45 46 new light on the importance of the initial inoculum composition in microbiome recruitment 47 and elucidates the temporal dynamics of its composition and long-term stability.

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49 Key-words: Phytoplankton-bacteria interactions, microbiome assembly, phycosphere,
50 metabarcoding, *Emiliania huxleyi*

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54 Introduction

55 In the surface ocean, marine phytoplankton generate up to 50% of global primary production and at least half of this production is remineralized by marine heterotrophic bacteria 56 57 (Falkowski, 1994; Field et al., 1998; Pomeroy et al., 2007). From an ecological perspective, 58 interactions between these essential microbial groups are being increasingly recognized as a 59 major force shaping microbial communities (Amin et al., 2015, Seymour et al., 2017). 60 Phytoplankton-bacteria interactions are widespread in marine environments, in particular 61 within the phycosphere, the region immediately surrounding individual phytoplankton cell (Bell & Mitchell, 1972; Smriga et al., 2016). This microscale region, analogous to the plant 62 63 root rhizosphere, serves as the interface for phytoplankton-bacteria associations. 64 Phytoplankton exudates fuel the activity of heterotrophic microorganisms, that in exchange can 65 stimulate microalgal growth through the provision of growth hormones and vitamins (Amin et 66 al., 2015, Croft et al., 2005), protection against pathogenic bacteria (Seyedsayamdost et al., 2014) and through the facilitation of iron uptake (Amin et al., 2009). In addition, phytoplankton 67 68 release broad chemical classes of metabolites (Cirri & Pohnert, 2019) which can influence the 69 taxonomy of phycosphere-associated bacteria (Buchan et al., 2014; Fu et al., 2020; Shibl et al., 70 2020).

Recent studies addressing the processes involved in bacterial community assembly in the phycosphere showed the influence of deterministic factors such as the place/time of isolation (Ajani et al., 2018) and the host species (Behringer et al., 2018; Lawson et al., 2018; Kimbrel et al., 2019; Sörenson et al., 2019; Jackrel et al., 2020; Mönnich et al., 2020). However, a combination between deterministic and stochastic effects in the microbiome recruitment process was also suggested (Kimbrel et al. 2019; Stock et al., 2022). To date, bacterial community composition and selection processes that influence the assembly of phycosphere 78 mic

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microbiomes are not well known in many phytoplankton, in part because of the micrometer scale at which they take place (Kimbrel et al., 2019; Mönnich et al., 2020).

80 To overcome this challenge, possible strategies are to study the selection processes in 81 natural phytoplankton blooms (Zhou et al., 2019), in meso/microcosms or in cultures (Ajani et 82 al., 2018; Kimbrel et al., 2019; Sörenson et al., 2019; Fu et al., 2020; Mönnich et al., 2020), when algal cells are at high concentrations. Emiliania huxleyi is the most abundant and 83 84 cosmopolitan coccolithophore species and is able to form massive annual blooms in temperate 85 and subpolar oceans mostly during Spring (Tyrrell & Merico, 2004). E. huxleyi blooms are 86 characterized by blue turquoise waters that can be observed from satellite images (Tyrrell & 87 Merico, 2004). These blooms have a critical importance for carbon and sulfur cycles due to the 88 ecological and biogeochemical roles of coccolithophores as primary producers, calcifiers, and 89 main contributors to the emission of dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP) to the atmosphere 90 (Malin & Steinke, 2004; Rost et al., 2004). The potential role of viruses in bloom termination 91 has been thoroughly investigated (e.g. Bratbak, Egge & Heldal, 1993; Vardi et al., 2012; 92 Lehahn et al., 2014), but only few studies have targeted the microbial diversity associated with 93 E. huxleyi in natural environments (Gonzalez et al., 2000; Zubkov et al., 2001) and cultures 94 (Green et al., 2015; Orata et al., 2016; Rosana et al., 2016). The Roseobacter, SAR86 and 95 SAR11 lineages were identified as the main bacterial groups associated with natural E. huxleyi 96 blooms (Gonzalez et al., 2000; Zubkov et al., 2001). The co-occurrence of these groups could 97 be mediated by the presence of dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP), produced and released 98 by E. huxleyi during blooms (Malin et al., 1993), which could be used as a sulfur compound 99 by bacteria (Miller & Belas, 2004; Tripp et al., 2008; Dupont et al., 2012). Meanwhile, 100 microbiomes of E. huxleyi in cultures are highly dominated by Marinobacter (Câmara dos Reis, 101 2021) and by Rhodobacteraceae (Green et al., 2015; Barak-Gavish et al., 2018).

102 In this study, we followed the dynamics of the prokaryotic community associated with 103 E. huxleyi along a natural bloom in the Celtic Sea (Eastern North Atlantic) and used natural 104 bloom and non-bloom samples from different depths to investigate the microbiome selection 105 by an axenic E. huxlevi culture. We hypothesized that microbiomes recruited from bloom 106 waters would be enriched in Marinobacter and Rhodobacteraceae, often associated with E. 107 *huxleyi* cultures. Since composition can differ between surface and deep chlorophyll maximum 108 (DCM) prokaryotic communities (Treusch et al., 2009; Allen et al., 2020; Mena et al., 2020) 109 and is influenced by phytoplankton-bacteria interactions (Seymour et al., 2017), we also 110 hypothesized that the recruited microbiomes would differ according to the initial prokaryotic 111 composition.

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113 Materials and Methods

114 Study site and sample collection

Samples used in this study were collected aboard the schooner *Tara* (Sunagawa et al., 2020) in the Celtic Sea (from 48°19-48°24 N/6°28-7°02 W; Fig. 1A and B), during the '*Tara* BreizhBloom' cruise from May 27 to June 2, 2019. To monitor the bacterial dynamics in an *E. huxleyi* bloom formed in this area, an Argo float (<u>https://argo.ucsd.edu/</u>) was deployed in the center of the bloom patch and its position was used twice a day (early morning and end of the afternoon) for 5 days to determine the geographical locations of the sampling stations.

On the last sampling day, an additional site about 34 km apart from the bloom area was also sampled (Fig. 1A). For each sampling event, surface to 50 m depth profiles of temperature, salinity, turbidity, pressure, photosynthetic active radiation (PAR), chlorophyll *a* (chla) fluorescence, oxygen concentrations and pH were conducted by deploying a SBE19+ profiler (Sea-Bird Scientific). Bloom depth, determined as the maximum turbidity depth, was generally very close to the DCM depth. Surface and bloom water samples were collected using an 8L 127 Niskin bottle for nutrient analyses. After collection, nutrient samples (125 mL) were stored at 128 -20°C for further analysis. Concentrations of nitrate, nitrite, phosphate and silicate were 129 measured using a AA3 auto-analyzer (Seal Analytical) following the methods described by 130 Tréguer & Le Corre (1975) and Aminot & Kerouel (2007). Samples for flow cytometry (FCM), 131 scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and metabarcoding analysis were collected at the bloom 132 depth by pumping and prefiltered through a 20 µm mesh to eliminate large microplankton. For 133 FCM analysis of photosynthetic eukaryotes and prokaryotic communities, two replicates (1.5 134 mL) were fixed using glutaraldehyde (0.25% final concentration) and Poloxamer 10% (0.1% 135 final concentration) and incubated for 15 min at 4°C before flash freezing in liquid nitrogen. 136 For SEM analysis, samples of morning sites (two replicates of 250 mL) were gently filtered 137 onto polycarbonate membranes (47 mm in diameter; 1.2 µm pore-size) (Millipore). Filters were 138 placed onto PetriSlides (Millipore), dried at least 2h at 50°C, and finally stored at room 139 temperature. For metabarcoding analysis, cell biomass from bloom depth was collected from 140 \sim 14 L of seawater by successive filtration onto large (142 mm in diameter) 3 µm pore-size and 141 then 0.2 µm pore-size polycarbonate membranes (Millipore). Filters were flash-frozen in liquid 142 nitrogen and stored at -80°C for later DNA analyses.

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144 Scanning electron microscopy analysis

145 Representative filter portions were fixed in aluminum stubs and sputter coated with gold– 146 palladium (20 nm) (Keuter et al., 2019). Quantitative assessment of *E. huxleyi* cells was 147 performed using a Phenom Pro scanning electron microscope. Cells were counted in twenty 148 random screens (area analyzed = 0.16 mm^2) and cell concentrations were calculated based on 149 the filtered sample volume corresponding to the area analyzed (0.042 mL).

150

151 **Community assembly experiments**

(i) Axenization. The E. huxleyi strain RCC1212, obtained from the Roscoff Culture Collection,
was axenized following a sequence of washing and centrifugation steps, and variable
incubation periods with increasing concentrations of an antibiotic solution mixture (ASM) as
detailed in the original protocol developed at the Scottish Association for Marine Science
(Oban, UK) available at: https://www.ccap.ac.uk/wpcontent/uploads/2020/06/KB Antibiotic treatment.pdf.

158 This method is briefly detailed in the Supplementary Materials and Methods section.

159 (ii) Sample preparation and inoculation. Four seawater samples were used in the bacterial community assembly experiment. They consisted of a surface and a DCM sample collected in 160 161 the bloom area on day 5 (thereafter named inside bloom surface and inside bloom DCM) and 162 a surface and a DCM sample collected the same day outside the bloom area (thereafter named 163 outside bloom surface and outside bloom DCM) (Supplementary Fig. 1). In order to remove 164 autotrophic picoeukaryotes and cyanobacteria from the inoculum, seawater samples were 165 gently filtered through a 0.45 µm pore size membrane (Millex-HV, PVFD, Millipore). To 166 estimate the number of prokaryotic cells lost during the filtration step, aliquots of total and 167 filtered seawater samples were fixed for FCM analysis using the methods above. After filtration, 150 µL of each prokaryotic community (final cell concentration of about 6.8 x 10³ 168 169 cells/mL) were transferred in triplicates into 50 mL culture flasks filled with 15 mL of K/2 170 medium prepared as described in the Supplementary Materials and Methods. Finally, 150 µL 171 of the axenic RCC1212 culture were added to each flask (final cell concentration of 3.8×10^3 172 cells/mL). Six flasks filled with 15 mL of K/2 medium and inoculated with 150 µL of the 173 axenic RCC1212 culture were used as controls. In total, 18 cultures (3 replicates of 4 treatments 174 and 6 controls) were incubated at 15°C and a 12:12 photoperiod regime. Due to space 175 limitation, only one thermostatic chamber with a light intensity of 20 µmol photons s⁻¹m⁻² using 176 a blue neutral density filter was available onboard for incubation.

177 (iii) Survey of the culture microbiomes. Back to the laboratory and 10 days after inoculation, 178 which corresponds to the time needed by *E. huxleyi* cultures to reach the end of exponential 179 growth phase, axenic status of controls was checked by FCM. Cultures (3 replicates of 4 180 treatments and one axenic control) were transferred by inoculating 100 µL of the culture in 10 181 mL of fresh K/2 medium every 11-14 days for the first 176 days of experiment and then every 182 3 weeks until its end (day 393). At each culture transfer and at the end of the experiment, 183 treatments were sampled for FCM analyses and prokaryotic community composition analysis 184 (3 replicates x 4 treatments x 8 DNA samplings = 96 samples) (Supplementary Fig. 1). The 185 axenic control was regularly checked to ensure the clean handling of the cultures. In addition, 186 culture flasks were randomized daily in the incubator to minimize positional effect on growth. 187 For FCM, duplicate samples were fixed as previously described and analyses, performed 188 according to Marie et al., (1999), are detailed in the Supplementary Materials and Methods 189 section. For community composition analysis, 2 mL of culture was centrifuged at 2,000 g for 190 30 sec to reduce the microalgal load. Preliminary tests showed that this procedure reduces 191 microalgal load while keeping most of the bacterial cells (about 90%). The supernatants were 192 transferred into new tubes containing 2 µL of Poloxamer 188 solution 10% (Sigma-Aldrich) 193 and centrifuged at 5,600 g for 5 min. The supernatants were discarded, and the pellets were 194 stored at -80°C until DNA extraction.

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196 DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing

DNA extraction from environmental and culture samples and amplification steps used to amplify the prokaryotic 16S rRNA gene using the universal prokaryote primers 515F-Y (5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') labeled with eight-nucleotide tag unique to each sample at the 5' end and 926R (5'-CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT-3') (Parada et al., 2016) are detailed in the Supplementary Materials and Methods and in Romac (2022a, 2022b, 2022c, 202 2022d). The "tagged-PCR" approach was used (Bohmann et al., 2022). Briefly, DNA samples 203 were PCR amplified using the above metabarcoding primers with 5' nucleotide tags and 204 following PCR amplification, the individually tagged PCR products were purified and pooled. 205 Pools were sent to Fasteris SA (Plan-les-Ouates, Switzerland) where ligation-based library 206 preparation was carried out and high-throughput sequencing was performed using Illumina 207 Miseq paired-end sequencing technology (2x250). In total, three DNA pools were sequenced. 208 The two first, containing the environmental samples and the first 84 experiment samples (first 209 7 time points) were sequenced in two independent Illumina runs (technical replicates). The last 210 12 experiment samples (day 393) were sequenced in another Illumina run without sequencing 211 replicates.

212

213 **Bioinformatics**

214 The steps of library separation, removal of Illumina adapters and first quality control were 215 performed by Fasteris SA (see Supplementary Materials and Methods). The detailed scripts 216 used in this study can be downloaded from 217 https://github.com/mcamarareis/microbiome_assembly. Briefly, raw reads from each 218 sequencing run were demultiplexed based on the 8 nucleotide tag sequences with cutadapt 219 (version 2.8.1) (Martin, 2011). The "tagged-PCR" approach we used generated half of both 220 forward and reverse reads containing a P5 Illumina adapter and the other half a P7 adapter 221 resulting in forward and reverse reads in both R1 and R2 files (mixed orientation). To deal with 222 the presence of reads in mixed orientation in the R1 and R2 raw files, the demultiplexing was 223 performed in two rounds (see details in Supplementary Materials and Methods). Then, primer 224 sequences were removed using cutadapt (version 2.8.1) (Martin, 2011). Because sequences 225 from different sequencing runs and from different sequencing cycles can have different error 226 rates, they were processed independently to obtain an amplicon sequence variant (ASV) table

227 using the DADA2 pipeline (version 1.14.0 in R 3.6.1) (Callahan et al., 2016; R Core Team, 228 2017). The overall read quality of the demultiplexed primer-free sequences was first 229 investigated with the DADA2 function *plotQualityProfile* to identify the position where the 230 quality distribution dropped for R1 and R2 reads. Then, forward and reverse reads were 231 trimmed where the quality decreased (i.e., at position 215 for R1 and at position 190 for R2 232 files) and reads with ambiguous nucleotides or with a maximum number of expected errors 233 (maxEE) superior to 2 were filtered out using the function *filterAndTrim*. For each combination 234 of runs and demultiplexing rounds, error rates were defined using the function *learnErrors* and 235 denoised using the *dada* function in pooled mode before being merged with *mergePairs* (which 236 generated ASVs of about 373 bp). Then, all the independent processed datasets were merged 237 in one sequence table (for each sample, reads from the two rounds of demultiplexing were 238 summed while reads coming from the two sequencing runs were kept separate) and processed 239 for chimera removal using the function *removeBimeraDenovo*, also performed in pooled mode and with a "minFoldParentOverAbundance" of 8. The parameters used at each DADA2 step 240 241 are specified in the Supplementary Table 1.

242 ASVs shorter than 366 bp and longer than 377 bp were filtered out, and the remaining ones were taxonomically assigned using IDTAXA (50% confidence threshold) with the Silva 243 244 database v138 (Quast et al., 2013; Murali et al., 2018). Chloroplasts and mitochondrial ASVs 245 were removed. ASVs not classified at the domain level by IDTAXA were assigned to the best 246 hit in Silva v138 by pairwise global alignment (usearch global VSEARCH's command) 247 (Rognes et al., 2016). These ASVs were removed if they could not be classified and/or were 248 classified as chloroplasts or mitochondrial sequences by VSEARCH (at 80% identity 249 threshold). The resultant ASV table was filtered to remove ASVs accounting for less than 250 0.001% of the total number of reads (abundance filter). Consistency of technical replicates was 251 evaluated by Procrustes analysis (function *procrustes* from vegan package), which measures 252 the similarity between two ordinations of the same objects, followed by a protest, which 253 measures the significance of the correlation (Oksanen et al., 2015). For this, we used a 254 comparative principal component analysis performed on the Hellinger transformed data. After 255 consistency was confirmed (p < 0.001 and correlation = 0.99), independent technical replicates 256 of each culture were merged by the sum of the number of reads of the ASVs present in the two 257 replicates of the same culture (prevalence filter). The abundance and prevalence filters 258 described above removed about 68% of the total number of ASVs while keeping 99% of the 259 number of reads. The final dataset (filtered ASV table used for further analysis) contained 107 260 samples (11 from the environment and 96 from cultures) for a total of 6,017,019 reads and 294 261 prokaryotic ASVs.

262

263 **Community composition and statistical analyses**

(i) Environmental samples. All the analyses were conducted in R version 4.0.2 in Rstudio 264 265 (1.1.442) and the plots were produced with ggplot2 (RStudio Team, 2016; Wickham, 2016; R 266 Core Team, 2017). Taxonomy treemaps of environmental samples were produced at the genus 267 level considering the best hits classified by VSEARCH. To facilitate visualization, low abundant genera (accounting to less than 3% of relative abundance at each sample) present at 268 269 the raw community table were grouped. To compare environmental samples and cultures, mean 270 alpha diversity indices (richness and Shannon index) were measured after rarefying the ASV 271 table 100 times at the minimum number of reads (2,479) using the function rtk (Saary et al., 272 2017). Hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) (method "ward.D2") was used to identify differences in the free-living prokaryotic communities by sites using the Hellinger distance 273 274 (Euclidean distance of the Hellinger-transformed matrix; Legendre & Gallagher, 2001) using 275 the function *hclust* from stats package (R Core Team, 2017).

276 (ii) Experiment. To analyze alpha diversity dynamics of the cultures, rarefaction was 277 performed at a read depth of 5,957 reads using the same approach as for the environmental 278 samples. For beta diversity analysis, the Jaccard dissimilarity was calculated on the rarefied 279 table using the function *decostand* from vegan package. Hellinger distance was calculated from 280 the non rarefied table also using the function decostand (Legendre & Gallagher, 2001). To 281 explore beta diversity patterns, we performed a principal component analysis (PCA) on the 282 Hellinger transformed data using the function *rda* from vegan. A principal coordinates analysis 283 (PCoA) was performed using the Jaccard dissimilarity using the function pcoa from ape 284 package (Paradis & Schliep, 2019). To test the influence of the treatments, replicates and time 285 on the microbiome beta diversity, we performed a permutational analysis of variance 286 (PERMANOVA) (Anderson, 2005). Before running the analysis, the functions betadisper from 287 the package vegan and *anova*-like permutation test from stats package were used to identify 288 significant deviations on the multivariate beta dispersion of the data for treatments, replicates, 289 time and of the interaction between treatments and time (Oksanen et al., 2015). The effect of 290 treatments and replicates (nested within treatments) was tested using the function 291 nested.npmanova from the package BiodiversityR (Kindt & Coe, 2005). To test the effect of 292 time and the interaction between treatments and time, we used the function adonis from vegan 293 including treatments, replicates, and time (number of days) as fixed variables in the model, 294 with permutations restricted to the replicates level. HCA was done using the Hellinger distance 295 as previously described. Taxonomy barplots were produced by showing the three most 296 abundant genera (considering the best hits classified by VSEARCH), while the less abundant 297 were merged as "others". IndVal analyses were run with the rarefied table to identify indicative 298 species of the three groups of treatments evidenced in the beta diversity analysis (inside and 299 outside bloom DCM and both surface samples) using the function *multipatt* from the package 300 indicspecies v1.7.9 with 10,000 permutations (De Cáceres and Legendre, 2009). P-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the false discovery rate method using the function
 p.adjust from the package stats.

303

304 **Results**

305 **Physico-chemical parameters and bacterial community structure dynamics in the** *E*.

306 *huxleyi* bloom

Coccolithophore blooms occur seasonally from April to June in the Bay of Biscay along the continental shelf to the Celtic Sea (Holligan et al., 1983; Poulton et al., 2014; Perrot et al., 2018). Here, we followed and sampled an *E. huxleyi* bloom for a week from end of May to early June 2019 in the Celtic Sea (Fig. 1A and 1B) using near-real time interpolated images of non-algal suspended particulate matter (SPM) derived from MERIS and MODIS satellite reflectance data (Perrot et al., 2018; Gohin et al., 2019) as provided by Ifremer (http://marc.ifremer.fr/en).

314 During the 5-day sampling period, temperature and salinity ranged from $12.4^{\circ}C$ to 315 15.4°C and from 35.4 to 35.5 PSU, respectively (Supplementary Table 2). In both inside and 316 outside bloom waters, nutrient concentrations were low with NO₂ + NO₃ and PO₄ ranging from 317 the detection thresholds to 1.25 µmol and 0.05 to 0.2 µmol/L, respectively. These low values 318 were typical of a bloom event where cells consume most of the nutrients. E. huxleyi whose cell 319 densities ranged from 1.6×10^3 to 5.6×10^3 cells/mL within bloom waters (Fig. 1C) dominated the total photosynthetic eukaryotic community (2.5 x 10⁴ cells/mL on average). In these 320 321 samples, total numbers of heterotrophic bacteria varied from 8.1 x 10⁵ to 2.0 x 10⁶ cells/mL 322 (Fig. 1D) whereas the lowest prokaryotic cell concentration was measured in the outside bloom sample (Fig. 1D and Supplementary Table 2). 323

Overall, the inside and outside bloom DCM samples displayed a prokaryotic richness of about 140 ± 29 ASVs (mean \pm SD, n=11) (Fig. 2A). Richness increased over the course of

the bloom, reaching a maximum at day 4. The DCM samples collected on day 5 inside and outside the bloom for the community assembly experiments contained 148 and 133 ASVs, respectively. The Shannon diversity index displayed homogeneous values (mean 4.1 ± 0.2) across samples (Fig. 2B).

330 Hierarchical clustering revealed 3 groups of sampling periods, the first one comprising 331 samples from day 1 to day 2 AM, the second grouping those of day 2 PM and day 3 AM, and 332 the third clustering those of day 3 PM to day 5 PM. These successive sampling periods reflected 333 the distinct shifts in the bacterial community during the bloom and may be related to the bloom 334 development (Supplementary Fig. 2). During the whole bloom survey, mean abundances of 335 prokaryotic communities inside the bloom showed that Proteobacteria (64% of the total of 336 reads) and Bacteroidota (15%) were the two major dominant phyla, followed by Cyanobacteria 337 (7%), Thermoplasmatota (4%), and Verrucomicrobiota (4%). Pelagibacteraceae (15%), 338 Pseudoalteromonadaceae (12%) and Rhodobacteraceae (12%) were the most abundant 339 proteobacterial families while Flavobacteriaceae (11%) dominated within the Bacteroidota. 340 Among the dominant genera, abundances of SAR11 clade Ia (about 10% of the total reads), 341 Synechococcus sp. (7%), SAR86 clade (5%), and uncultured Rhodobacteraceae members (4%) 342 remained stable along the bloom survey (Supplementary Fig. 3). Several other genera 343 demonstrated substantial abundance shifts. Ascidiaceihabitans and Sulfitobacter, accounting 344 for 7% in the first sampling period, decreased in the second and third sampling periods. 345 Nitrosopumilus (Thaumarchaeota), Thermoplasmata (Marine group II euryarchaeota), Vibrio 346 and *Pseudoalteromonas* exhibited an inverse pattern. As low as 2% or less in the first sampling 347 period, their abundance increased significantly (9 to 14%) in the second sampling period. 348 Pseudoalteromonas proportions persisted (14%) in the third sampling period while those of 349 other taxa decreased to their initial numbers. Not detected or at very low abundance in the first 350 sampling periods, *Alteromonas* peaked (up to 4%) only at the end of the bloom survey.

351 On day 5, prokaryotic communities outside the bloom grouped with those collected inside the 352 bloom area (Supplementary Fig. 2). In both samples, the fourth most abundant taxa making up to >44% of the total reads were identical and displayed very close proportions 353 354 (Pseudoalteromonas 19% and 21% in inside and outside bloom, respectively, Synechococcus 9% and 7%, SAR11 clade Ia 8% and 11%, and Alteromonas 8% in both samples). The main 355 356 compositional differences these samples that served as inocula for the community assembly 357 experiment were the abundance of Lentimonas (5% inside vs 2% outside bloom), and of the 358 OM60 (NOR5) clade and Marine group II members (each of them accounting for 2% inside vs 359 4% outside bloom). Relative abundances of the clades that were recruited from these samples 360 during the experiment were lower and close in both samples (OM43 clade, 1.5% and 2.3% in 361 inside and outside bloom, respectively; KI89A clade, 0.6% and 0.4%; Luminiphilus, 0.7% and 362 0.3%; Aurantivirga, 0.1% and 0.3%; Polaribacter, 0.5% and 0.2%) or similar (SAR92 clade, 363 1.5%).

364

365 **Community assembly experiment**

366 (i) Dynamics of cell concentrations and alpha diversity patterns

Seawater samples used to inoculate axenic E. huxleyi cultures were filtered through 367 368 0.45 µm membranes to remove phototrophs (autotrophic eukaryotes and Synechococcus 369 populations) and overcome their effects on microbiome assembly. FCM analysis demonstrated 370 that about 40% of the initial bacterial cell concentration was lost after this filtration step. As 371 addressed in the Discussion, we acknowledge that this step may have also biased the bacterial composition in the inocula. Due to limited incubation space onboard, cultures were incubated 372 373 at low light (20 μ mol photons s⁻¹m⁻²) and these light conditions were maintained during the 374 first weeks of incubation. However, a drastic decrease (~ 80%) of E. huxleyi cell concentrations was observed in all the treatments between the day 10 and day 33 (Supplementary Fig. 4A). 375

To avoid culture crash, we increased the light intensity to $70 \pm 20 \ \mu$ mol photons s⁻¹m⁻² and 376 377 larger microalgal inocula (10% of the final culture volume instead of 1%) were used to transfer the cultures at day 33. E. huxleyi cell densities gradually increased at each subsequent transfer 378 until day 71. At that point, they reached the highest cell concentration (9.9 x $10^5 \pm 1.2$ x 10^5 379 380 cells/mL) and remained stable up to the end of the experiment (Supplementary Fig. 4A). 381 Bacterial cell concentrations followed an opposite trend during the first weeks of incubation. 382 After a rapid increase (~94%) from day 10 to 47, they decreased once *E. huxleyi* abundance 383 became higher and remained relatively stable up to the end of the experiment (Supplementary 384 Fig. 4B).

385 Regarding the structure of the bacterial community, a severe loss of richness was 386 observed between the environmental and culture samples (Fig. 2A). At day 10, the bacterial 387 richness in the cultures was about one fifth of the richness in the natural samples (30 ± 8 SD, 388 n=12) (Fig. 2A). This reflected a parallel decrease in the Shannon index, which at day 10, was 389 about one third the values recorded in environmental samples (1.4 \pm 0.6 SD, n=12, Fig. 390 2B). Over the course of the experiment, we observed a decrease in richness along the first five 391 weeks (mean decrease 25 ± 7 SD, n=12, until day 47) (Fig. 2A and Supplementary Fig. 4C). After an increase at day 59 that corresponded to the period of culture recovery, the richness 392 393 values decreased again and remained stable until day 393 (12 ASVs \pm 2). The decrease of 394 richness was mainly associated with the loss of low abundance ASVs, while the dominant ones 395 remained over the course of the experiment (Supplementary Fig. 5). In general, the Shannon 396 index also decreased over the from day 10 to day 33 (mean decrease of 0.5 ± 0.6 SD, n=12) 397 and then gradually increased to values (i.e. 1.2 ± 0.4 at day 393, n=12) similar to that from day 398 22. The highest richness and Shannon indexes were obtained in the treatments amended with 399 the inside bloom DCM sample (richness, 26 ± 12 ASVs; Shannon, 1.6 ± 0.4 , n=24).

401 **Dynamics of beta diversity patterns in recruited microbiomes**

In order to identify the influence of the different initial prokaryotic community composition and to follow the changes in the microbiome beta diversity with time, we used two metrics, the Hellinger distance (Euclidean distance of Hellinger-transformed data) and the Jaccard dissimilarity. PCoA using Jaccard dissimilarity demonstrated that *E. huxleyi* cultures inoculated with surface samples grouped together (Fig. 3A), while those inoculated with inside and outside bloom DCM samples formed two other independent clusters.

408 Statistical significance of the effect of treatments, replicates and time, as well as the 409 interaction of treatment and time on the diversity of the microbiomes was assessed by 410 PERMANOVA and nested PERMANOVA. Before performing PERMANOVA analysis we 411 tested the beta-dispersion (variance) of the microbiomes grouped by treatments, time, 412 treatments over time, and replicates. The dispersions (variance) of treatments as well as the 413 interaction of treatments over time were not homogeneous for both metrics tested (p < 0.05). 414 On the other hand, dispersions were likely homogeneous over time and across replicates (p >415 0.05). Still, PERMANOVA results were robust to dispersion for balanced designs like ours 416 (Anderson & Walsh, 2013). PERMANOVA results of Hellinger and Jaccard dissimilarities 417 showed that significant proportions of the variance in microbiome composition among samples 418 were explained by treatments (31% and 25%, respectively), replicates (31% and 15%, 419 respectively), and time (6% and 7%, respectively) (p < 0.01) (Fig. 3B, Supplementary Tables 420 3 and 4). Although the interaction between treatments and time was significant using Hellinger 421 distance (F = 2.23; p = 0.016), it explained a small proportion of the variance (2.5%).

422 Clustering using Hellinger distance revealed that the prokaryotic community 423 composition of all the cultures grouped into three major clusters (Fig. 3C) supporting the PCoA 424 using Jaccard dissimilarity results. Based on the Hellinger distance, the outside bloom DCM 425 treatment samples (cluster a) formed two subclusters, highlighting the compositional

426 differences between the 3 replicates. Replicate 1 was dominated by Alcanivorax (78%, n=8), 427 while Erythrobacter prevailed in replicate 2 (88%) and 3 (45%). Cluster b mainly consisted of 428 microbiomes recruited from both surface water samples. Surface treatments were dominated 429 by bacteria related to OM43, KI89A, and SAR92 clades, and to Luminiphilus. The third main 430 cluster (c) entirely formed by microbiomes from the inside bloom DCM treatment was 431 dominated by members of the OM43 (29%), KI89A (28%), SAR92 clade and Polaribacter 432 (11% each). With the exception of those related to Sulfitobacter, Luminiphilus, OM43 and the 433 OM60(NOR5) clades, ASVs that dominate ($\geq 1\%$) in the cultures amended with inside and 434 outside bloom DCM samples were generally low in abundance or not detected in the initial 435 bacterioplankton community (Supplementary Fig. 6).

The number of indicative ASVs for each treatment varied widely and was significantly higher (21 out of 29) in cultures amended with inside bloom DCM waters (Supplementary Table 5). Flavobacteriales, with *Aurantivirga* and *Polaribacter* in particular, was the order containing the most indicative ASVs of microbiomes recruited from the inside bloom DCM sample. Members of SAR92 and KI89 clades displayed high *Indval* indexes in both inside bloom DCM and surface samples. The indicator ASVs of outside bloom DCM treatment were related to *Erythrobacter*, *Alcanivorax*, and OM60(NOR5) clade.

443 Besides the compositional differences among treatments, we observed a somewhat 444 cyclic pattern of the beta-diversity over time using Hellinger distance (Fig. 4). Microbiome 445 community compositions clearly differed from each other from days 10, 22 and 33 for all 446 treatments, but they gradually tended to become similar to their initial status at the following 447 time-points. This cyclic pattern was observed for inside and outside bloom surface treatments 448 (Fig. 4A and C) and was particularly evident in the inside bloom DCM treatment (Fig. 4B). In 449 these treatments, the dynamic was mainly driven by the dominance of the OM43 clade (ASV1) during the alga crash. In the algal growth recovery phase, the increased abundance of 450

Luminiphilus (ASV6) in surface treatments and of *Aurantivirga* (ASV12) and *Polaribacter* (ASV15) in inside bloom DCM cultures were also involved (Supplementary Fig. 7). The contributions of these ASVs were also supported by the PCAs species loadings. No cyclic pattern was observed for outside bloom DCM cultures (Fig. 4D). Instead, in line with hierarchical clustering results (Fig. 3C), dissimilarities in these cultures were higher between replicates than over time.

457

458 **Discussion**

In this study, we monitored the diversity of bacterial communities associated with an *E. huxleyi*bloom in the Celtic Sea, and collected bacterioplankton samples for conducting a microbiome
selection experiment in axenic *E. huxleyi* cultures.

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463 **Prokaryotic communities associated to the demise phase of the** *E. huxleyi* bloom

The composition of the bacterial community, *i.e.* the presence of Flavobacteriaceae, 464 465 Pseudoalteromonadaceae, Alteromonadaceae and members of the genus Sulfitobacter, indicated that the *E. huxleyi* bloom had already entered the decaying phase when we started the 466 sampling (Lovejoy et al., 1998; Buchan et al., 2014). Indeed, Flavobacteriia are reported 467 468 amongst the main bacteria present in the declining phase of phytoplankton blooms (Teeling et 469 al., 2012, 2016; Landa et al., 2016), which seems linked to their capacity to degrade high 470 molecular weight substrates such as proteins and polysaccharides (Cottrell and Kirchman, 471 2000; Kirchman, 2002; Fernández-Gomez et al., 2013; Kappelmann et al., 2019; Francis et al., 472 2021). Furthermore, the algicidal effects of Pseudoalteromonas, Alteromonas, and 473 Sulfitobacter strains and species have been documented in many microalgae including E. 474 huxleyi (Holmström & Kjelleberg, 1999; Meyer et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018; Barak-Gavish et al., 2018), which calls attention to their potential role in the *E. huxleyi* bloom termination 475

476 (Lovejoy et al., 1998; Barak-Gavish et al., 2018). Satellite images and post-cruise analyses 477 support that we started sampling the bloom in its decline phase. First, the high reflectance patch 478 visible on the satellite images (Fig. 1A) and the daily vanishing of the coccolith-derived 479 turbidity signal observed from the interpolated images of non-algal SPM were both indicative 480 of detached coccoliths from dead E. huxleyi cells (Neukermans & Fournier, 2018; Perrot et al., 481 2018). This assumption was confirmed by the complete disappearance of the coccolith-derived 482 turbidity signal a couple of days after we left the sampling area. Second, a suite of ongoing 483 experiments on the bloom samples using diagnostic lipid- and gene-based molecular 484 biomarkers (Vardi et al., 2009; Hunter et al., 2015; Ziv et al., 2016; Vincent et al., 2021) 485 revealed the detection of specific viral polar lipids and visualized E. huxleyi infected cells 486 during bloom succession, suggesting that Coccolithovirus infections may have partially 487 participated in the demise of E. huxleyi bloom (F. Vincent, C. Kuhlisch, G. Schleyer, pers. 488 comm.) as often proposed (Bratbak et al., 1993; Vardi et al., 2012; Laber et al., 2018).

489 As the bloom decline progressed, rapid and important shifts of the prokaryotic 490 community were observed, probably reflecting a direct response by certain bacterial taxa to 491 specific E. huxleyi-derived organic matter. Senescence compounds from decaying E. huxleyi 492 cells probably fueled members of the genus Ascidiaceihabitans (formerly Roseobacter OCT 493 lineage) (Wemheuer et al., 2015), whose relative abundances typically fluctuate during 494 phytoplankton blooms (Hahnke et al., 2015; Lucas et al., 2016; Chafee et al., 2018; Choi et al., 495 2018) and promoted other functionally different transient taxa that represent key prokaryotic 496 members during bloom decline. Among them, Thermoplasmata are generally associated with 497 protein and lipid degradation (Orellana et al., 2019) while Nitrosopumilus may be favored by 498 nitrite accumulation caused by algal release (Kim et al., 2019). The opportunistic Vibrio was 499 among the most rapidly responding bacterial heterotrophs in the bloom termination conditions, 500 likely degrading organic matter released from algal cells (Eiler et al., 2007) while Alteromonas 501 sp. have the metabolic capacity to degrade a diverse set of complex compounds like 502 polysaccharides during the later stages of the bloom (Reintjes et al., 2019).

503

504 Community composition of environmentally recruited *E. huxleyi* microbiomes

505 Since our primary objective was to study the bacterial community selection and 506 assembly by a single phytoplankton host, we used a filtration step to discard autotrophic 507 phytoplankton cells, such as Synechococcus and picoeukaryotes abundantly represented in the 508 initial planktonic communities (Supplementary Table 2). We acknowledge that this filtration 509 strategy has removed large and particle-attached prokaryotes, the latter probably being 510 abundant in the demise phase of the bloom, and has induced substantial modifications in the 511 initial community composition of the inocula and finally in recruited microbiomes. Indeed, 512 some of the main taxonomic groups recruited in the treatments were not previously reported in 513 E. huxleyi and other phytoplankton cultures or in low abundance, notably Luminiphilus, and 514 the clades SAR92, KI89A and OM43 (Green et al., 2015; Câmara dos Reis, 2021). Except 515 members of the OM43 clade (Yang et al., 2016), these bacteria are known as important groups 516 of oligotrophic marine Proteobacteria that do not usually grow in the rich organic matter 517 conditions provided in phytoplankton-derived cultures (Cho & Giovannoni, 2004; Spring & 518 Riedel, 2013). Another unexpected result of our study is the very low representation of 519 Marinobacter sp. in the recruited microbiomes whereas previous studies have reported their 520 dominance in cultures of worldwide E. huxleyi isolates (Green et al., 2015; Câmara dos Reis, 521 2021). We found them in low abundance in inside and outside bloom waters (0.15-0.2%), 522 similar to multiyear average values (0.18%) in the Western English Channel (Gilbert et al., 523 2012). Since *Marinobacter* can be closely associated with particulate organic matter, including 524 the eukaryotic phytoplankton population (Sonnenschein et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 2020), we cannot fully exclude the possibility that the filtration step impacted the abundance of 525

526 Marinobacter in the inocula and finally in the E. huxleyi cultures. A more likely hypothesis 527 however is that low light conditions might have induced algal cell death promoting the release 528 of methylated compounds (Reese et al., 2019; Fisher et al., 2020). The release of methylated 529 compounds by E. huxleyi may have provided a selective advantage to the specialist OM43 530 clade methylotrophs (Neufeld et al., 2008), dominant in all the cultures, and to other less 531 common bacterial taxa in the absence of strong competitors such as Marinobacter. This 532 hypothesis is in line with the opposite dynamics of *E. huxleyi* (decrease) and bacteria (increase) 533 coupled to the sharp decrease of the bacterial alpha diversity during the first month of culture, 534 indicating that a few bacterial taxa were outcompeting others. Despite the above limitations, 535 the high reproducibility of microbiome community composition across the biological replicates 536 suggests that they did not alter the general conclusions raised from our study.

537 Our results illustrate the importance of niche differentiation in natural communities. 538 Indeed, although no major differences were observed between environmental inside and 539 outside bloom bacterial communities, E. huxleyi microbiomes recruited from these samples 540 differed. Similarly, although we did not analyze the initial bacterial composition of epipelagic 541 surface samples (collected 34 km apart), they converged towards similar compositions, 542 dominated by Luminiphilus, SAR92, KI89A and OM43 clades. Other microbiome studies of 543 phytoplankton cultures have highlighted the impact of the initial community composition on 544 microbiomes after short (Ajani et al., 2018; Sörenson et al., 2019; Jackrel et al., 2020), and 545 long-term selection (Behringer et al., 2018). Remarkable features were found in the 546 microbiomes resulting from inside bloom DCM waters where several indicative flavobacterial ASVs, mainly assigned to Polaribacter and Aurantivirga, were initially selected and remained 547 548 among the most prevalent and abundant ASVs after growth recovery of the host. Both genera 549 were identified as the main degraders of polysaccharides during diatom blooms (Krüger et al., 2019) and showed clear successions along the bloom stages (Teeling et al., 2012; Landa et al., 550

551 2016; Krüger et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020). This may be related to the differential capacity of 552 these bacteria to degrade phytoplankton-derived polysaccharides during blooms (Teeling et al., 553 2012; Krüger et al., 2019; Avci et al., 2020; Francis et al., 2021). Interestingly, SAR92 and 554 *Luminiphilus* were also identified as important degraders of algal polysaccharides in bloom 555 conditions (Francis et al., 2021), suggesting their potential functional role in our cultures.

556 We observed contrasting results between the inside and outside bloom DCM recruited 557 microbiomes that can be linked to the origin of the samples. First, recruited microbiomes from 558 inside bloom DCM samples were more diverse and displayed higher number of indicative 559 ASVs, probably reflecting the higher diversity observed in the original seawater (Fig.2). We 560 assume that exopolysaccharides/exudates of axenic E. huxleyi cultures have strongly 561 influenced the recruited microbiomes and their long-term stability. We hypothesize that the 562 higher diversity conferred stability to the microbiomes allowing the recovery after disturbance. 563 This may likely explain the almost complete cyclic pattern they followed (Fig. 4B). Such cyclic 564 patterns were shown in the surface microbiome of the seaweed Delisea pulchra (Longford et 565 al., 2019) after experimental disturbances. These authors hypothesized that the production of halogenated furanones by the red algae exert a selective force for the establishment and 566 567 persistency of early-colonizing bacteria which may protect the host against the colonization of 568 pathogenic bacteria in later successional stages (Longford et al., 2019). In line with our data, 569 this study favored the view that higher diversity in disturbed microbiomes may be a source of 570 stability and resilience against perturbation (Longford et al., 2019). We consistently observed 571 cyclic patterns in treatments having a high degree of uniformity in the replicates. This was not the case for the outside bloom DCM cultures whose bacterial communities displayed high 572 573 levels of between-replicate variability.

574 Our study suggests the combined effect of deterministic processes and stochasticity on 575 the microbiome assembly. The significant imprint of the original community in the inside

576 bloom DCM treatments suggests that deterministic processes (e.g. pre-exposition to algal 577 exudates in the bloom assemblages adapted to E. huxleyi bloom exudates) influenced the final microbiome composition. On the other hand, variable communities grown from outside bloom 578 579 DCM treatment are consistent with stochastic assembly overwhelming any signal of ecological 580 selection. In line with our results, both deterministic and stochastic processes were found to 581 influence community assembly in both the surface and DCM waters of the South Pacific Gyre 582 (Allen et al., 2020). Homogeneous selection was the dominant community assembly process 583 at both depths. However, stochastic processes had more effect at the DCM than in the 584 temporally stable surface waters, presumably due to the greater influence of vertical nutrient 585 supply and higher productivity and lower influence of horizontal dispersal (Allen et al., 2020 and references therein). 586

587

588 Conclusions

589 In this work, we combined an observational and an experimental approach to reveal 590 the bacterial community structure in an E. huxleyi bloom and to address whether different 591 microbial composition could influence microbiome assembly in a E. huxleyi culture. Our 592 environmental data showed that the E. huxleyi bloom created unique ecological conditions 593 favoring the combination of bacterial and archaeal groups that followed a clear successional 594 trajectory. This trajectory suggests both potential algicidal bacteria-algae interactions and niche 595 specialization by different taxa possibly corresponding to different stages in the successive degradation of *E. huxleyi*-derived organic compounds. Our experimental approach showed that 596 597 the compositional homogeneity of the prokaryotic community of an E. huxleyi bloom in the 598 demise phase influenced community assembly through deterministic processes. We showed 599 that the source of the initial bacterioplankton communities influences the resulting composition 600 of *E. huxleyi* microbiomes. Further studies using diverse phytoplankton cultures isolated from a variety of oceanic regions and different trophic regimes could be useful to disentangle
deterministic and stochastic factors driving microbiome assembly in the marine environment.
Axenic phytoplankton cultures also represent a valuable resource to explore phytoplanktonbacteria interactions. Co-cultivation of isolates corresponding to indicative ASVs and *E. huxleyi* will be helpful to decipher how they interact. Future analyses combining transcriptomic
and metabolomic analyses will provide valuable information about the genes and molecules
involved in these ecologically key interactions.

608

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- 624 Data Accessibility
- 625 Genetic data and sample metadata:

Environmental samples are deposited in the bioproject PRJEB50692. Reads are deposited
under the accession numbers ERX9644183 - ERX9644242 and biosamples under the accession
numbers ERS10466567-ERS10466596.

Samples from the assembly experiment are deposited in the bioproject PRJEB48747. Reads
are deposited under the accession numbers ERX9767825 - ERX9768004 and biosamples under
the accession numbers ERS10539058-ERS10539153.

632

633 Author Contributions

634 CJ, MCdR, CdV designed the research. MCdR, CJ and SR participated on the sampling cruise.

MCdR and CJ collected the DNA and transferred the cultures. FLG, SR, CJ produced the genetic data. MJF and GK analyzed the SEM filters. DM and MCdR analyzed the FCM samples. TC analyzed the nutrients samples. MCdR and NH analyzed the results. MCdR, CJ and CdV wrote the paper. All authors contributed to the discussions that led to the final

639 manuscript, revised it and approved the final version.

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1100 Fig. 1. Sampling area and characteristics of the *E. huxleyi* bloom in the Celtic Sea. A) Map 1101 showing the bloom area and spatio-temporal sampling strategy (AM and PM denote morning 1102 and afternoon samplings). B) True-color satellite image of the bloom area on May 21, 2019 1103 (source: https://www.star.nesdis.noaa.gov/sod/mecb/color/ocview/ocview.html. C) E. huxleyi 1104 cell concentrations at morning bloom sites during the survey, measured from duplicate filters 1105 using scanning electron microscopy. **D**) Heterotrophic bacterial cell concentrations at morning 1106 and afternoon sites during the survey, measured from duplicate samples by flow cytometry. 1107





1110 Fig. 2. Composite representation of the dynamics of the prokaryotic richness (A) and Shannon (B) indexes in natural samples $(0.2 - 3 \mu m DCM \text{ samples only})$ and culture experiments. ASV 1111 tables were rarefied to 2,479 (minimum number of reads of the environmental samples. The 1112 boxes represent the interquartile range. The thin horizontal lines represent the 25th and 75th 1113 1114 percentiles and while the thick horizontal line represents the median. The vertical lines indicate 1115 the minimum and maximum values (using 1.5 coefficients above and below the percentiles). 1116 The dots represent the values measured for each culture. Dots further than the vertical lines represent potential outliers. X-axis in the in the experiment plot are not proportional to the time 1117 1118 length between samplings. The black dotted line represents the time where the cultivation 1119 conditions changed. 1120



 $\begin{array}{c} 1121\\ 1122 \end{array}$ Fig. 3. Beta diversity patterns of *E. huxleyi* microbiomes across treatments and time. (A) 1123 Principal coordinates analysis (PcoA) using Jaccard dissimilarity matrix of the presence-1124 absence transformed rarefied table. Colors correspond to each treatment that received prokaryotic communities from different water samples: green - Inside bloom DCM; yellow -1125 1126 Inside bloom surface (SRF); purple - Outside bloom DCM; red - Outside bloom SRF. Ellipses 1127 represent 95% confidence. (B) Permutational multivariate analysis of variance 1128 (PERMANOVA) and nested PERMANOVA r^2 of significant variables (p < 0.01) using both 1129 metrics (see Supplementary Tables 3 and 4 for detailed results). (C) Hierarchical clustering produced with the Hellinger distance matrix using "ward.D2" method. Codes of each 1130 microbiome are experiment sampling day_treatment_replicate. On the left, colors used for each 1131 1132 treatment are the same than in Fig. 3A. Bar plots indicate the taxonomy of the 3 most abundant genera. The other genera were merged as "others". 1133





Fig. 4. Principal component analysis (PCA) showing the cyclic patterns of the microbiome beta
diversity. Community distances (Euclidean distances of Hellinger-transformed data) are shown
for microbiomes from inside bloom surface (SRF) (A), inside bloom DCM (B), outside bloom
SRF (C), and outside bloom DCM (D). The polygons link replicates (shape coded) at each
DNA sampling (color coded). The black line links the barycenters of the replicates.