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Seasonal marine microorganisms change neighbors under contrasting environmental conditions

4	Stefan Lambert ¹ , Jean-Claude Lozano ¹ , François-Yves Bouget ^{1,§} and Pierre E. Galand ^{2,§}			
5	¹ Sorbonne Université, CNRS, Laboratoire d'Océanographie Microbienne (LOMIC),			
6	Observatoire Océanologique de Banyuls, Banyuls sur Mer, France.			
7	² Sorbonne Université, CNRS, Laboratoire d'Ecogéochimie des Environnements Benthiques			
8	(LECOB), Observatoire Océanologique de Banyuls, Banyuls sur Mer, France.			
9				
10	[§] Corresponding authors			
11	Email: pierre.galand@obs-banyuls.fr, francois-yves.bouget@obs-banyuls.fr			
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26 Originality-Significance Statement

Planktonic microorganisms in the ocean play a key role for oxygen production, carbon sequestration and nutrient recycling. These microbial functions are directly associated with the composition of the communities, which changes regularly with seasons and shows strong and reproducible patterns year after year. Remarkable weather events can dramatically change the environment, but their effect on the stability of the microbial communities is not known. Here we show that environmental perturbations transform and weaken the networks of co-occurring eukaryotes, bacteria and archaea. In addition, individual taxa changed neighbors from year to year, which could suggest switches between ecologically equivalent microbes. Such unexpected unfaithful relationships between marine microorganisms may promote the long term stability of the ecosystem.

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51 Summary

52 Marine picoplankton contribute to global carbon sequestration and nutrient recycling. These 53 processes are directly related to the composition of communities, which in turn depends on 54 microbial interactions and environmental forcing. Under regular seasonal cycles, marine 55 communities show strong predictable patterns of annual re-occurrences, but little is known 56 about the effect of environmental perturbation on their organization. The aim of our study was to investigate the co-occurrence patterns of planktonic picoeukaryote, bacteria and 57 58 archaea under contrasting environmental conditions. The study was designed to have high 59 sampling frequency that could match both the biological rhythm of marine microbes and the 60 short time scale of extreme weather events. Our results show that microbial networks 61 changed from year to year depending on conditions. In addition, individual taxa became less 62 interconnected and changed neighbors, which revealed an unfaithful relationship between marine microorganisms. This unexpected pattern suggests possible switches between 63 64 organisms that have similar specific functions, or hints at the presence of organisms that 65 share similar environmental niches without interacting. Despite the observed annual changes, the time series showed re-occurring communities that appear to recover from perturbations. 66 Changing co-occurrence patterns between marine microorganisms may allow the long-term 67 68 stability of ecosystems exposed to contrasting meteorological events.

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76 Introduction

77 The global carbon and nutrient cycle in the surface waters of the ocean is strongly driven by marine microbial communities (Falkowski et al., 2008). As microbial communities' function 78 79 and productivity are directly linked to community diversity and composition (Bell et al., 80 2005), understanding patterns and processes of community assembly is crucial for the 81 prediction of ecosystem functioning (Nemergut et al., 2013). Microbial community assembly is the outcome of biotic interactions such as competition, predation and mutualism, and 82 83 abiotic selection by local environmental conditions (Vellend, 2010; Nemergut et al., 2013). In 84 the ocean, there is a general consensus that microbial planktonic communities respond to the 85 physical chemical features of sea water. In temperate and polar regions, these features are 86 strongly associated with the seasonality of the ocean marked by changing temperature 87 regimes (Fuhrman et al., 2015). The dynamics of the ocean may be hard to capture by 88 discrete sampling schemes, and long-term oceanographic time-series studies have proven to be very useful to elucidate links between microbial communities and environmental 89 90 conditions. Temperature, day length, photosynthetically available radiation, salinity and 91 nutrient concentrations are the main abiotic factors that individually or together strongly impact the seasonal composition of microbial communities (e.g., (Treusch et al., 2009; Eiler 92 93 et al., 2011; Gilbert et al., 2012; Chow et al., 2013; Cram et al., 2015b; Salter et al., 2015; 94 Parada and Fuhrman, 2017; Auladell et al., 2019; Lambert et al., 2019)). Long term time-95 series of microbial communities have also shown the importance of biotic forcing (Chow et 96 al., 2014; Ahlgren et al., 2019). Top-down controls, which include predation and viral lysis, 97 and bacteria-bacteria interactions are important factors that shape community assembly. Microbial communities are complex systems of co-occurring species and the use of 98 99 interaction networks has strongly increased our understanding on the possible connections

between microorganisms within a community (Beman et al., 2011; Steele et al., 2011; Gilbert
et al., 2012; Chow et al., 2014; Cram et al., 2015a; Needham et al., 2017).

102 Time-series studies have demonstrated the strong predictability of microbial 103 community composition season after season, and year after year (Fuhrman et al., 2006). This 104 key feature has been seen repeatedly for bacteria and archaea (Hugoni et al., 2013; Chafee et 105 al., 2018; Galand et al., 2018), but also eukaryotes (Giner et al., 2019), and appears to be 106 maintained under irregular environmental perturbations (Lambert et al., 2019). This strong 107 pattern of re-occurrence has been explained by the invisible hand metaphor, which refers to 108 the cumulative effect of individuals working in their own self-interest that leads to well-109 regulated community function without any centralized control mechanism (Fuhrman et al., 110 2015). This long-term pattern has been observed at monthly sampling frequencies and the 111 question remains as to whether such a motif could be seen at higher sampling frequency. 112 Generation times of phytoplankton and marine bacteria can vary a lot, but are estimated to range from a few hours to a few days (Kirchman, 2016). Daily or twice a week sampling 113 114 would thus better match the biological rhythm of the microbial sea (Fuhrman et al., 2015).

115 Higher frequency time-series studies have recently emerged and showed the rapid transitions between closely related strains (Needham and Fuhrman, 2016; Ward et al., 2017; 116 117 Martin-Platero et al., 2018) and recurrent patterns of microdiversity in a coastal ecosystem 118 (Chafee et al., 2018). They have followed the succession of species during blooms over a few 119 months at a daily frequency (Needham and Fuhrman, 2016; Martin-Platero et al., 2018; 120 Needham et al., 2018) or twice a week (Teeling et al., 2012). Only a few have monitored the 121 dynamics of communities over longer time period: one year at a twice a week frequency (Lindh et al., 2015) or 3 years at weekly/twice a week frequency (Ward et al., 2017; Chafee 122 123 et al., 2018). These studies have focused on prokaryotes and information on the long-term high frequency dynamics of the 3 domains of life is lacking, and especially for coastalecosystems.

126 Temperate coastal ecosystems are impacted by land and particularly in the 127 Mediterranean Sea, where sudden and irregular weather events, such as strong precipitations 128 causing flash flooding, storms triggering sediment resuspension, or wind inducing water 129 column mixing, can have a strong impact (Charles et al., 2005; Thyssen et al., 2014; Tinta et 130 al., 2015). These contrasting weather conditions are predicted to increase with a changing 131 climate (Scoccimarro et al., 2016). The question remains as to whether community 132 successions, and interactions between marine microorganisms, can remain stable under 133 irregular climate events, or if the predicted increases in temperature and strong precipitations 134 could disrupt individual interactions within communities (Berner et al., 2018).

135 The aim of our study was to investigate the patterns of planktonic picoeukaryote, 136 bacteria and archaea co-occurrences under contrasting environmental conditions. The study 137 was designed to have a sampling frequency that could match both the biological rhythm of 138 marine microbes and the short time scale of extreme events such as flooding and storms. 139 Furthermore, the multiyear sampling was intended to discriminate recurrent microbial 140 community dynamics from stochastic events. We sampled the Banyuls Bay microbial 141 observatory (SOLA), a coastal site of the NW Mediterranean Sea, twice a week during the 142 most productive winter months (January-March) and weekly the rest of the time. Samples in this study included those collected during an "average" year, with physical and chemical 143 144 parameters close to the long term mean, and two years marked by environmental winter 145 perturbations in terms of seawater temperature and freshwater influx.

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147 **Results**

148 **Overall community composition, diversity and environmental conditions**

A canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was carried out to compare the composition of communities during the 3 high frequency sampling winter periods for the prokaryote (Fig. 1A) and eukaryote (Fig. 1B). Communities grouped generally by month of sampling but there were some exceptions for both eukaryotes and prokaryotes, in particular samples from December 2016, February 2017 and March 2017 were separated from the others for both domains of life.

In order to precisely identify dissimilarities in community composition, we compared systematically differences between successive samples (i.e. t sample vs t_{+1} sample) for the 3 winter periods (Supplementary Fig. 1). The most important dissimilarities were identified as values above the annual average. They indicate abrupt changes in community composition within a short period of time. Their occurrence was indicated by arrows on top of the environmental conditions (Fig. 1C), and squares around CCA markers (Fig. 1A and B). Seven out of the ten highest dissimilarities in community composition occurred in 2017.

During the winter season, which is the most productive time of the year at the site Galand, 2015 #2028}, the strong changes in community composition, marked by arrows, corresponded most of the time to changes in salinity, but not always (Fig. 1C). These changes were associated with increased nitrate concentrations and often to higher river discharge (Fig. 1C). This was clearly visible in March 2015 (red arrow), December 2016 (blue arrow), February 2017 (blue arrow) and March 2017 (blue arrow).

The abrupt changes did not, however, impact the annual seasonality of the microbial communities, which was characterized by repeatable temporal patterns in the community composition, as shown by the higher similarity observed between communities sampled one year apart and lower similarity for communities taken 6 months apart for both eukaryotes and prokaryotes (Supplementary Fig. 2).

The Shannon diversity index pattern varied from year to year. Its range of variation
was low in 2015, decreased from January to April in 2016, and it was highly variable in 2017
(Supplementary Fig. 3).

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178 **Community composition at the class level**

Among all the eukaryotic classes found in the dataset, four main classes dominated: 179 180 Bacillariophyta, Dinophyceae, Mamiellophyceae and Syndiniales (Supplementary Fig. 4). 181 Overall, for a given month, the average sequence abundance of these major groups varied 182 from year to year (Fig. 2). Bacillariophyta, which showed relatively low levels of average 183 sequence abundance throughout the sampling period, were more abundant in February and 184 March 2017. Bacillariophyta were almost absent in March 2016. Average abundance of 185 *Dinophyceae* remained relatively stable during the three years of sampling, with higher levels 186 in January and February 2017. Mamiellophyceae had more variable patterns of abundance. In 187 2015, they were more abundant in January and February, in 2016 they were more abundant in 188 March, and in 2017 in January. Mamiellophyceae were mainly composed of the genera Bathycoccus and Micromonas. These two picoeukaryotes had different dynamics 189 190 characterized by a Micromonas bloom in early winter followed by Bathycoccus (ASV5 vs 191 ASV 4, Supplementary Fig. 5). Syndiniales abundance did not vary much in 2015, unlike in 192 2016 and 2017 when they were more abundant in March, and January/March respectively.

For prokaryotes, abundance of the main classes also varied from year to year and especially in 2017 (Fig. 2). For *Alphaproteobacteria* decreases in abundance were seen in February and March 2017. *Cyanobacteria* average abundances were relatively low and stable during the three years of sampling, except for an increase in March 2017. Average abundance for *Flavobacteria* in 2015 and 2016 showed an increase in March for both years.

198 *Flavobacteria*, in contrast, had a higher than average relative abundance in February 2017.

199 Finally, *Gammaproteobacteria* had similar levels of abundance between years from January

to March, except for February 2017 when they were less abundant (Fig. 2).

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203 **Co-occurrence networks**

204 The co-occurrences of ASVs was investigated for each high frequency sampling winter 205 seasons (January, February and March) by network analysis based on the Maximal 206 Information Coefficient (MIC). MIC identifies correlations between variables and is best 207 adapted to the non-linear temporal nature of the data (Reshef et al., 2011). The networks, 208 based on significant MIC values (p>0.05) with a false discovery rate (FDR) of 5%, show that 209 there were clear differences in the topology between years (Fig. 3). The 2015 network was 210 narrower, more clustered and more centralized than the 2016 and 2017 networks 211 (Supplementary Table 3).

212 The 2015 network was composed of 2 main modules, with a modularity of 12.4 and 213 5.7, respectively, as well as 4 smaller modules (modularity<1) (Supplementary Table 4). The 214 ASVs that were more abundant in January and February grouped in one module (Fig. 3A). In 215 January, the hub ASVs defined as the nodes with highest degree, belonged first to 216 Euryarchaeota Marine Group II (Archaea), and then a number of Eukaryotes including 217 Syndiniales, diatoms (Chaetoceros brevis), a flagellate (Florenciella parvula) and 218 Micromonas (Mamiellophyceae) (Supplementary Table 5, Fig 3A). The hub ASVs of 219 February belonged to Acidimicrobiales (OM1 clade), Gammaproteobacteria clades ZD0405 220 and SAR86, and diatoms (Chaetoceros curvisetus). The second main module was composed 221 of ASVs abundant in March and included SAR11 surface 1 clade (Alphaproteobacteria), 222 *Flavobacteriales*, *Rhodobacteraceae* and *Syndiniales* (Eukaryota) as hubs. The 2015 network did not show any discernible pattern with respect to temperature or salinity, but the highest
values were associated with the January ASVs (Fig. 3B, 3C).

225 The 2016 network consisted of 3 modules with a modularity of 14.5, 6 and 3, 226 respectively and followed a seasonal pattern, but with a distinct March module (Fig. 3A, 227 Supplementary Table 4). In January, the hub ASVs belonged to the cyanobacteria 228 Prochlorococcus, Acidimicrobiales OM1 clade, Deltaproteobacteria SAR324 clade, the 229 SAR11 surface 2 clade (Alphaproteobacteria) and to the dinoflagelate Gymnodiniales. In the 230 February group, the hubs were diatoms from the *Florenciellales* and Raphid-pennate 231 families, Flavobacteriales of the NS9 marine group and Syndiniales. The second module 232 contained ASVs that were more abundant in March. The hub ASVs were members of the 233 Flavobacteriaceae, MAST 6 (Stramenopiles), and Syndiniales (Supplementary Table 5). 234 Micromonas (Mamiellophyceae) was connected with both modules (Fig. 3). The 2016 235 network was separated into a low temperature (11-12°C) and a high temperature (13-14°C) 236 module (Fig. 3B), and the ASVs were mainly related to samples with higher salinity (38) 237 (Fig. 3C).

238 The 2017 network formed 8 low modularity modules (modularity between 4.4 and 0.5) (Fig. 3, Supplementary Table 4). A seasonal pattern within the ASVs was not as clear as 239 240 in 2015 and 2016. In January, abundant hub ASVs belonged to Micromonas 241 (Mamiellophyceae), Thaumarchaeota Marine group I (Archaea) and the flagellate algae 242 Pelagomonas (Supplementary Table 5). The ASVs abundant in February were separated in 2 243 groups. On the top of the network (Fig. 3A), diatoms (Skeletonema) were abundant, and the 244 hubs belonged to Flavobacteriales and, among Eukaryotes, Lauderia diatoms and the 245 phagotrophic flagellate *Ebria* (Cercozoa). In the second part of the network containing ASVs 246 abundant in February, a Syndiniales was abundant. The ASVs that were abundant in March were in the middle of the network and the hubs were identified as Synechococcus 247

cyanobacteria, *Flavobacteriaceae* and the flagellate *Chrysochromulinaceae*. The 2017
network showed a central module with higher temperature (13°C), surrounded by lower
temperature modules (12°C) (Fig 3B). It was composed of modules of ASVs found under
average salinity of 37, and one module of low salinity ASVs (35) (Fig. 3C).

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255 ASV co-occurrences

In the networks, a total of 42 ASVs were common to the three high frequency winter samplings (Supplementary Fig. 6). In order to assess if the first neighbor nodes of the 42 common ASVs changed from year to year, we represented the positive co-occurrences in radar plots (Fig. 4). The radius of the spider net corresponds to the MIC score between the central ASV and its first neighbors.

261 Noteworthy, all of the 42 ASVs changed neighbors between years. The number of 262 first neighbors also changed from year to year (Fig. 4, Supplementary Table 6). Overall, the 263 total number of first neighbors decreases from 2015 to 2017 (542, 389 and 263 in 2015, 2016 264 and 2017 respectively). Half of the ASV (21) had a larger number of first neighbors in 2015 265 compared to the other years. A total of 16 ASVs had more first neighbors in 2016 and only 2 had more neighbors in 2017. Three ASVs had years with similar number of neighbors (Fig. 266 267 4). The total number of neighbors per year varied greatly between ASVs. The highest values 268 were 51 for ASV38 (Alphaproteobacteria) and the lowest 6 for ASV10 (Flavobacteria) (Fig. 269 4, Supplementary Table 6).

Among the common ASVs, 23 were earlier identified as rhythmic over 7 years (Lambert et al., 2019) (marked by a black frame, Fig. 4). They also had first neighbors that varied in number and identity between years (Fig. 4). Finally, bacterial ASVs were mostly

associated with bacteria (59% of the first neighbors) while eukaryotic ASVs were mostly associated with eukaryotes (67% of the first neighbors). However, the affiliation of the first neighbor to a given domain of life also changed from year to year. For a given ASV, some years showed more eukaryotic first neighbors while other displayed more prokaryotic neighbors.

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- 280 Discussion

281 Our high frequency sampling study, focusing on the productive winter months, showed that 282 the patterns of the microbial networks linking members of the 3 domains of life changed from 283 year to year. To the best of our knowledge, inter-annual variations of network topology have 284 not been shown earlier. On the contrary, a recent high frequency sampling study from the 285 North Sea reported that network topologies were similar for co-varying microbes between 286 two different years for a same season (Chafee et al., 2018). Networks have, however, been 287 shown to change between seasons in both freshwater (Kara et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2017) and 288 marine environments (Chafee et al., 2018; Cui et al., 2019). Different temporal patterns in 289 network topology have also been observed along shorter time series (Martin-Platero et al., 290 2018). These temporal changes reflect variations in community composition with changing 291 environmental conditions along a year (Fuhrman et al., 2015). Nevertheless, these earlier 292 studies did not test the year to year stability of the networks. Many correlation-based 293 association networks have focused only on the overall trend of microbial interconnectivity 294 without distinguishing seasons and years, the goal being to identify time-dependent 295 associations among ecologically important taxa (Steele et al., 2011; Chow et al., 2013; 296 Needham et al., 2013; Chow et al., 2014; Cram et al., 2015a; Milici et al., 2016; Needham et

al., 2017; Parada and Fuhrman, 2017). The fact that network topologies can change from yearto year should be considered in future temporal studies.

The long-term stability of co-occurrences has not been tested earlier. Co-occurrences could have been considered to be robust and maintained over time since similar microbial communities have been shown to reoccur, at a same site, year after year (Fuhrman et al., 2006; Gilbert et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2019). We also observed annual patterns of reoccurrence, but our data revealed that despite these reproducible patterns, the microbial networks are not necessarily robust as their topology can be broken when climatic conditions changes.

306 Interestingly, the abrupt or gradual changes (salinity and temperature) that we 307 observed did not impact the overall rhythmicity of the microbial sea over the long term 308 (Lambert et al., 2019) nor in this study. Regardless of the environmental perturbations, some 309 ASVs reoccur every year. However, here we observed that these reoccurring ASVs rarely had 310 the same first neighbors, which indicate very strong changes of co-occurrence patterns from 311 year to year. The changing patterns probably correspond to the changing environmental 312 conditions that included higher sea water temperature in 2015-2016 and numerous salinity 313 drops in 2016-2017. Strong changes were also seen in the overall number of first neighbors 314 within a network, which was halved from 2015 to 2017. Nodes with fewer neighbors may be 315 an indication of a less robust network (Röttjers and Faust, 2018) and may thus illustrate a 316 possible weakening of the network of co-occurrence by environmental perturbations. 317 The observed changes in co-occurrence patterns may have different explanations. 318 First, if we hypothesize that co-occurrences represent interactions between microorganisms,

319 such as cross feeding, predation or parasitism (Fuhrman et al., 2015), it could mean that some

320 species might be replaced by others having a similar function. It could be the case for

321 *Micromonas* (ASV5) that co-occurred with different potential ciliate predators between 2015

322 and 2017. The possibility for a partial functional redundancy at the individual level has been 323 described earlier (Galand et al., 2018). Although there may not be functional redundancy at 324 the community level (Galand et al., 2018), at the individual level, a switch between different 325 organisms that have a same specific function is possible. In our study, a gene level functional 326 redundancy may exist for the Rhodobacterales and the Oceanospirillales, or the 327 Thaumarchaeota, which all could produce B12 (Doxey et al., 2015; Gómez-Consarnau et al., 328 2018), and that change co-occurrences with the Mamiellophyceae that are B12 auxotrophs 329 (Bathycoccus ASV_euk4, Micromonas ASV_euk22). Our study is, however, focused on the 330 small size fraction of the microbial communities and thus misses larger planktonic organisms. 331 Phytoplankton is known to interact with prokaryotes, but these interactions, and their possible 332 stability over time, cannot be accounted for in our analysis.

333 The other hypothesis for the change of neighbors is that there are only limited 334 interactions between species, and that the co-occurrence patterns only represent species 335 having preferences for similar environmental conditions, i.e they share similar niches. This 336 would imply that the strong seasonal patterns, such as the ones observed for dominant ASVs 337 like *Mamiellophyceae* or SAR11, would be driven by structuring environmental parameters 338 like temperature and day length (Gilbert et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2019). The reality 339 probably reflects a mix of both hypotheses with the presence of microorganisms that are 340 unfaithful in their interactions, and cohorts that respond to similar environmental conditions. 341 The abrupt perturbations that we observed at the Banyuls microbial observatory 342 (SOLA) were characterized by lower sea water salinity. These drops corresponded to 343 episodes of heavy rain leading to higher water level in the local river. Large rivers further up 344 the coast have also been shown to impact the study site (Laghdass et al., 2010). Episodes of 345 heavy rain are often concomitant with storms in the North Eastern Mediterranean (Charles et 346 al., 2005; Guizien et al., 2007). Storms mix the sea floor sediments through the water column,

which increases nutrient concentrations. Nutrients are also brought from land by the river and
can induce blooms measured as peak of chlorophyll, as seen earlier along the coast of the
eastern Mediterranean (Charles et al., 2005; Nunes et al., 2018).

350 At the Banyuls site, the strongest low salinity events were observed during winter 2016-2017. 351 The perturbations resulted in lower relative abundance of the predominant marine bacteria 352 SAR11 (Alphaproteobacteria) and an increase of Flavobacteria. Among picoeukaryotes, the 353 parasitic Syndiniales increased in relative abundance. The corresponding microbial network 354 was characterized by a low salinity module that was composed of diatoms of the genus 355 Skeletonema and Lauderia, and highly connected bacteria of the family Flavobacteriaceae 356 and *Rhodobacteracea*. Our results suggest that the freshwater input, and the associated 357 nutrients, favored the bloom of specific diatoms species that were co-occurring with bacteria 358 that are usually not abundant in the Bay of Banyuls at that time of the year. These bacteria 359 have been seen associated with diatom blooms earlier (Teeling et al., 2016), and diatoms 360 have been shown to bloom following episodic fertilization events associated with freshwater 361 runoff (Tinta et al., 2015; Nunes et al., 2018). Skeletonema in particular was observed to bloom following heavy rains along the Catalan coast (Estrada, 1979). It should, however, be 362 363 noted that microorganisms like diatoms are not expected to pass through our 3 µm filters. The 364 fact that we detected sequences from larger cells suggests that DNA from damaged or lysed 365 organisms passed through the pre-filter. The interpretation of the co-occurrence patterns is 366 thus done within the frame of this technical limitation.

Winter 2015-2016 was characterized by higher sea water temperatures in January and February compared to average. These higher temperatures may have impacted the bloom of *Micromonas* that took place later that year compared to average (February instead of January). They may have been replaced by Cyanobacteria (*Prochlorococcus*) that increased in sequence abundance and became hub species in the network in January. *Prochlorococcus*

372 are overall less abundant than Synechococcus in the NW Mediterranean Sea (Schauer et al., 373 2003), but appear to bloom in autumn when solar radiations are weaker (Sommaruga et al., 374 2005). Our results suggest that when sea water temperature remains relatively high in early 375 winter, the bloom of Prochlorococcus can persist at the expense of Micromonas development. Such a switch could have an impact on the functioning of the coastal NW 376 377 Mediterranean. It has, for example, been shown that after a mild winter in the Baltic Sea the 378 spring bloom was reduced, thus impacting the carbon cycle (Legrand et al., 2015). Such a 379 scenario could lead to lower carbon export to the marine food web (Berner et al., 2018).

380 Winter 2014-2015 had environmental conditions that were the most similar to an 381 average year. The corresponding microbial network was marked by a clear separation 382 between seasonal modules. It corresponded to the temporal succession of species in the 383 coastal NW Mediterranean, which is marked by a strong seasonality (Hugoni et al., 2013; 384 Galand et al., 2018; Lambert et al., 2019). In January, the hub species were picoeukaryotes 385 identified as Micromonas (class Mamiellophyceae), Euryarchaeota Marine Group II 386 (Archaea), and diatoms (Chaetoceros brevis). A Micromonas bloom at the beginning of the 387 year has been seen earlier at the Banyuls site (Lambert et al., 2019), but its co-occurrence 388 with Euryarchaeota has not been reported. In February, the communities were characterized 389 by diatoms of the genus Chaetoceros and bacteria belonging to the ZD0405 and SAR86 390 clades of *Gammaproteobacteria*. These bacteria have been reported as associated with 391 diatom blooms earlier (Lucas et al., 2015; Teeling et al., 2016). In March, the hub species 392 corresponded to classical pelagic microbial communities composed of the SAR11 surface 1 393 clade (Alphaproteobacteria) and Bathycoccus for the pico-eukaryotes, which is known to 394 bloom in late winter at the site (Lambert et al., 2019). As Bathycoccus and SAR11 are both 395 auxotroph to vitamin B1 precursors, their co-occurrence may reflect shared ecological niches

396 rather than interaction as proposed for co-occurring *Micromonas* and SAR11 (Lambert et al.,397 2019).

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399 Conclusions

400 Our high frequency sampling of NW Mediterranean microbial communities revealed that co-401 occurrence networks of picoeukaryote, bacteria and archaea changed from year to year. Weather perturbations in temperature or salinity seem to alter the topology of the microbial 402 403 networks. In addition, individual taxa changed neighbor from year to year suggesting an 404 unfaithful relationship between marine microorganisms. However, the global seasonal 405 patterns of rhythmic ASVs were maintained, which indicates that the communities recover 406 from these perturbations. It implies a strong environmental control, but it also suggests that 407 changing co-occurrences between marine microorganisms may allow the long-term stability 408 of the ecosystem. The resilience of seasonal microbial ecosystems remains, however, to be 409 assessed under the more extreme climatic events predicted for the future. Well-established 410 time series are essential for the monitoring of anthropological impacts on the sea and to get a 411 good understanding of the functioning of the microbial ocean.

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- 413 Experimental Procedures
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415 Sampling

416 Surface water (3m) was collected with Niskin bottles from January 2015 to March 2017 at 417 the Banyuls Bay microbial observatory (SOLA) (42°31′N, 03°11′E) in the Bay of Banyuls-418 sur-Mer, North Western Mediterranean Sea, France. A total of 5 L of seawater was 419 prefiltered through 3 µm pore-size polycarbonate filters (Merck-Millipore, Darmstadt, 420 Germany), and the microbial biomass was collected on 0.22-µm pore-size GV Sterivex 421 cartridges (Merck-Millipore) and stored at -80 °C until nucleic acid extraction. Samples were 422 collected twice a week during winters: January to March 2015, January to April 2016 and December 2016 to March 2017, and once a week otherwise (spring, summer and autumn). 423 424 The physicochemical (temperature, salinity, day length, nitrate, nitrite, silicate and phosphate 425 concentrations) and biological (chlorophyll a) were provided by the Service d'Observation en 426 Milieu Littoral (SOMLIT). The levels of the river discharging in the bay of Banyuls, the 427 Baillaury, were obtained from the "Service Central d'Hydrométéorologie et d'Appui à la 428 Prévision des Inondations" (http://www.hydro.eaufrance.fr/).

429

430 DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

The nucleic acid extraction followed protocols published earlier (Lambert et al., 2019). To summarize, the Sterivex filters were thawed on ice, followed by addition of lysis buffer (40nM EDTA, 50nM Tris, 0.75M sucrose) and 25 μ L of lysozyme (20 mg mL⁻¹). The filters were then incubated for 45 minutes at 37°C on a rotary mixer. Subsequently, 8 μ L of Proteinase K (20mg mL⁻¹) and 26 μ L of sodium dodecyl sulfate (20% v/v) were added before incubating for 1 hour at 55°C. Total DNA was then extracted and purified with the Qiagen AllPrep kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the kit's protocol.

438 Specific primers were used to target the eukaryotic V4 region (TAReuk F1 [5'-439 CCAGCASCYGCGGTAATTCC] and TAReuk R [5'-ACTTTCGTTCTTGATYRATGA], prokaryotic 440 (Stoeck et al., 2010) and the V4-V5 region (515F-Y [5'-441 GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA] and 926R [5'-CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT] (Parada 442 et al., 2016). Library preparation and sequencing were carried out by the Genotoul platform 443 (Toulouse, France), with the Illumina Miseq 2x250 bp kits. All sequences were deposited in 444 NCBI under accession number PRJNA579489.

446 Sequence analysis and preprocessing

The standard pipeline of the DADA2 package (v1.6) (Callahan et al., 2016) in "R" was used 447 448 to do the analysis of the raw sequences. The parameters used for the eukaryote dataset were: 449 trimLeft=c(20, 21), truncLen=c(250, 250), maxN=0, maxEE=c(2, 2), truncQ=2; and for the 450 prokaryote dataset: trimLeft=c(19, 20), truncLen=c(240,200), maxN=0, maxEE=c(2,5), 451 truncQ=2. We analyzed 141 and 142 samples for the eukaryote and prokaryote datasets respectively, and obtained a total of 3.8 and 3.4 million reads respectively after DADA2 data 452 453 processing (Supplementary Table 1). The taxonomy assignment was done with the The Protist Ribosomal Reference database (PR^2)v.4.10.0 (Guillou et al., 2012) database for the 454 455 eukaryotes and with SILVA v.128 database (Quast et al., 2013) for the prokaryote. The 456 "assignTaxonomy" function in DADA2 implements the RDP naive Bayesian classifier 457 method (Wang et al., 2007).

Taxa belonging to the supergroup "Opisthokonta" were removed from the eukaryote dataset and taxa belonging to eukaryotes were removed from the prokaryote dataset. Samples containing less than 5000 reads and 9000 reads were removed from the eukaryote and prokaryote dataset respectively. A total of 139 and 137 samples remained for the eukaryotes and the prokaryotes respectively. These preprocessing steps were done with the "R" package "Phyloseq" (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013).

Microbial communities in this study and in our previous study (Lambert et al., 2019) were not amplified with the same primer set. Here we chose to use universal primers shown to have a good coverage of both Bacteria and Archaea (Parada et al., 2016) instead of the two sets of separate primers used earlier (Lambert et al., 2019). In order to identify in this study the ASVs that were detected as rhythmic in our previous study, we compared both datasets by BLAST (Altschul et al., 1997) (blastn, >99% identity). For the eukaryotes, reads from both studies overlapped (~230 bp), and we could thus do a direct identification 471 (Supplementary Table 2). For the prokaryotes, however, the reads did not have an 472 overlapping region. We therefore did a first BLAST of the rhythmic prokaryotic ASVs 473 (Lambert et al., 2019) against the SILVA v.128 database. The matching sequences were then 474 extracted from SILVA to create a novel custom database. Finally, we did a BLAST of the 475 prokaryotic ASVs from this study against the custom database (Supplementary Table 2). We 476 could then identify the ASVs from Lambert et al 2019 and the ASVs from this study that 477 exactly matched the same SILVA reference sequence.

478

479 Statistics

480 Sequence counts for both datasets were normalized with the median-ratio method 481 implemented in the "DESeq2" package (Love et al., 2014), which is mathematically 482 equivalent to the compositional log-ratio (clr) transformation that accounts for the 483 compositional nature of the data (Quinn et al., 2018).

The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index was calculated with the "vegdist" function of the "Vegan" package (Oksanen et al., 2019) in "R". Distances between samples were calculated based on community composition with a canonical correspondence analyses (CCA) with the "Vegan" package in "R". Contribution of environmental factors were added as arrows.

488 Abrupt changes in community composition between two samples were identified as 489 Bray-Curtis dissimilarity values peaking above average. For that purpose, the Bray-Curtis 490 dissimilarity index was calculated between two successive samples (t vs t_{+1}), within each 491 dataset, to identify variations of community composition with time.

492 Networks were based on the Maximal Information Coefficient (MIC), a measure that
493 effectively identifies relationships between variables and that is best adapted to the non-linear
494 temporal nature of the data, and behave well with small datasets (Reshef et al., 2011). The
495 MIC was computed for each year based on ASV tables containing the most abundant ASVs.

496 They were selected as the 20 most abundant ASVs per sample, in each dataset, over each 497 winter period (January, February, March), and represented over all a total of 153 ASVs in 498 2015, 182 in 2016 and 187 in 2017. The MIC was then used to build a network that was 499 visualized in Cytoscape (Shannon et al., 2003). The full network was pruned to visualize 500 ASV interactions that had a Pearson linear regression > 0 (positive interactions) and a MIC > 501 0.75. These MIC values corresponded to significant interactions (p<0.05) when accepting a 502 false discovery rate (FDR) of 5% at most as computed with MICtools (Albanese et al., 2018). 503 The layout chosen for the network was edge-weighted spring embedded, using the MIC 504 parameter. Module analyses were done with the CytoCluster app (Li et al., 2017) for 505 Cytoscape, using the HC-PIN clustering algorithm with the default parameters (Weak, 506 Threshold: 2.0 and ComplexSize Threshold: 3). Network analysis was done using the 507 NetworkAnalyzer tool included in Cytoscape. Hub ASVs, which are the ones associated with 508 a high number of other ASVs, were defined for each network as the nodes with highest 509 degree (Röttjers and Faust, 2018). The networks were treated as undirected.

510 Radar plots were made with the "fmsb" package (https://cran.r-511 project.org/web/packages/fmsb) in "R". The heatmap was made with the "Phyloseq" 512 package. For this figure, the eukaryotic and prokaryotic datasets were merged. Only ASVs 513 with more than 10 reads were represented.

514

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751 Fig 3



755 Fig 4





Supplementary Fig. 3









Supplementary Fig. 5





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