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1 Classification: BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES 2 3 Delineating ecologically significant taxonomic units from global patterns of marine 4 picocyanobacteria Gregory K. Farrant^{1,2†}, Hugo Doré^{1†}, Francisco M. Cornejo-Castillo³, Frédéric Partensky¹, Morgane 5 Ratin¹, Martin Ostrowski⁴, Frances D. Pitt⁵, Patrick Wincker⁶, David J. Scanlan⁵, Daniele Iudicone⁷, 6 7 Silvia G. Acinas³ and Laurence Garczarek¹ 8 ¹Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Université Paris 06, CNRS, UMR 7144, Station Biologique, CS 90074, Roscoff, 9 France. ²Present address: Matis, Vinlandsleid 12, 113 Reykjavik, Iceland. ³Department of Marine Biology and 10 Oceanography, Institute of Marine Sciences (ICM), CSIC, Passeig Marítim de la Barceloneta, 37-49, Barcelona 11 ES-08003, Spain. ⁴Macquarie University, Department of Chemistry and Biomolecular Sciences, Sydney, 12 Australia; ⁵University of Warwick, School of Life Sciences, Gibbet Hill Road, Coventry CV4 7AL, UK; ⁶Commissariat à l'Energie Atomique et aux Energies Alternatives (CEA), Institut de Génomique, Genoscope, 2 13 Rue Gaston Crémieux, 91057 Evry, France. ⁷Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn, Villa Comunale, 80121 Naples, 14 15 Italy. 16 17 †These authors contributed equally to this work 18 19 Correspondence to: laurence.garczarek@sb-roscoff.fr 20 21 Keywords: biodiversity, next-generation sequencing, Tara Oceans, cyanobacteria, Prochlorococcus, Synechococcus, metagenomics, miTags, molecular ecology. 22 23 24 Submitted to: Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA

\abstract

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Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus are the two most abundant and widespread phytoplankton in the global ocean. In order to better understand the factors controlling their biogeography, a reference database of the high resolution taxonomic marker petB, encoding cytochrome b_6 , was used to recruit reads out of 109 metagenomes from the Tara Oceans expedition. An unsuspected novel genetic diversity was unveiled within both genera, even for the most abundant and wellcharacterized clades, and 136 divergent petB sequences were successfully assembled from metagenomic reads, significantly enriching the reference database. We then defined Ecologically Significant Taxonomic Units (ESTUs), i.e. organisms belonging to the same clade and occupying a given oceanic niche. Three major ESTU assemblages were identified along the cruise transect for Prochlorococcus and eight for Synechococcus. The picocyanobacterial population structure of the Pacific Ocean proved to be quite different from other oceanic areas. While Prochlorococcus HLIIIA and HLIVA ESTUs co-dominated in iron-depleted areas, CRD1 and the yet-to-be cultured EnvB were the prevalent clades in Pacific Synechococcus populations, with three different CRD1 and EnvB ESTUs occupying distinct ecological niches with regard to iron availability and temperature. Sharp community shifts were also observed over short geographic distances, e.g. around the Marquesas Islands or between southern Indian and Atlantic Oceans, pointing to a tight correlation between ESTU assemblages and specific physico-chemical parameters. Together, this study demonstrates that there is ecologically meaningful fine-scale diversity within currently defined picocyanobacterial clades, bringing novel insights into the ecology, diversity and biology of the two most abundant phototrophs on Earth.

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Significance

Metagenomics has become an accessible approach to study complex microbial communities thanks to the advent of high-throughput sequencing technologies. However, molecular ecology studies often face interpretation issues, notably due to the lack of reliable reference databases for assigning reads to the correct taxa and use of fixed cut-offs to delineate taxonomic groups. Here, we considerably refined the phylogeography of marine picocyanobacteria, responsible for about 25% of global marine productivity, by recruiting reads targeting a high resolution marker from *Tara* Oceans metagenomes. By clustering lineages based on their distribution patterns, we showed that there is significant diversity at a finer resolution than the currently defined 'ecotypes', which is tightly controlled by environmental cues.

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Introduction

The ubiquitous marine picocyanobacteria Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus are major contributors to global chlorophyll biomass, together accounting for a quarter of global carbon fixation in marine ecosystems, a contribution predicted to further increase in the context of global change (1-3). Thus, determining how environmental conditions control their global distribution patterns, particularly at a fine taxonomic resolution (i.e., sufficient to identify lineages with distinct traits), is critical for understanding how these organisms populate the oceans, and in turn contribute to global carbon cycling. The availability of numerous strains in culture and sequenced genomes make picocyanobacteria particularly well suited for cross-scale studies from genes to the global ocean (4). Physiological studies of a range of Prochlorococcus strains isolated from various depths and geographical regions, notably revealed the occurrence of genetically distinct populations exhibiting different light or temperature growth optima and tolerance ranges (5, 6). These observations are congruent on the one hand, with the well-known depth partitioning of genetically distinct Prochlorococcus populations in the ocean, with high light-adapted (hereafter HL) populations in the upper lit layer and low light-adapted (hereafter LL) populations located further down the water column, and on the other hand, with the latitudinal partitioning between Prochlorococcus HLI and HLII clades that are adapted to temperate and tropical waters, respectively (5, 7, 8). For Synechococcus, although no clear depth partitioning (i.e., phototypes) has been observed so far, the occurrence of different 'thermotypes' has been clearly demonstrated among strains isolated from different latitudes (9, 10). This latter finding agrees well with biogeographical patterns of the most abundant Synechococcus lineages, with members of clades I and IV restricted to cold and temperate waters, while clade II populations are mostly found in warm, (sub)tropical areas (11-14). More recently, several studies have shown that iron could also be an important parameter controlling the composition of picocyanobacterial community structure since Prochlorococcus HLIII/IV ecotypes (15, 16) and Synechococcus clade CRD1 (17, 18) were shown to be dominant within high nutrient-low chlorophyll (HLNC) areas, where iron is limiting. Most of these studies considered members of the same clade —i.e. Prochlorococcus clades HLI-VI and LLI-VI or Synechococcus clades I-IX, which are congruent between different genetic markers (14, 19-22)— as one ecotype, i.e. a group of phylogenetically related organisms sharing the same ecological niche (4, 23). Yet the use of a high taxonomic resolution marker, the core, single copy petB gene encoding cytochrome b_6 , has revealed different spatially structured populations (subclades) within the major Synechococcus clades that were adapted to distinct niches (12), suggesting that the 'clade' level might not be the most ecologically relevant taxonomic unit. Moreover, the systematic use of probes and/or PCR amplification might have led to overlook some important genetic diversity, a drawback potentially

resulting in a poor assessment of the relative proportion of co-occurring populations at any given station. In this context, the occurrence of a huge microdiversity within wild *Prochlorococcus* populations was recently demonstrated by estimating the genomic diversity within coexisting members of the HLII clade using a large-scale single-cell genomics approach (24). Still, the congruency of phylogenies based on whole genome and internally transcribed spacer (ITS) suggests that ITS ribotype clusters coincide, in most cases, with distinct genomic backbones that would have diverged at least a few million years ago and the relative abundance of which vary through temporal and local adjustments (24). Thus, approaches using a single marker gene remain valid but fine spatial, temporal and taxonomic resolution is required to better understand how divergent picocyanobacterial lineages have adapted to different niches in the global ocean.

Here, we analyzed 109 metagenomic samples collected during the 2.5-year *Tara* Oceans circumnavigation (25, 26), a project surveying the diversity of marine plankton that produced nearly eleven times more non-redundant sequences than the previous Global Ocean Survey (GOS) expedition (15). In order to retrieve taxonomically relevant information for picocyanobacteria and to avoid PCR-amplification biases, reads targeting the high resolution *petB* gene (12) were recruited using a miTag approach (27). Even though this approach did not give us access to the rare biodiversity, these analyses unveiled a previously unsuspected genetic diversity within both the *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* genera. Clustering based on the distribution patterns of picocyanobacterial communities allowed us to define Ecologically Significant Taxonomic Units (ESTUs), i.e., genetically related subgroups within clades that co-occur in the field. Analyses of the biogeography of ESTU assemblages showed that they were strongly correlated with specific environmental cues, allowing us to define distinct realized environmental niches for the major ESTUs.

116 Results

Revealing novel picocyanobacterial diversity using *petB*-_{mi}Tags and newly assembled sequences. To evaluate the taxonomic resolution potential of *petB* _{mi}Tags, for assessing picocyanobacterial genetic diversity, simulated 100 bp reads (i.e., the minimum size of the *Tara* Oceans merged metagenomic reads) were generated by fragmenting sequences from our reference databases (**Datasets 1-3**). This analysis showed that *petB* reads can be assigned reliably at the finest taxonomic level, i.e. subclade (12), over most of the gene length (**Fig. S1**). The *petB*-_{mi}Tags approach was therefore applied to the whole *Tara* Oceans transect (66 stations, 109 metagenomes, 20.2 ± 9.9 Gb of metagenomic data per sample). With the exception of the Southern Ocean and its vicinity (TARA_082 to TARA_085) for which no *petB* reads were recruited, picocyanobacteria were present at all sampled *Tara* Oceans stations. From 119 to 14,139 picocyanobacterial *petB* reads (average: 3,309; median: 2,545; **Dataset** 4) were recruited per sample using a non-redundant reference database of 585 high quality *petB*

sequences, representing most of the genetic diversity identified so far among *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* isolates and environmental clone libraries (**Fig. 1**). Interestingly, most *petB* sequences in our database recruited at least one read from the *Tara* Oceans metagenome as best hit, with the notable exception of some sequences of the cold-water adapted *Synechococcus* clade I, likely due to the limited sampling performed at high latitudes during the *Tara* Oceans expedition (28). This suggests that most genotypes known so far are sufficiently well represented in the marine environment to be detected by this approach. Still, we cannot exclude that this preliminary analysis provides a somewhat biased picture of the diversity toward the 'already known', since most current reference sequence databases are potentially skewed by culture isolation and/or amplification biases.

To search for potential hidden genetic diversity within the *Tara* Oceans picocyanobacterial communities, we examined the percent identity of recruited reads with regard to their best hit in the

communities, we examined the percent identity of recruited reads with regard to their best hit in the petB database (Figs. 2A-B and S2). Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus petB sequences can be easily differentiated from non-specific signal by selecting reads above 80 % identity to the closest reference petB sequence. The diversity within the most abundant Synechococcus clades (I-IV) was generally well covered by reference sequences since most reads displayed >94 % identity to their best-hit in the database, a cut-off value previously shown to allow an optimal separation of Synechococcus lineages displaying distinct distribution patterns (12). In contrast, for other clades, some of the recruited reads were quite distantly related to reference sequences (i.e., between 80-94% identity), indicating that the in situ diversity of these clades was not fully covered by the reference database (Fig. 2B, top panels).

To have a more realistic and exhaustive view of this diversity, we assembled 136 distinct nearly complete *petB* sequences from environmental reads (121 *Prochlorococcus* and 15 *Synechococcus*), corresponding to the most divergent genotypes present in the whole *Tara* Oceans dataset. By adding these novel sequences to the reference database (see **Dataset 1** and sequences in white in **Fig. 1**), we significantly improved taxonomic assignments of *petB*-miTags, since 80.3 % of the *Prochlorococcus* and 90.2 % of the *Synechococcus* environmental *petB* reads were found to display >94 % identity with their best hits in the enriched reference database, an increase of about 11 and 7 % compared to our initial assessment, respectively (**Figs. 2B and S2**). Interestingly, quite a few highly divergent sequences from *Prochlorococcus* HLIII, HLIV and LLI as well as *Synechococcus* CRD1 were assembled from TARA_052, located East of Madagascar, a station exhibiting a picocyanobacterial community atypical for this oceanic area (see below). Although most of these additional sequences fell into known phylogenetic clades, they allowed us to better assess the extent of genetic diversity within both *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* (**Fig. 1**). While only a few *petB* sequences, all coming from cultured strains, were available for the *Prochlorococcus* HLI and LLI clades prior to this study, we

added 43 novel HLI sequences (within-clade nucleotide identity range: 87-99.6%), 29 LLI sequences (within-clade identity range: 85.5-99.6%) as well as 11 sequences of the uncultured HLIII and IV clades, some of which form distinct monophyletic branches comprised entirely of novel sequences (Fig. 1 and Dataset 1). Although many HLII sequences were recently obtained by high throughput single cell genomics focused on this clade (24), assembly of *Tara* Oceans reads allowed us to retrieve several divergent HLII sequences (within-clade identity range: 86.2-99.8%) including a new, well-supported group (corresponding to ESTU HLIIC, see below), located at the base of the HLII radiation. Similarly for *Synechococcus*, newly assembled sequences allowed us to refine the taxonomy of several taxa, notably for CRD1 and EnvB clades as well as subcluster 5.3, three ecologically important but previously overlooked phylogenetic lineages.

Using global picocyanobacterial distribution patterns to define ESTUs. As expected from previous literature (1, 2, 5, 29), *Prochlorococcus* was the dominant picocyanobacterium at the global scale, representing ~91% of all *petB* reads from the bacterial size fraction, compared to 9% for *Synechococcus* (**Fig. S3A**). These percentages compare fairly well with the global contribution of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* estimated from flow cytometry data as 80.6% (2.9 \pm 0.1 \times 10²⁷ cells) and 19.4 % (7.0 \pm 0.3 \times 10²⁶ cells), respectively (1). The apparent lower contribution of *Synechococcus* in our dataset might be due to the fact that the *Tara* Oceans sampling was not made at random in the ocean, since most stations were located in the inter-tropical zone and/or selected for displaying specific traits of interest (e.g., upwelling, fronts, island proximity, etc.), while Flombaum and coworkers' dataset included many data from temperate stations, where *Synechococcus* is abundant.

To study the global distribution of these organisms at a finer taxonomic resolution, we then examined whether *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* clades and/or subclades were ecologically meaningful. To do this, we analyzed the distribution patterns along the *Tara* Oceans transect of within-clade Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs), as defined using a cut-off at 94% nucleotide identity (Figs. 2C and S4 and Dataset 5). Although for some clades, OTUs displayed a homogeneous pattern over their geographical distribution area (e.g., *Prochlorococcus* HLIII and IV, Fig. S4) or were too scarce to reliably distinguish ESTUs (*Synechococcus* subcluster 5.2 and clades I, V-VIII, WPC1, EnvA, IX, XVI, XX, UC-A, *Prochlorococcus* clades LLII-IV), most of the prevalent clades encompassed several coherent OTU clusters displaying distinct distribution patterns (and thus likely occupying distinct ecological niches) that were gathered into independent ESTUs (Fig. 2C, Fig. S4). For instance, OTUs within *Synechococcus* clade CRD1 can be split into 3 ESTUs (CRD1A-C) based on clustering of their abundance per station. Some of these ESTUs correspond to previously described clades (e.g., *Prochlorococcus* HLIIIA and HLIVA) or subclades (e.g., *Synechococcus* IVC), while others gather

subclades having similar distribution patterns. For instance, *Synechococcus* ESTU IIA encompasses subclades IIa-d and IIf and ESTU IIB gathers subclades IIe and IIh, as previously defined by Mazard et al. (12). Thus, although most previous field diversity studies on picocyanobacteria focused on clades (5, 14, 18, 21, 22), which were generally considered as distinct 'ecotypes' (*sensu* (19)), our data indicate that ESTUs provide a finer estimate of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* ecotypes than do clades. This approach was then used to study the biogeography of marine picocyanobacteria along the *Tara* Oceans transect and stations exhibiting similar ESTU assemblages were clustered together (**Figs. 3A and 4A**).

Biogeographical analyses of Prochlorococcus reveals the occurrence of minor ESTUs with

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unexpected distribution patterns. Most major Prochlorococcus clades (HLI, HLII and LLI) could be split into several ESTUs, though for the former two, one ESTU was clearly predominant (Figs. 3A and S5). Only three major ESTU assemblages were identified in surface samples: i) dominance of HLIA ESTU in temperate waters (above 35°N and 32°S), ii) dominance of HLIIA in warm and iron-replete waters between 30°S and 30°N, with mixed HLIA-HLIIA profiles at intermediate latitudes and iii) cooccurrence of HLIIIA and IVA at a ratio of ca. 1:2.6 (± 0.7) in warm, high nutrient-low chlorophyll (HNLC) areas. The low abundance of LLII-IV clades in the whole Tara Oceans dataset (Fig. S6A-C) is likely due to the fact that they usually thrive below the DCM (5, 30), i.e. at depths not sampled during the expedition. In contrast, most LLI ESTUs were very abundant in subsurface waters (Figs. S3 and S5b) and sometimes even reached the surface (e.g., at TARA_066-070, Figs. 3A), as expected from the ability of members of the LLI clade to tolerate a strong mixing rate and short-term exposure to high light (5, 8, 30, 31). HLIIIA and HLIVA ESTUs altogether contributed to 15.5% of the Prochlorococcus community in Tara Oceans samples, i.e. about as much as HLI (17%) or LLI (15.2%; Fig. S3A). This value is slightly higher than the 9% that were previously estimated for HLIII-IV clades from the analysis of GOS samples (11). Consistent with previous studies (11, 16, 32, 33), we show here that their distribution covers most of the warm (>25°C), low-Fe equatorial Pacific zone from 13°S (TARA_100) to 14°N (TARA_137), where they constitute the vast majority of the Prochlorococcus community in surface waters. In the Indian Ocean, we only observed them at two stations near the northern coast of Madagascar (TARA 052 and TARA 056), in agreement with a previous report that found them at two sites located further east (32), all these sites likely being influenced by the Indonesian throughflow originating from the tropical Pacific Ocean (34). Thus, HLIII/IV seemingly occurs over a much thinner latitudinal band (centered around 15°S) in the Indian compared to the Pacific Ocean, and they are apparently very scarce in the part of the Atlantic Ocean explored by the Tara schooner, even though the area around stations TARA_072 and TARA_070 is known to be iron-depleted (see Fig. S1 in (18)). Altogether, the

distribution patterns of the dominant *Prochlorococcus* HL ESTUs seem to be mainly driven by temperature and iron availability, as confirmed by non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analyses (**Fig. 3C**). These results are globally consistent with previous reports that analyzed *Prochlorococcus* clades (5, 8, 16, 30, 32), indicating that the latter studies actually targeted the dominant ESTUs.

In contrast, a number of minor ESTUs were found to display distribution patterns very different from the major ESTU of the same clade. For instance, the relative contribution of the above mentioned novel HLIIC ESTU was highest at the DCM in the equatorial Indian Ocean (TARA 041-042; Fig. S5b), suggesting that members of this ESTU are adapted to mid-depth waters, much like members of the LLI clade (5, 30). Similarly, ESTUS HLIB and D can sometimes take over the prevalent HLIA populations and become abundant in surface waters at specific locations (e.g., at TARA_093 and TARA_094, respectively). In contrast, HLIC, which comprises a complex microdiversity (10 OTUs; Fig. S4), was found to exhibit a particularly large niche, co-occurring with HLIA at high latitude but also being present as the major HLI population in warm oligotrophic waters, where HLIIA dominated the Prochlorococcus community (e.g., in the Indian Ocean, Fig. S6A). This suggests that members of the HLIC ESTU might have a larger tolerance to temperature than the globally dominant HLIA. It is also worth noting that among the four ESTUs defined within the LLI clade, LLIB, which is entirely comprised of newly assembled petB sequences, dominates the LLI population in surface iron-limited HNLC areas in both the equatorial/tropical Pacific (TARA_110 to 128) and Indian Ocean (TARA_052, Fig. S6B). Thus, adaptation to low iron conditions in *Prochlorococcus* might not be an exclusive trait of HLIIIA and HLIVA.

CRD1 and EnvB ESTUs are the dominant *Synechococcus* lineages in the Pacific Ocean. *Synechococcus* assemblages were much more diverse than *Prochlorococcus* with 8 distinct ESTU clusters observed along the *Tara* Oceans transect (Fig. 4A-B). None of these assemblages were specific of a given oceanic region, though cluster 2 was mainly found in the Mediterranean Sea. ESTUs IA and IVA, IVB and/or IVC dominated at most stations within clusters 4, 5 and 8 that were typical of cold, coastal or mixed open ocean waters at high latitude, in agreement with previous reports on the distribution of clades I and IV (11, 12, 14, 18). In contrast, ESTU IIA, dominated by a single OTU (OTU003; Fig. 2C), was by far the major component of cluster 1, an assemblage characteristic of most warm, mesotrophic and oligotrophic iron replete waters that encompass the vast majority of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans (Fig. 4B). Consistently, NMDS analysis showed that the occurrence of clusters 4, 5, 8 on the one hand, and cluster 1 on the other hand, were associated both with temperature and Chl *a*, but in opposite ways (Figs. 4C and S7). Interestingly, while ESTU IIA

267 was typical of warm waters, the minor ESTU IIB was found to be restricted to fairly cold (14.1 to 268 17.5°C), mixed waters and to co-occur with IVA-B (Fig. 4). 269 Several other salient features arose from analyses of the Tara Oceans metagenomes. First, ESTU IIIA, 270 the major contributor of cluster 2, was found only in the Mediterranean Sea (TARA 007 to 030) and 271 the Gulf of Mexico (TARA_142; Fig. 4A-B). Both areas are known to be P-depleted (35, 36), suggesting 272 that the dominance of this ESTU could be linked to a specific adaptation to P limitation, as confirmed 273 by the inverse correlation of cluster 2 with P concentrations (Fig. 4C) and correlation analyses 274 between IIIA and individual physico-chemical parameters (Fig. S7). The differential availability of this 275 nutrient on both sides of the Suez Canal is therefore probably responsible for the strong community 276 shift from a IIIA- to a IIA-dominated assemblage between the Mediterranean and Red Sea (Fig. S5a), 277 although one cannot exclude that other specific characteristics of the Mediterranean Sea, such as the 278 presence in the eastern basin of copper, a trace metal toxic to a number of phytoplankton species 279 (37), might also be involved. While the dominance of clade III in the Mediterranean Sea is consistent 280 with previous studies (14, 38), it was also reported in fair abundance along a N-S transect in the 281 northern Atlantic Ocean in fall 2004 (AMT15) as well as in sub-tropical waters of the Pacific and 282 Atlantic oceans (12, 14), whereas we found it only as a minor component of the Synechococcus 283 community in these areas. It is possible that the relative contribution of clade III might have been 284 overestimated using PCR-based or dot-blot hybridization approaches. A more likely explanation is 285 that this clade is subject to seasonality, as suggested by a year-round survey in the Red Sea, showing 286 that clade III abundance peaks occur during summer, stratified conditions, and remains at low 287 concentrations over the rest of the year (20, 39). In this context, it is important to note that during 288 Tara Oceans, the north and south Atlantic as well as the southern Indian Ocean were all sampled 289 during winter or early spring, while the Mediterranean Sea was sampled in fall (Dataset 4). Hence, 290 this warrants future global metagenomic studies at various seasons as well as finer-scale studies 291 looking at seasonal variations in community structure. 292 Also unexpected was the large global abundance (6% of total Synechococcus reads, Fig. S3) of 293 subcluster 5.3 (formerly clade X; (40)). Members of ESTU 5.3A (mostly co-occurring with ESTU IIIA)

Also unexpected was the large global abundance (6% of total *Synechococcus* reads, Fig. S3) of subcluster 5.3 (formerly clade X; (40)). Members of ESTU 5.3A (mostly co-occurring with ESTU IIIA) were found mostly along the transect from Panama to Bermuda (TARA_140-149), in the Mozambique Channel (TARA_057 and TARA_062) as well as at all stations of the Red Sea and Mediterranean Sea, where they contributed up to ca. 30 % of the local *Synechococcus* community, e.g., at the Gibraltar strait (TARA_007, Fig. 4A-B). In contrast, ESTU 5.3B (co-occurring with ESTU IIA) was always present in low relative abundance. Members of subcluster 5.3 have only been sporadically detected in previous studies mostly in open-ocean habitats in the northwestern Atlantic and Pacific Ocean and in the Mediterranean Sea (11, 12, 14, 17, 21, 38), reaching significant abundances only in transitional waters, such as the Amazon plume or the Benguela upwelling (18).

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These specific localizations might explain why only a few sequences of this subcluster were previously detected in the GOS database (11).

Another striking result of this study was the strong global contribution of the co-occurring clades CRD1 and EnvB (8.4% and 5.4% of total Synechococcus reads, respectively; Fig. S3D-E). Recently, low Fe regions of the western equatorial Pacific (5°S-10°N) and southeastern Atlantic Oceans (15-20°S) were shown to be dominated by CRD1 (17, 18), a clade that was previously thought to be specific to the Costa Rica dome, where Synechococcus cell densities are known to be the highest worldwide (41, 42). Here, we show that CRD1 and EnvB ESTUs actually co-dominate the Synechococcus community over most of the Pacific Ocean from 33°S to 35°N and can also be prevalent in both the South (TARA_068-072) and North Atlantic (TARA_150-152) as well as in the Indian Ocean (TARA_052) but are virtually absent from the Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 4A-B). So, it seems that, in contrast to Prochlorococcus HLIII/IV, the distribution of CRD1 in the Pacific Ocean extends way beyond HNLC areas. Furthermore, we show here that both the CRD1 and EnvB clades actually encompassed 3 distinct ESTUs, displaying partially overlapping niches and falling into five clusters (3, 5-8; Fig. 4A) that were also split far apart by NMDS analyses (Fig. 4C). CRD1B and EnvBB were restricted to high latitude, cold, mixed waters (cluster 8), where they systematically co-dominated with ESTU IA, IVA and IVC. This includes TARA_093 located in the Chilean upwelling, TARA_152 in North Atlantic as well as TARA_068 in South Atlantic corresponding to a young Agulhas ring (43). In contrast, CRD1C and EnvBC preferentially thrived in warm HNLC regions (cluster 3 and the warmest stations of cluster 6), with CRD1C largely dominating the Synechococcus population in the Pacific inter-tropical area as well as at the Indian Ocean station TARA_052. Comparatively, CRD1A and EnvBA that were found in both kinds of environments, appear to be much more ubiquitous and to tolerate a much wider temperature range, not only than other CRD1 and EnvB ESTUs, but also more generally than all other Synechococcus strains characterized so far in culture (9, 10). Several previous studies also reported the presence of CRD2, co-occurring with CRD1 mainly in the Costa Rica dome area and in equatorial waters and generally constituting around 10-15 % of the total Synechococcus surface population (17, 18). It is tempting to speculate that the petB-defined EnvB clade, which had so far only been reported at one station in the middle of the North Atlantic basin (12), corresponds to the ITS-defined CRD2 clade. However, the different proportions of EnvB and CRD2 relative to CRD1 strongly suggests that the qPCR primers used in these studies targeted only a fraction of the CRD2/EnvB population, possibly corresponding to EnvBC, which like CRD2, is positively correlated with temperature ((18) and Fig. S7). Alternatively, seasonal variations might also explain the differences observed between these two datasets.

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The comprehensive nature of the Tara Oceans dataset, analyzed here at high taxonomic resolution, has markedly improved our current knowledge of the global phylogeography of marine picocyanobacteria, and highlighted the key role of environmental parameters in shaping their distribution patterns. Indeed, by assigning petB-miTags recruited for each clade to narrow OTUs, then clustering those sharing a similar ecological distribution into the same ESTU, we showed that despite a wide genetic diversity, Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus communities can be split into a fairly limited number of characteristic ESTU assemblages, often dominated by one or two major ESTU(s). This includes the co-dominating Prochlorococcus HLIIIA-HLIVA, which co-dominated at a fairly constant ratio (1:2.6) all over low Fe regions (Fig. 3A), Synechococcus IIIA that was abundant all over the Mediterranean Sea or CRD1 and EnvB ESTUs, co-dominating the Synechococcus community in vast expanses of the Pacific Ocean (Fig. 4A). Interestingly, we also showed that most picocyanobacterial clades encompass minor ESTUs that occupy niches distinct from dominant ones. This indicates that there is ecologically meaningful fine-scale diversity within currently defined Synechococcus or Prochlorococcus clades, even though the latter have often be referred to as 'ecotypes' (5, 30). In this context, it is important to note that the *Prochlorococcus* genus is thought to have occurred concomitantly to the major diversification event that also led to the splitting of Synechococcus subcluster 5.1 into about fifteen distinct clades (21, 44, 45), suggesting that, from a phylogenetic point of view, the whole Prochlorococcus genus is actually equivalent to a single Synechococcus clade, explaining why linking clades to a given ecological niche is trickier for the latter genus. In Prochlorococcus, several physico-chemical parameters have seemingly played a decisive role in the genetic diversification of this genus, at distinct periods of its evolutionary history, starting with light (split between LL and HL lineages), then iron availability (HLIII/IV vs. other HL) and temperature (HLI vs. HLII; (19, 22, 46)). In contrast, nitrogen and phosphorus availability influenced genetic diversification only in the 'leaves' of the Prochlorococcus radiation, through lateral transfers of gene cassettes conferring on populations the ability to adapt to local N or P-depleted niches (47, 48). Despite this apparent solid relationship between Prochlorococcus phylogeny and community structure, a recent study looking at the genomic diversity of individual Prochlorococcus cells in a single water sample highlighted a huge microdiversity within the HLII clade (24). This microdiversity seemingly allows cells to adapt to slightly different selective pressures, such as biotic factors (phages, grazing, etc). Here, we also observed a large microdiversity within the HLII lineage, with 25 OTUs comprising 4 ESTUs, but in agreement with a recent study (49), there were only subtle differences between the distribution patterns of these intra-clade groups (except for ESTU HLIIC, represented by a single OTU; Fig. 2C), confirming that abiotic factors have only marginally affected the genetic diversification within this clade. In contrast, the microdiversity that we identified within HLI and LLI

has seemingly allowed members of these clades to colonize ecological niches clearly different from that of the dominant ESTUs, extending the global niche occupied by these lineages. This includes LLIB, which seems to be adapted to Fe-limited surface waters, much like HLIIIA-IVA, as well as HLIC, which thrives not only in cold temperate waters, as do the more typical HLIA, but also in warm subtropical waters, where it co-occurs with the dominant HLIIA (Fig. S6). This is consistent with the recent finding that HLI sub-clades are driven by distinct environmental traits (49) and that even in HLII-dominated waters, HLI is never competed to extinction (7). Similarly, splitting Synechococcus clades into ESTUs revealed that this genus comprises a number of specialists, mostly characterized by their respective temperature and Fe requirements (Fig. 5). While CRD1B/EnvBB, CRD1A/EnvBA/EnvAA and CRD1C/EnvBC were found in cold, intermediate and warm waters respectively with various degrees of Fe limitation, other ESTUs preferentially thrive in regions where this nutrient is not limiting in either cold (IA, IVA, IIB), intermediate (IIIA, 5.3A) or warm (IIA) waters. The third most discriminating parameter appears to be P-limitation that only ESTUs IIIA and 5.3A can stand, but only in Fe-replete conditions. It is also worth noting that several ESTUs, such as those classified as 'temperature intermediate', display a larger tolerance range with regard to temperature than their 'cold' and 'warm' counterparts (Fig. 5). Altogether, these results temper the paradigm of Synechococcus being a generalist and physiologically more plastic than Prochlorococcus, which mainly relied on the ability of the former to colonize much wider ecological niches than the latter and on the apparent absence of genome streamlining in Synechococcus compared to Prochlorococcus (19, 50-52). Thus, our results demonstrate that the observed ubiquity of the Synechococcus genus as a whole (1, 2) in fact rests on a complex suite of specialists adapted to fairly narrow niches, as is the case for *Prochlorococcus*. Focusing on shifts in community composition associated to changes in local environmental conditions or to physical barriers (Fig. S5a-b) provided additional insights into this global picture and revealed that some ESTUs behave as opportunists. For instance, this is the case off the Marquesas Islands, where the proximity of the coast induced an iron enrichment at TARA_123 and 124 as compared to a typical HNLC situation at TARA_122 and TARA-128. While CRD1-C dominated at the latter stations, ESTU IIA took over this local population in these iron-replete patches (with an intermediate situation at TARA 125; Fig S5a). By comparison, the Prochlorococcus abundance drastically dropped at TARA 123 but without any significant change in the community structure, suggesting that the minor HLIIA component of this assemblage was not responsive enough to local iron enrichment to outcompete the dominant HLIIIA/IVA population. Another abrupt shift in community composition occurred at the Agulhas choke point off the southern tip of Africa, where huge anticyclonic rings (i.e., Agulhas rings) are formed in the Indian Ocean and then drift across the South Atlantic (43, 53). The strong drop in temperature, occurring within the youngest ring (TARA_068), was likely responsible

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for a large part in the shift from a typical subtropical ESTU assemblage in the Indian Ocean, dominated by Prochlorococcus HLIIA-C and Synechococcus IIA (TARA_064-065), to a cold water ESTU assemblage (HLIA-C, LLIA and C, CRD1A, EnvBA and IVA-B) at TARA_068 (Fig. S5a), suggesting that the latter ESTUs might also have an opportunistic behavior with regard to their warm waters counterparts. Although these two examples correspond to biogeochemical processes likely occurring at different time scales, the observed ESTU assemblage changes likely result from differences in the intrinsic dynamics of ESTUs within both genera, the most adapted one outcompeting others in favorable ecological conditions, with Synechococcus displaying a more opportunistic behavior than Prochlorococcus. Our results also raise several questions that can only be addressed in the laboratory or in silico. From a physiological point of view, the fact that some ESTUs seemingly get counter-selected in response to nutrient enrichment (e.g., iron in the case of CRD1C) suggests that their growth capacity in nutrient replete conditions is lower than that of opportunistic ESTUs (e.g. IIA) and this could be checked by comparing representative strains of these two lifestyles in single or co-cultures. It is also unclear yet whether differences between these two behaviors is due to the loss of genes costly to maintain for the cells, to a better affinity of core enzymes (e.g., for nutrient scavenging) and/or to the acquisition of specific gene sets by lateral gene transfer, as reported for Prochlorococcus regarding phosphate and nitrogen uptake and assimilation (47, 48). Adaptation to low iron is particularly striking in this context since our study showed that this ability, previously thought to be specific to Prochlorococcus HLIII and IV (16, 32), seems to have appeared several times during evolution in quite distantly related ESTUs, namely Prochlorococcus HLIIIA/HLIVA —that likely occurred via a single diversification event and LLIB as well as Synechococcus CRD1A, CRD1C, EnvBA, EnvBC and EnvAA (Fig. 5). Although no Prochlorococcus isolates of HLIIIA/IVA are available in culture yet, sequencing of single amplified genomes suggested that these organisms have adapted to iron-limited environments by lowering their cellular iron requirement through loss of genes encoding iron-rich proteins and by acquiring siderophore transporters for efficient scavenging of organic-bound forms of this element (32, 33). Genomic comparison of Synechococcus strains, including representatives of the different CRD1 ESTUs, as well as whole genome recruitment of metagenomic data should allow to check whether a similar adaptation process has occurred in this genus. In conclusion, although very few studies have so far combined information from high resolution phylogenetic markers and geographical distribution to detect ecologically coherent taxonomic groups (e.g., (49, 54)), we show here that this approach can bring invaluable insights for deciphering the links between genetic diversity and niche occupancy. Indeed, the definition of within-clade ESTUs using a reference petB database enriched with ecologically relevant and distantly related sequences

assembled from Tara Oceans reads, has allowed us to obtain clear-cut spatial distribution patterns

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for taxa within both *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* genera, indicating that we explored the diversity of the picocyanobacterial community at the right taxonomic resolution. Additionally, in contrast to other phytoplankton groups, such as diatoms (55), these biogeographical patterns were found to be tightly controlled by environmental factors. Besides helping to refine models of picocyanobacterial distributions and predicting their behavior in response to ongoing climate change, knowledge of the oceanic areas where poorly characterized ESTUs predominate, will also guide future strain isolation (e.g., for the yet uncultured EnvA and EnvB) and sequencing efforts. Characterizing and comparing such ecologically representative strains will help further unveil the basis of niche partitioning.

Materials and methods

 Genomic material. This study focused on 109 *Tara* Oceans metagenomes corresponding to 66 stations along the *Tara* Oceans transect for which a 'bacterial size fraction' was available (i.e. 0.2-1.6 μm for TARA_004 to TARA_052 and 0.2-3 μm for TARA_056 to TARA_152). Water samples were collected at two depths, surface (SUR) and deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM), the latter sample sometimes being merely collected in the upper mixed layer, when the DCM was not clearly delineated (Dataset 4). Metagenomes were sequenced using the Illumina® technology as overlapping paired reads of ~100/108 bp with various sequencing depths, ranging from 16 x 10⁶ to 258 x 10⁶ reads after quality control, corresponding to an average 20.2 ± 9.9 Gb of sequence data per sample. Reads were merged using FLASH v1.2.7 with default parameters (56) and cleaned based on quality using CLC QualityTrim v4.10.86742 (CLC Bio, Aarhus, Denmark), resulting in 100 to 215 bp fragments. Dataset 4 describes all metagenomic samples with location and sequencing effort. All metagenomes and corresponding environmental parameters measured during the *Tara* Oceans expedition are available at www.pangea.de, except for the iron and ammonium data that were simulated with the ECCO2-Darwin model and the iron limitation index Φsat (57) and are available in Dataset 4.

Building of the PetB-DB database. To recruit and taxonomically assign metagenomics reads targeting the high resolution *petB* gene marker, we analyzed 1,091 sequences of the *petB* gene from cultured isolates and environmental samples and built a reference database including all non-redundant high quality sequences of this marker available for the marine picocyanobacteria *Prochlorococcus* (69 sequences covering 7 clades) and *Synechococcus* (399 sequences covering 3 subclusters, 22 clades and 30 subclades). The dataset also includes outgroup sequences from publicly available cyanobacteria, including marine (13 sequences) and freshwater isolates (40 sequences), as well as representatives of the main marine eukaryotic phytoplankton taxa and eukaryotic cyanobionts (64 plastid *petB* sequences), raising the number of *petB* sequences to 585 (**Tables S1 and S2**). To avoid differential alignment effects at the edge of the reference sequences, all sequences were aligned and trimmed to 557 bp. This database was secondarily complemented by 136 *petB* sequences assembled from selected *Tara* Oceans stations and displaying less than 94 % identity with previously known *petB* sequences (yet some of these new sequences could exhibit more than 94 % identity with one another).

Read recruitments. Targeted *petB* fragment recruitments were performed using a two-step protocol. In order to maximize the diversity while reducing the weight of the resulting tabulated files, translated sequences of the non-redundant *petB* database were used to recruit candidate *petB* gene fragments by BLASTX (v2.2.28+) using default parameters but by limiting the results to 1 target

sequence. These petB candidates were then compared to the full reference petB database using 483 484 BLASTN (v2.2.28+) with sensitive configuration (-task blastn -gapopen 8 -gapextend 6 -reward 5 -485 penalty -4 -word size 8) and cut-offs to reduce the weight of resulting tabulated files (-perc identity 486 50 -evalue 0.0001). 487 Reads with more than 90 % of their sequence aligned and with more than 80 % sequence identity to 488 their best-hit (see result section for the determination of this cut-off) were selected as genuine 489 picocyanobacterial petB, taxonomically assigned to their best-hit and subsequently used to build per-490 strain read counts tables. Counts were then aggregated by clade or ESTU and subsequently used to 491 build pie charts or community structure profiles. 492 Phylogenetic and statistical analyses. Phylogenetic reconstructions were based on multiple 493 alignments of petB nucleotide sequences generated using MAFFT v7.164b with default parameters 494 (58). A maximum likelihood tree was inferred using PHYML v3.0 - 20120412, (59) with the HKY + G 495 substitution model, as determined using jModeltest v2.1.4 (60), and the estimation of the gamma 496 distribution parameter of the substitution rates among sites and of the proportion of invariables 497 sites. Confidence of branch points was determined by performing bootstrap analyses including 1000 498 replicate data sets. Phylogenetic trees were edited using the Archaeopteryx v0.9901 beta program 499 (61) and drawn using iTOL (http://itol.embl.de; (62)). Operational taxonomical units (OTUs) for the 500 petB reference data set at 94% were defined by nucleotide identity using Mothur v1.34.4 (63). 501 In each clade, ESTUs were defined using a type 3 SIMPROF approach (54) by considering: i) for 502 Prochlorococcus, stations with more than 100 reads and OTUs recruiting more than 150 reads and ii) 503 for Synechococcus, stations with more than 20 reads and OTUs recruiting more than 25 reads. 504 Hierarchical clustering was performed on the remaining stations and OTUs using the Bray-Curtis 505 distance between relative abundance profiles using heatmap.3 function in GMD v0.3.1.1 R package 506 (ward algorithm; (64)). Statistical significance of the difference between clusters was first assessed by 507 a permutation analysis using the clustsig v1.1 R package (alpha=0.05, Bray-Curtis distance, otherwise 508 default parameters). ESTU delineation was then manually refined, e.g. ESTUs were sometimes 509 defined from single OTUs if the Bray-Curtis distance was >0.65 or if pairs of OTUs were not defined as 510 coherent groups because all OTUs within a clade were equally distant from each other. In contrast, 511 some potential ESTUs were not considered as reliable, e.g. if high Bray-Curtis distances were due to 512 differences in abundance and not in distribution. 513 Hierarchical clustering and NMDS analyses of stations were performed using R packages cluster v1.14.4 (65) and MASS v7.3-29 (66), respectively. petB-miTag contingency tables aggregated at the 514 515 ESTU level were filtered as above and normalized using Hellinger transformation that gives lower 516 rates to rare ESTUs. Bray-Curtis distance was then used for both clustering (agnes function, default parameters) and ordination (*isoMDS* function, maxit=100, k=2). All displayed clusters were significant (p < 0.01, permutation tests). Fitting of environmental parameters on NMDS ordination was performed with function *envfit* in vegan v2.2-1 package and p-value based on 999 permutations was used to assess the significance of the fit and only environmental parameters showing a p-value below 0.05 were used.

Visualization of realized environmental niches. In order to visualize the tolerance range of each ESTU with regard to physico-chemical parameters, values were scaled and reduced before analysis. For each ESTU, *Tara* Oceans stations were sorted by order of abundance, and stations gathering 80% of all reads of the given ESTU were kept. A boxplot was then computed for each parameter taking into account the values of this parameter in the kept stations.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Maximum likelihood tree of *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus* lineages based on *petB* gene sequences from both isolates and environmental sequences. Diamonds at nodes indicate bootstrap support over 70%. Taxonomic assignments are given by the color codes at clade level for *Prochlorococcus* (top left) and clade (e.g. V, 5.2a) or subclade (e.g. VIIa) for *Synechococcus* (bottom right). Sequences were named after ID_subcluster_clade_subclade_ESTU for *Synechococcus* ID_LL or HL_clade_ESTU for *Prochlorococcus*. The outer pink ring indicates that the corresponding sequence in the tree was the best-hit of at least one *Tara* Oceans picocyanobacterial read and the inner blue bar plot shows the log₂ of the number of metagenomic reads recruited for this sequence (range: 1-10.84). Sequences in black letters correspond to the initial reference database and those in white or light grey letters to newly assembled *petB* sequences from *Tara* Oceans metagenome reads. The scale bar represents the number of substitutions per nucleotide position. For improved readability, the length of three *Prochlorococcus* branches was reduced, as indicated by double slashes. *Prochlorococcus* clade assignment is as in (67), while for *Synechococcus* subcluster 5.1, subclade assignments are as in (68) for WPC1 and WPC2 and as in (12) for all other clades

Figure 2. Percent identity of *Tara* Oceans *petB* mitags vs. sequences of the reference database and abundance at different stations along the transect of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) clustered into ESTUs. (A) Distribution of the percent identity of best-hits of all petB candidate reads recruited from the Tara Oceans bacterial-size fraction metagenomes against the petB reference database. Populations 1 and 2 correspond respectively to genuine petB reads and to non-specific signal, due either to petB reads from organisms not included in the reference database or to petB-related genes. The grey part in population 1 corresponds to petB reads attributable to photosynthetic organisms of the reference database other than Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus. The red arrow shows the 80% cut-off used to separate the petB signal from noise. The top and bottom panels correspond to recruitments made before and after addition of the 136 newly assembled environmental petB sequences, respectively. (B) Same as above but for some selected Synechococcus taxa (see Fig. S2 for all other picocyanobacterial taxa). (C) Determination of ESTUs based on the distribution patterns of within-clade 94% OTUs. At each station, the number of reads assigned to a given OTU is normalized by the total number of reads assigned to the clade in this station. Stations and OTUs are filtered based on the number of reads recruited and hierarchically clustered (Bray-Curtis distance) according to distribution pattern. Only Synechococcus clades split into different ESTUs are shown (see Fig. S4

for *Prochlorococcus*). Stars indicate nodes supported by p-value < 0.05 (test not applicable to pair comparisons).

Figure 3. Biogeography of *Prochlorococcus* ESTUs in surface *Tara* Oceans metagenomes and relation to physico-chemical parameters. (A) Histograms of the relative abundance of *Prochlorococcus* ESTUs at each station sorted by similarity, as determined by hierarchical clustering (Bray-Curtis distance). Left panel indicates seawater temperature (°C) at each station. (B) Distribution of the ESTU assemblages, color-coded as in A, along the *Tara* Oceans transect. (C) NMDS analysis of stations according to Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between *Prochlorococcus* assemblages, with fitted statistically significant physico-chemical parameters. Samples that belong to the same ESTU assemblage have been colored according to the color-code defined in A and contours of the same color gather all samples comprised within each cluster. NMDS stress value: 9.852.

Figure 4. Same as Fig. 3 but for *Synechococcus.* NMDS stress value: 13.694.

Fig. 5: Realized environmental niche of the major Synechococcus ESTUs in surface waters.

For each ESTU, stations were sorted by order of normalized abundance and only those stations cumulating 80% of the total abundance were used to draw the graph. Boxplots represent the range of each parameter (in relative units) tolerated by any given ESTU and the median is indicated by a yellow line. ESTUs are organized according to their relative temperature range (cold, intermediate or warm), tolerance to iron limitation (-Fe, +Fe) and tolerance to phosphate limitation (-PO4). Please note that the two proxies used to estimate Fe-limitation ([Fe] derived from the ECCO2-Darwin model and the Φ sat index; the red line indicates the 1.4 % value above which iron is considered limiting; (57)) are sometimes contradictory e.g., for CRD1B and EnvBB.

756	Supporting information
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758	
759 760 761 762	Figure S1: Variation of the assignment ability of each individual 100 bp gene fragment along the sequence of <i>petB</i> gene using reference databases for <i>Prochlorococcus</i> (A) or <i>Synechococcus</i> (B). Simulated reads were generated by 100 bp sliding windows along the marker sequences and the lowest taxonomic level at which they could be assigned is shown by a different blue tone (as
763 764	indicated in the insert; for <i>Prochlorococcus</i> , the subcluster level actually corresponds to a LL or HL assignment, while the clade level corresponds to HLI-IV and LLI-IV, the lowest taxonomic level
765	available for this genus).
766 767	Figure S2a: Distribution of the percent identity of petB-mitags recruited from the bacterial-size
768 769	fraction of the <i>Tara</i> Oceans metagenomes with regard to their best-hits in the reference database for each <i>Prochlorococcus</i> clade (top 9 graphs) and <i>Synechococcus</i> subclade (bottom 18 graphs) before
770	addition of the 136 newly assembled environmental petB sequences. Note that clade XX was
771 772	formerly called EnvC (12) but the name was changed here because there is at least one representative isolate (i.e., strain CC9616).
773	
774 775	Figure S2b : Same as Fig. S2a but after addition of the 136 newly assembled environmental <i>petB</i> sequences.
776	
777	Figure S3: Global recruitments of marine picocyanobacteria petB mitags in the bacterial size fraction
778	of the <i>Tara</i> Oceans metagenomes. (A) All picocyanobacterial clades at both sampled depths; (B-C)
779	percentage of each <i>Prochlorococcus</i> clade in surface (B) and at the deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM;
780	C). (D-E) percentage of each <i>Synechococcus</i> clade in surface (D) and at the DCM (E). Note that clade
781	XX was formerly called EnvC (12) but the name was changed here because there is now at least one
782	representative isolate (i.e., strain CC9616).
783	
784	Figure S4: Prochlorococcus ESTUs based on the distribution patterns of within-clade 94% OTUs. At
785	each station, the number of reads assigned to a given OTU is normalized by the total number of
786	reads assigned to the clade in this station. Stations and OTUs are filtered based on the number of
787	reads recruited. OTUs are hierarchically clustered (Bray-Curtis distance) according to their
788	distribution pattern. Stars indicate nodes supported by p-value < 0.05 (test not applicable to pair
789	comparisons).

Figure S5a: Marine picocyanobacteria community structure in *Tara* Oceans surface metagenomes based on *petB*-_{mi}Tags recruitments. (A) Surface water temperature along the *Tara* Oceans transect. (B) Relative abundances of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* normalized to the total number of reads at each station. (C-D) Relative abundances of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* ESTUs, respectively. White, grey and black dots indicate the number of reads used to build the profile, as detailed in the insert. For readability, temperature for stations TARA_082 (7.3°C), TARA_084 (1.8°C) and TARA_085 (0.7°C) are not shown on graph A. Abbreviations: IO, Indian Ocean; MS; Mediterranean Sea; NAO: North Atlantic Ocean; NPO, North Pacific Ocean; RS, Red Sea; SAO, South Atlantic Ocean; SO, Southern Ocean.

Figure S5b: Same as Fig. S5a but at the DCM. A depth profile along the Tara Oceans transect was added. For readability, temperature for stations TARA_082 (7.0°C) and TARA_085 (-0.8°C) are not shown on graph A, while temperatures for stations TARA_007 and TARA_084 are missing.

Figure S6: Distribution of minor *Prochlorococcus* **ESTUs with regard to major ESTUs in the** *Tara* **Oceans metagenomes.** Relative abundance normalized to the total number of reads per ESTU of (A) ESTUS HLIA and HLIC with regard to HLIIA in surface waters and (B-C) ESTUS LLIA-C with regard to HLIIIA in surface waters and the DCM, respectively. For graph A, stations were sorted from the lowest to highest temperatures and for graph B by sampling date.

Figure S7: Correlation analysis between marine picocyanobacterial ESTUs and environmental parameters measured along the *Tara* Oceans transect for all sampled depths. (A) *Prochlorococcus* ESTUs, (B) *Synechococcus* ESTUs. The scale shows the degree of correlation (blue) or anti-correlation (red) between the two sets of data. Correlations with p-value > 0.05 are indicated by grey crosses. Abbreviations: Sal, salinity; Temp, temperature; fCDOM, fluorescence, colored dissolved organic matter; MLD, mixed layer depth; DCM, deep chlorophyll maximum; Φsat, satellite-based NPQ-corrected quantum yield of fluorescence.

Dataset 1: Summary data for picocyanobacterial *petB* reference sequences used in this study, including newly assembled sequences. The table includes subclade designation based on (12).

Dataset 2: Summary data for *petB* reference sequences for photosynthetic organisms other than marine picocyanobacteria used in this study.

826 827 Dataset 4: Tara Oceans sample description including the number of recruited petB reads per station. 828 Iron and ammonium concentrations were simulated using the ECCO2-Darwin model and an 829 independent parameter to assess iron limitation (Osat) was obtained using Behrenfeld et al.'s formula (57) applied to monthly averaged satellite data (AMODIS chl_ocx, nflh and ipar) retrieved 830 831 from the NASA website (http://oceandata.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/) for each station and corresponding 832 sampling date. Other environmental parameters measured during the Tara Oceans expedition and 833 the methods used to acquire them are available at www.pangea.de. 834 835 Dataset 5: Sequence names of the members of each Operational Taxonomical Unit (OTU) defined for

Dataset 3: Summary data for 16S rRNA reference sequences used in this study.

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petB at 94% nucleotide sequence identity.









