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LETTER

Colourful coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria in lakes and seas

Abstract

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Hutchinson's paradox of the plankton inspired many studies on the mechanisms of species coexistence. Recent laboratory experiments showed that partitioning of white light allows stable coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria. Here, we investigate to what extent these laboratory findings can be extrapolated to natural waters. We predict from a parameterized competition model that the underwater light colour of lakes and seas provides ample opportunities for coexistence of red and green phytoplankton species. To test this prediction, we sampled picocyanobacteria of 70 aquatic ecosystems, ranging from clear blue oceans to turbid brown peat lakes. As predicted, red picocyanobacteria dominated in clear waters, whereas green picocyanobacteria dominated in turbid waters. We found widespread coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria in waters of intermediate turbidity. These field data support the hypothesis that niche differentiation along the light spectrum promotes phytoplankton.

Keywords

Adaptive radiation, biodiversity, coexistence, competition for light, cyanobacteria, light spectrum, phycocyanin, phycoerythrin, resource competition, *Synechococcus*.

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INTRODUCTION

Phytoplankton species compete for only a handful of resources (e.g. nitrogen, phosphorus, iron, silica and light). This suggests limited opportunity for niche differentiation. Yet, a single millilitre of water may contain dozens of different phytoplankton species. What explains the surprising biodiversity of the plankton? This paradox of the plankton, formulated by Hutchinson (1961), has motivated a plethora of studies on competition and community structure (Tilman 1982; Sommer 1985; Grover 1997; Huisman & Weissing 1999; Litchman & Klausmeier 2001). Classic ecological theory predicts that niche differentiation reduces competition among species, and thereby facilitates coexistence (Gause 1934; MacArthur & Levins 1967; Hutchinson 1978). Darwin's finches are a famous example (Darwin 1859; Lack 1974). A rich variety of finch species coexist on the Galápagos islands, as adaptive radiation in beak morphology has enabled niche differentiation of the finch species along a spectrum of different seed sizes (Grant & Grant 2002).

Similarly, light offers a spectrum of resources, ranging from blue light at short wavelengths, via green and yellow, to red light at long wavelengths. Although competition theory has largely ignored the light spectrum as a major axis of niche differentiation, plankton ecologists have long recognized that a rich variety of photosynthetic pigments allows phytoplankton species to utilize different wavelengths (Engelmann 1883; Bricaud et al. 1983; Wood 1985; Sathvendranath & Platt 1989; Kirk 1994; Falkowski et al. 2004). For instance, red picocyanobacteria use the pigment phycoerythrin to absorb green light, whereas green picocyanobacteria use the pigment phycocyanin to absorb red light (Fig. 1a). Therefore, analogous to the coexistence of finch species on different seed sizes, one might hypothesize that phytoplankton species can share the light spectrum by specialization on different wavelengths. Indeed, recent competition models and laboratory experiments showed that red picocyanobacteria win the competition in green light, green picocyanobacteria win in red light, while red and green picocyanobacteria coexist in the full spectrum provided by white light (Stomp et al. 2004). One might argue, however, that underwater light fields do not resemble a white spectrum, because water, dissolved organic matter, and other constituents bring colour into the water column. Hence, to what extent can these models and laboratory experiments be extrapolated to natural waters? Does partitioning of the underwater light spectrum mediate the coexistence of a colourful mixture of phytoplankton species in aquatic ecosystems?

To address these questions, we apply a fully parameterized competition model to predict the outcome of competition between red and green phytoplankton species in different natural waters. We test the model predictions by sampling red and green picocyanobacteria from many different aquatic ecosystems, ranging from clear blue oceans to dark brown peat lakes.

COMPETITION MODEL

The underwater light spectrum of natural waters largely depends on light attenuation by water itself, by the 'background turbidity' caused by dissolved organic matter (known as gilvin in the optics literature) and inanimate suspended particles (tripton, like sediment and detritus), and by the phytoplankton species present in the water column (Kirk 1994). Water absorbs strongly in the red part of the spectrum, whereas the background turbidity is responsible for rapid attenuation of blue wavelengths (Fig. 1b). Hence, with increasing background turbidity, the underwater light spectrum is shifted towards the red. The total light absorption by all these constituents determines the underwater light spectrum. For example, in the Baltic Sea light absorption in the blue and the red end of the spectrum is of a similar magnitude (Fig. 1b), resulting in an underwater light spectrum that narrows to green wavelengths (Fig. 1c).

We consider a vertical water column, in which phytoplankton species, gilvin and tripton are all homogeneously mixed throughout the surface mixed layer. Let



Wavelength (nm)

Figure 1 Optical characteristics of red and green picocyanobacteria and their environment. (a) Absorption spectra of red and green picocyanobacteria isolated from the Baltic Sea. (b) Light absorption spectra of pure water (blue line) and gilvin plus tripton in the Pacific Ocean (light brown line), the Baltic Sea (medium brown), and a peat lake (dark brown). (c) Underwater light spectra measured in the Baltic Sea. The spectrum narrows to the green waveband with increasing depth.

 $I(\lambda, z)$ denote the light intensity of wavelength λ at depth z. Sunlight enters the water column with an incident light spectrum $I_{in}(\lambda)$. According to a spectrally explicit version of Lambert-Beer's law, the underwater light spectrum

changes with depth (Sathyendranath & Platt 1989; Kirk 1994; Stomp et al. 2004):

$$I(\lambda, z) = I_{in}(\lambda) \exp\left[-K_{W}(\lambda)z - K_{BG}(\lambda)z - \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i}(\lambda)N_{i}z\right],$$
(1)

where $K_{W}(\lambda)$ is the absorption spectrum of water, $K_{BG}(\lambda)$ the absorption spectrum of the background turbidity (tripton plus gilvin), $k_i(\lambda)$ the specific absorption spectrum of phytoplankton species *i*, N_i the population density of phytoplankton species. We note, from eqn 1, that the underwater light spectrum is dynamic. For instance, changes in the population densities of phytoplankton species can shift the underwater light spectrum.

The number of absorbed photons available for photosynthesis by a phytoplankton species i at a given depth zdepends on its photosynthetic action spectrum and on the light spectrum at this depth (Sathyendranath & Platt 1989; Stomp *et al.* 2004):

$$\gamma_i(z) = \int_{400}^{700} a_i(\lambda) k_i(\lambda) I(\lambda, z) \, \mathrm{d}\lambda, \qquad (2)$$

where $a_i(\lambda)$ converts the absorption spectrum into the action spectrum of phytoplankton species *i*. In many species, photons that have been absorbed are utilized with equal efficiency, irrespective of their wavelengths. That is, the absorption spectrum and action spectrum are often quite similar (Lewis *et al.* 1985; Kirk 1994). For simplicity, therefore, we here assume that the absorption spectrum and action spectrum have the same shape [i.e. $a_i(\lambda) = 1$ for all λ]. We further assume that the specific growth rate of each phytoplankton species *i* is an increasing, saturating function of the number of photons it has absorbed (Sathyendranath & Platt 1989):

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}N_i}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{N_i}{z_{\mu\nu}} \int_0^{z_{\mu\nu}} \frac{p_{\max,i}\gamma_i(z)}{(p_{\max,i}/\phi_i) + \gamma_i(z)} \,\mathrm{d}z - L_i N_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$
(3)

where $p_{\max,i}$ is the maximum specific growth rate of species i, ϕ_i the growth efficiency (quantum yield) at low light intensities, L_i the specific loss rate due to factors such as grazing and sinking, and z_m the depth of the surface mixed layer. Essentially, eqn 3 states that the growth rates of the species are governed by the photons they have absorbed. That is, there is no direct interference between the species. Instead, the species compete for light by absorption of photons in specific regions of the light spectrum. Species with similar light absorption spectra will therefore face stronger competition for light.

Numerical simulations of the model were based on a fourth order Runga-Kutta procedure for time integration, and Simpson's rule for depth integration. Model parameters for our simulations were obtained as follows. For the incident light spectrum, $I_{in}(\lambda)$, we used the surface spectrum measured at the Baltic Sea on July 2004 (Fig. 1c). The absorption spectrum of pure water was taken from the literature (Pope & Fry 1997). The absorption spectrum of the background turbidity was described as an exponentially decreasing function of wavelength (Bricaud *et al.* 1981; Kirk 1994):

$$K_{BG}(\lambda) = K_{BG}(484) \exp[-S(\lambda - 484)],$$
 (4)

where K_{BG} (484) is the background turbidity at a reference wavelength of 484 nm, and *S* is the slope of the exponential decline. The value of K_{BG} (484) depends on the concentration of gilvin and tripton (see Supplementary material). The slope *S* varies between 0.010 and 0.020 nm⁻¹, and we here assume a typical value of $S = 0.017 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ (Kirk 1994). The growth and loss parameters of the picocyanobacteria (p_{max}, ϕ, L) were estimated from our earlier studies (Lavallée & Pick 2002; Stomp *et al.* 2004). We assumed that the parameter values of red and green picocyanobacteria are identical, except for their absorption spectra. The specific absorption spectra of red and green picocyanobacteria were measured with an AMINCO DW-2000 double-beam spectrophotometer (Stomp *et al.* 2004), and are shown in Fig. 1a. Parameter values and their sources are listed in Table 1.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling picocyanobacteria

To test the model predictions, we sampled picocyanobacteria from a wide variety of waters covering a large range of background turbidities. Our sampling sites included station ALOHA in the subtropical Pacific Ocean, nine sampling stations in the Baltic Sea, and 60 lakes in Canada, Hungary, Italy, Nepal and New Zealand. An overview of all 70 sampling stations is given in the Supplementary Material.

Counting picocyanobacteria

The concentrations of red and green picocyanobacteria in samples from the Baltic Sea and Pacific Ocean were counted by flow cytometry (Jonker *et al.* 1995; Vives-Rego *et al.* 2000), using a Coulter Epics Elite ESP flow cytometer (Beckman Coulter Nederland BV, Mijdrecht, The Netherlands) equipped with a green laser (525 nm) and a red laser (670 nm). The flow cytometer distinguished between picocyanobacteria and larger phytoplankton by their size (using side scattering). Red and green picocyanobacteria were distinguished based upon their different fluorescence

Symbol	Interpretation	Units	Value
Independent v	ariables		
t	Time	d	_
z	Depth	m	_
λ	Wavelength	nm	_
Dependent var	riables		
N_i	Population density of species <i>i</i>	cells m ⁻³	_
$\gamma_i(z)$	Absorbed photons by species <i>i</i>	μ mol photons cell ⁻¹ s ⁻¹	_
$I(\lambda,z)$	Underwater light spectrum	μ mol photons m ⁻² s ⁻¹ nm ⁻¹	_
Parameters			
$I_{\rm in}(\lambda)$	Spectrum of incident light	μ mol photons m ⁻² s ⁻¹ nm ⁻¹	Measured (Fig. 1c)
$K_W(\lambda)$	Absorption spectrum of pure water	m^{-1}	Literature*
$K_{BG}(\lambda)$	Absorption spectrum of background turbidity (tripton plus gilvin)	m^{-1}	Calculated (eqn 2)
$K_{BG}(484)$	Absorption of background turbidity at 484 nm	m^{-1}	Measured range (0.03-7.0)
S	Exponential decline of absorption spectrum of background turbidity	nm ⁻¹	0.017 [†]
$k_i(\lambda)$	Absorption spectrum of species <i>i</i>	$m^2 cell^{-1}$	Measured (Fig. 1a)
$a_i(\lambda)$	Conversion of absorption spectrum into action spectrum of species <i>i</i>	-	1
Zm	Depth of surface mixed layer	m	Wide range (1-100)
\tilde{L}_i	Specific loss rate of species i	d^{-1}	0.67 [‡]
$p_{\max,i}$	Maximum growth rate of species <i>i</i>	d^{-1}	1.0 [‡]
ϕ_i	Photosynthetic efficiency of species i	cells d ⁻¹ (µmol photons s ⁻¹) ⁻¹	$2.0 \times 10^{12\$}$

 Table 1
 Parameter values and their interpretation

*Pope & Fry (1997); †Kirk (1994); ‡Lavallée & Pick (2002); §Stomp et al. (2004).

signals. Cells rich in phycoerythrin emitted orange light (550–620 nm) when excited by the green laser, whereas cells rich in phycocyanin emitted far red light (> 670 nm) when excited by the red laser.

The concentrations of red and green picocyanobacteria in the lake samples were counted by epifluorescence microscopy using blue and green filters (Pick 1991; Vörös *et al.* 1998). When excited by blue light, cells rich in phycoerythrin emit yellow to orange light, while cells without phycoerythrin appear dull red or are not visible at all. When excited by green light, red and green picocyanobacteria emit an intense orange to red light. Both groups of picocyanobacteria can be easily distinguished from eukaryotic picoplankton or prochlorophytes, which fluoresce a very faint red or not at all.

Light spectra and absorption spectra

Spectra of the incident light and underwater light spectra were measured with a RAMSES-ACC-VIS spectroradiometer (TriOS, Oldenburg, Germany). Absorption spectra of background turbidity were calculated by eqn 4, from the light attenuation of background turbidity at the reference wavelength of 484 nm, K_{BG} (484). Further methodological details can be found in the Supplementary Material.

RESULTS

Model predictions

We used the model to simulate competition for light between red and green picocyanobacteria in different underwater light fields. As a first check, we ran a large number of simulations to investigate the model's behaviour. The model did not display non-equilibrium dynamics or multiple stable states. Each simulation was run until changes in population densities approached zero, and hence equilibrium had been reached. In all simulations, the final outcome of competition was always independent of the initial abundances of the species.

Figure 2a shows the underwater light spectra at the photic depth (defined as the depth at which the PARintegrated irradiance equals 1% of the surface irradiance), calculated from eqn 1 combined with eqn 4, for three waters with different background turbidities. When background turbidity is low, typical of oligotrophic lakes, the underwater light spectrum is green (Fig. 2a), which matches the absorption spectrum of red picocyanobacteria (Fig. 1a). In this environment, the model predicts that red picocyanobacteria win (Fig. 2b). At intermediate background turbidity typical for mesotrophic lakes and the coastal zone, the underwater light spectrum (Fig. 2a) overlaps with the



Figure 2 Model simulations. (a) Light spectra at the photic depth in waters with, I, a low background turbidity $[K_{BG}$ (484) = 0.3 m⁻¹], II, intermediate background turbidity $[K_{BG}$ (484) = 1.1 m⁻¹], and III, high background turbidity $[K_{BG}$ (484) = 7 m⁻¹]. (b) Red picocyanobacteria win in clear waters with a deep surface-mixed layer $[K_{BG}$ (484) = 0.3 m⁻¹; z_{m} = 36 m]. (c) Stable coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria in waters of intermediate turbidity and mixing depth $[K_{BG}$ (484) = 1.1 m⁻¹; z_{m} = 17 m]. (d) Green picocyanobacteria win in turbid waters with a shallow surface-mixed layer $[K_{BG}$ (484) = 7 m⁻¹; z_{m} = 8 m].

absorption spectra of both picocyanobacteria. Here, the model predicts stable coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria (Fig. 2c). At high background turbidity, typical of eutrophic lakes, the underwater light spectrum is shifted towards the red (Fig. 2a), and here green picocyanobacteria are the superior competitors (Fig. 2d). Thus, along a gradient of background turbidity, theory predicts that red picocyanobacteria are gradually replaced by green picocyanobacteria.

Figure 3a plots the outcome of competition as a function of background turbidity and mixing depth of the surface mixed layer. If the surface mixed layer is deep and the background turbidity is high (upper right area in Fig. 3a), conditions are too dark for the growth of picocyanobacteria. If the surface mixed layer is shallow (lower part of Fig. 3a), the picocyanobacteria are exposed to the white light spectrum near the water surface, in which both the red and green species can coexist. If the surface mixed layer has an intermediate depth, the model predicts a gradual transition from red to green picocyanobacteria with increasing background turbidity (Fig. 3a).

Testing the model predictions in lakes and seas

We first tested the model predictions in the Baltic Sea. Here, we found widespread coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria. At sampling stations with a deep surface mixed layer, the reds and greens typically coexisted throughout the surface layer (Fig. 4a). At sampling stations with a shallower surface mixed layer, the red and green picocyanobacteria coexisted near the surface while red



Figure 3 Model predictions. (a) The predicted outcome of competition plotted as function of background turbidity and surface-mixed-layer depth. Contour lines indicate the relative abundance of red picocyanobacteria (in percentages). The graph is based on a grid of 100×100 simulations. (b) Dashed line indicates the photic depth, which depends on the background turbidity of the water column. Points I, II and III correspond to the simulations shown in Fig. 2. Model parameters: see Table 1.

picocyanobacteria formed a deep chlorophyll maximum underneath (Fig. 4b). Isolation of picoplankton strains from the Baltic Sea revealed a colourful community of picocyanobacteria and pico-eukaryotes (Fig. 4c), spanning a full rainbow from red to green pigmentation. Analysis of the sequences of the 16S rRNA gene and the ribosomal internally transcribed spacer (ITS-1) region show that the varicoloured picocyanobacteria of the Baltic Sea are all closely related and fall within the subalpine cluster II and the Bornholm Sea cluster of the *Synechococcus* complex (Crosbie *et al.* 2003; Ernst *et al.* 2003). Figure 4c thus illustrates that closely related picocyanobacteria may radiate into a rich variety of differently pigmented strains.



Figure 4 Coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria in the Baltic Sea. (a) Depth profiles from a sampling station with a homogeneous distribution of coexisting red and green picocyanobacteria up to a depth of 18 m. (b) Depth profiles from a sampling station with a homogeneous distribution of coexisting reds and greens near the surface, and a deep chlorophyll maximum of red picocyanobacteria underneath. Red circles indicate red picocyanobacteria, green circles indicate green picocyanobacteria, yellow triangles indicate temperature. (c) Picoplankton strains isolated from the Baltic Sea, illustrating a colourful biodiversity of green pico-eukaryotes (the wells indicated by a *) and varicoloured picocyanobacteria of the subalpine cluster II of *Synechococcus* (all other wells).

As a next step, we extended the analysis to the complete data set of 70 sampling stations, covering a wide range of background turbidities (see Table S1 of the Supplementary Materials for details). At low background turbidity $[K_{BC}]$ $(484) < 0.6 \text{ m}^{-1}$], red picocyanobacteria were dominant (Fig. 5). At high background turbidity $[K_{BG}$ (484) > 3 m⁻¹], green picocyanobacteria were dominant. The data set shows coexistence of reds and greens in a large window of intermediate background turbidities. For comparison, model predictions are plotted by the solid lines in Fig. 5, assuming that the surface-mixed-layer depth equals the photic depth, which corresponds to a slice along the dashed line in Fig. 3b. The competition model predicts a similar transition from red to green picocyanobacteria as observed in the sampled lakes and seas. Linear regression of predicted vs. observed relative abundances revealed that the model explained 54% of the variation in the data set ($R^2 = 0.54$, n = 70, P < 0.0001). The residuals did not reveal any further relationship with background turbidity (linear regression: $R^2 = 0.01$, n = 70, P = 0.20). This indicates that the model effectively captured the relationship between



Figure 5 Relative abundances of red picocyanobacteria (red symbols) and green picocyanobacteria (green symbols) observed in lakes and seas plotted against background turbidity. Data are from 25 European lakes (triangles), 30 Canadian lakes (squares), five lakes in Nepal and New Zealand (diamonds), and nine sampling stations in the Baltic Sea (circles). At sampling station ALOHA, in the subtropical Pacific, background turbidity was below the range shown in the graph, but the picocyanobacteria of the *Synechococcus* group were dominated by nearly 100% red cells. The red and green curves indicate the model predictions for red and green picocyanobacteria, respectively, assuming a surface-mixed-layer depth equal to the photic depth. Model parameters: see Table 1.

the relative abundances of red and green picocyanobacteria and background turbidity.

Finally, we tested the sensitivity of the model predictions to the simplifying assumption, in Fig. 5, that the surfacemixed-layer depth equaled the photic depth (where irradiance is 1% of surface irradiance). For this purpose, we ran the model using a shallower and a deeper surface mixed layer, corresponding to 0.5% and 5% of the surface irradiance, respectively. The coexistence window in Fig. 5 slightly widened or narrowed, respectively, but the model still explained 43–33% of the variation in the data. Hence, the model predictions were not very sensitive to the exact value of the surface mixed layer.

DISCUSSION

Many previous studies have focused on light intensity as a major axis of niche differentiation in aquatic and terrestrial plant communities. Theory and experiments have shown that competition for light can be successfully predicted from knowledge of species traits and environmental conditions (Huisman *et al.* 1999; Litchman 2003; Passarge *et al.* 2006). Field studies have shown that light intensity is an important selective factor in phytoplankton communities (Sommer 1993; Rocap *et al.* 2003; Huisman *et al.* 2004). For instance, the *Prochlorococcus* complex in the oligotrophic ocean is differentiated into several different ecotypes (Moore *et al.* 1998; Rocap *et al.* 2003; Johnson *et al.* 2006). Some of these ecotypes are adapted to high light intensities near the water surface, whereas other ecotypes are adapted to low light intensities encountered at greater depths.

This study builds on previous work of plankton ecologists, who have pointed out that the light spectrum is an important additional axis of niche differentiation (Engelmann 1883; Wood 1985; Kirk 1994), and may play a major selective role in phytoplankton communities (Béjà et al. 2001; Rocap et al. 2003). Recent laboratory competition experiments demonstrated that partitioning of the light spectrum enables stable coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria in white light (Stomp et al. 2004). Our results show that, essentially, these laboratory findings can be extrapolated to natural waters. Distribution patterns of picocyanobacteria of the Synechococcus complex are strongly related to the underwater light colour, with a gradual transition from predominance of red strains in clear waters to green strains in turbid waters (Figs 3 and 5). Moreover, consistent with the model predictions, we found widespread coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria in many aquatic ecosystems all over the world. This global pattern is consistent with various local studies, which have shown dominance of red picocyanobacteria in the open ocean (Li et al. 1983; Platt et al. 1983; Campbell & Carpenter 1987; Campbell & Vaulot 1993), and coexistence of red and green picocyanobacteria in waters of intermediate turbidity, such as coastal ecosystems, estuaries and lakes (Pick 1991; Vörös *et al.* 1998; Murrell & Lores 2004; Katano *et al.* 2005; Mózes *et al.* 2006).

Although we focused here on red and green picocyanobacteria, other phytoplankton groups will be involved in competition for light as well. For instance, the absorption spectra of green algae, diatoms, and prochlorophytes all partially overlap with the absorption spectra of red and green picocyanobacteria, and may thereby suppress their numbers. Adding Prochlorococcus to our model (results not shown) revealed that, due to their pigmentation in the blue part of the spectrum, Prochlorococcus is predicted to dominate competition for light in the clearest oceans. In slightly more turbid waters, Prochlorococcus was gradually replaced by red picocyanobacteria, which in turn were gradually replaced by green picocyanobacteria in turbid waters (as in Fig. 5). Thus, in principle at least, the theoretical framework presented here can be further extended to define the spectral niches of other phytoplankton groups as well.

A restriction of our competition model is that it assumes complete mixing of the phytoplankton species throughout the surface mixed layer. This may be a reasonable approximation for turbulent surface waters, and demonstrates that vertical stratification is not required for the coexistence of red and green phytoplankton species. Many waters, however, are not well mixed. Moreover, some cyanobacterial species can regulate their buoyancy, and thereby adjust their vertical position within the water column. An example is Planktothrix rubescens, a red filamentous cyanobacterium that can develop dense monolayers in the metalimnion of stratified lakes (Dokulil & Teubner 2000; Walsby 2005). In principle, our phytoplankton competition models can be extended to include weak vertical mixing, using systems of partial differential equations (Klausmeier & Litchman 2001; Huisman et al. 2006). It would be an interesting next step to investigate how weak mixing favours species with different pigment composition at different depths.

Niche differentiation among Darwin's finches has been ascribed to the evolutionary process of adaptive radiation, during which a single ancestor radiated into different species occupying different niches along the spectrum of different seed sizes (Lack 1974; Grant & Grant 2002). Is niche differentiation of picocyanobacteria along the light spectrum the result of a similar process of adaptive radiation? All cyanobacteria contain the blue-green pigment phycocyanin, whereas only some strains contain the red pigment phycoerythrin. Molecular phylogenies have shown that clusters of closely related picocyanobacteria often contain both red and green strains (Crosbie *et al.* 2003; Ernst *et al.* 2003), as exemplified by the closely related red and green picocyanobacteria from the Baltic Sea (Fig. 4c). This may indicate that the ancestral strains of each of these clusters all contained both phycocyanin and phycoerythrin, or that different clusters acquired red pigments during independent adaptive radiations, by mutation or horizontal gene transfer (Ernst *et al.* 2003). Perhaps evolutionary experiments, similar to ongoing experiments with *Escherichia coli* (Lenski & Travisano 1994), might shed further light on the potential for adaptive radiation in these varicoloured picocyanobacteria.

In conclusion, the theory and field data presented here show that niche differentiation along the underwater light spectrum offers ample opportunities for coexistence of phytoplankton species. These findings add a colourful new solution to Hutchinson's (1961) classic paradox of the plankton, and suggest that the underwater light spectrum deserves full attention in future studies of phytoplankton competition.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The following supplementary material is available for this article:

Appendix S1 Sampling stations.

Appendix S2 Measurement of background turbidity.

Appendix S3 Algorithm to calculate background turbidity.

Figure S1 Light attenuation by phytoplankton versus chlorophyll concentration.

Figure S2 Predicted versus observed background turbidity. Table S1 Overview of the 70 sampling stations used in this study

References S1 Supplementary references

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