UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

MACRONUTRIENTS SHAPE MICROBIAL COMMUNITIES, GENE EXPRESSION AND PROTEIN EVOLUTION

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

JOSHUA THOMAS COOPER Norman, Oklahoma 2017

MACRONUTRIENTS SHAPE MICROBIAL COMMUNITIES, GENE EXPRESSION AND PROTEIN EVOLUTION

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF MICROBIOLOGY AND PLANT BIOLOGY

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Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my two advisors Dr. Boris Wawrik and Dr. J. Phil Gibson for helping me become a better scientist and better educator. I would also like to thank my committee members Dr. Anne K. Dunn, Dr. K. David Hambright, and Dr. J.P. Masly for providing valuable inputs that lead me to carefully consider my research questions. I would also like to thank Dr. J.P. Masly for the opportunity to coauthor a book chapter on the speciation of diatoms. It is still such a privilege that you believed in me and my crazy diatom ideas to form a concise chapter in addition to learn your style of writing has been a benefit to my professional development.

I'm also thankful for my first undergraduate research mentor, Dr. Miriam Steinitz-Kannan, now retired from Northern Kentucky University, who was the first to show the amazing wonders of pond scum. Who knew that studying diatoms and algae as an undergraduate would lead me all the way to a Ph.D. Miriam was a driving force behind my love of research and seeking answers to biological questions. I am also deeply indebted to the many faculty members at my undergraduate institution, Northern Kentucky University for providing a solid foundation to build upon.

I would like to thank the Oklahoma Biological Survey staff (Trina Steil and Rannell Madding) for the continued support during my time as Ph.D. student. I'm also indebted to my colleagues Huynh Le, Chris Marks, Nate Losey, Lindsey O'Neil, and Brian Harriman, Daniel Jones, Zach Meyers, Jamie Johnson-Duffner for their friendship and collegiate discussions.

Also I thank my parents Roger and Sharon Cooper have always been supportive of my adventure into graduate school. I also thank my grandmother Jeanette Cooper,

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who spent hours with me in my earlier years taking me to the Cincinnati Public Library. There I was able to cultivate my quest for knowledge, and explore any topic I became interested in, even if for brief moments.

Lastly I would like to thank the Department of Microbiology and Plant Biology for the teaching assistant support granted to me during my time at the University of Oklahoma.

Included within this dissertation are already published peer reviewed manuscripts, which represent Chapters 1 and 2. My contribution and the contributions of the other authors are outlined at the beginning of each chapter.

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Abstract

Nutrient limitation of the principle macronutrients carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus are known to influence community structure, success of individual species, and over long enough time could, in theory, shape the evolution of proteins organisms use to cope with nutrient stress. This dissertation explores macronutrients incorporation into bacterial communities, how organisms modulate gene expression to cope with periodic nutrient stress, and how long-term limitation might shape cellular stoichiometry to reduce biochemical nutrient demand. In the first chapter, arctic natural microbial communities are investigated, and a strong seasonal shift of bacterial and archaeal N utilization from ammonium during the summer to urea during the winter is demonstrated via ¹⁵N-based stable isotope probing (SIP). In combination with collaborative ¹³C-bicarbonate based SIP studies, these data point to the potential for urea fueled nitrification as an important source of primary production during the arctic winter. The second chapter examines the nutrient limited transcriptome of a harmful bloom forming algae, Scrippsiella trochoidea CCMP 3099 to investigate its cellular response to nitrogen or phosphorus stress. Transcriptome data indicates that N limitation in S. trochoidea modulates gene expression to compensate for oxidative stress and appears to switch from inorganic nitrate metabolism to dissolved organic sources. The third chapter aims to understand how, over long time scales of phytoplankton and protists evolution, N limitation might alter the stoichiometry of the proteome to reduce overall nutrient utilization. It was tested whether the nutritional mode (autotrophy, mixotrophy, and heterotrophy) might be a predictor of the overall balance of

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macroelements in predicted protein products. The hypothesis that organisms living in more N limiting environments produce N-deplete protein products (based on side-chain chemistry), is rejected. Conversely, predicted proteins in the transcriptomes of mixotrophs appear enriched in amino acids with greater C content. The stoichiometry of the *in silico* translated proteome has a weak correlation to environmental nutrients (not significant for nitrate, but significant for phosphate). The last chapter is an extension of the primary research goals with respect to algal transcriptomes put forth in this dissertation. The chapter's aim is to integrate scholarship and teaching by introducing cutting edge research results into a case study designed for introductory biology students to teach the central dogma of molecular biology in terms of genomics technologies. This chapter incorporates "Central Dogma of Molecular Biology", "big data", "cells as systems", and the "flow of information" with societal issues and problem solving of the harmful bloom forming dinoflagellate *Karenia brevis*.

Chapter 1: Urea Uptake and Carbon Fixation by Marine Pelagic Bacteria and Archaea During the Arctic Summer and Winter Seasons

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This chapter has been published essentially in this form in Applied and Environmental Microbiology and is formatted according to journal specifications. The paper can be located under the following citation:

Connelly, Tara. L., Baer, Steven. E., **Cooper, Joshua. T.**, Bronk, Deborah. A., & Wawrik, Boris. (2014). Urea Uptake and Carbon Fixation by Marine Pelagic Bacteria and Archaea during the Arctic Summer and Winter Seasons. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 80 (19), 6013–6022. doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01431-14

Author contributions to the AEM paper:

BW and DAB conceived the study and funded the work through NSF funded research grants OCE 0961900, ARC 0910252, and ARC 0909839. SEB, TLC, and DAB collected samples. DAB contributed nutrient data and isotope tracer uptake rate measurements. SEB and TLC conducted ¹³C-based stable isotope probing studies to demonstrate autotrophic activities of microbial populations. JTC conducted the ¹⁵Nbased stable isotope probing studies and analyzed microbial community data. All coauthors contributed to the writing the final manuscript

Abstract

How Arctic climate change might translate into alterations of biogeochemical cycles of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) with respect to inorganic and organic N utilization is not well understood. This study combined ¹⁵N-uptake rate measurements for ammonium, nitrate, and urea with ¹⁵N- and ¹³C-based DNA stable isotope probing (SIP). The objective was to investigate the identities of active prokaryotic plankton and their role in N and C uptake during the Arctic summer and winter seasons. We hypothesized that bacteria and archaea would successfully compete for nitrate and urea during the Arctic winter, but not the summer when phytoplankton dominate uptake of these nitrogen sources. Samples were collected at a coastal station near Barrow Alaska during August and January. During both seasons, ammonium uptake rates were greater than those for nitrate or urea, and nitrate uptake rates remained lower than those for ammonium or urea. SIP experiments indicated a strong seasonal shift of bacterial and archaeal N utilization from ammonium during the summer to urea during the winter. Analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences obtained by Illumina sequencing of PCR products for each SIP fraction implicated Marine Group I Crenarchaea (MGIC) as well as Betaproteobacteria, Firmicutes, SAR11, and SAR324 in N uptake from urea during the winter. Similarly, ¹³C SIP data suggested dark carbon fixation for MGIC as well as several Proteobacterial lineages and the Firmicutes. These data are consistent with ureafueled nitrification by polar archaea and bacteria, which may be advantageous under dark conditions.

Introduction

The Arctic is already experiencing the impacts of global climate change, which has the potential to disrupt the ecology of the Arctic Ocean, causing broad changes in the physical, chemical and biological realms (1-5). How such changes might translate into alterations of ecosystem dynamics as well as the overall balances and rates of biogeochemical cycles of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) is not well understood (6, 7). Generally, short day lengths and sea-ice coverage during the Arctic winter limit light and phytoplankton primary production, while summer is characterized by episodic phytoplankton blooms following sea-ice melt (8). High levels of primary productivity during the summer are thought to be sustained through buildup of NO_3 in the water column during the dark winter period, as well as inputs from ice melt and allochthonous riverine nutrient sources (9). Production could additionally be augmented by dissolved organic nitrogen (DON), which can represent between 18 and 85% of the total dissolved N pool in coastal and open ocean surface water (10, 11). The interplay between inorganic and organic N utilization, with respect to heterotrophic versus autotrophic activities, could be an important contributor to biological production, but remains poorly resolved, especially in Arctic environments (12).

Among DON compounds, urea has long been recognized as an important N source in tropical, sub-tropical, and temperate marine environments (13-16). Urea usually occurs in nM levels in the open oceans, but can be found at concentrations of up to 50 μ M in coastal ecosystems (17), where it can be an important N substrate that promotes large seasonal blooms of phytoplankton (18). The importance of urea at high latitudes is, however, less well understood. In addition to riverine input, other natural

sources of urea in the Arctic can include excretion and sloppy feeding by zooplankton (19) and inputs from melting of seasonal fast ice (20). Production of urea has also been attributed to sediment-associated bacteria, which may mediate urea release into the water column via thermal or wind-driven mixing (21). In the Canadian Arctic, urea has been observed to account for >50% of total dissolved nitrogen (TDN; 22). The same study reports urea uptake rates that mimicked the distributional patterns of urea concentrations, while accounting for approximately 32% of N productivity (nitrate, ammonium, and urea). A more recent study in the Beaufort Sea found that urea supplied almost half of the phytoplankton N uptake annually (23), and on a seasonal basis it was reported that urea uptake increased relative to other N substrates as the year progressed from winter to spring to summer (24). In the Northern Baffin Bay cycloheximide and streptomycin were utilized as inhibitors and it was found that urea was primarily consumed by phytoplankton (58-95%) but may also be utilized by bacteria (5-42%) (25). Collectively these studies suggest that urea is likely an important source of N in Arctic systems. It remains uncertain, however, what the dynamics of competition for urea between phytoplankton and bacteria are at the community level and which populations of cells successfully compete for urea N under different conditions. Size fractionation experiments often retain significant numbers of bacteria in the 'phytoplankton fraction' (traditionally collected on GF/F filters with a nominal pore size of 0.7 µm), and they provide no phylogenetic information about active microbial community members.

The ability of pelagic bacteria and archaea to fix carbon independent of light in oxygenic waters is becoming more widely recognized (26-29), especially in deeper

oceanic waters (30-32). However, the extent that dark carbon fixation is occurring in the world's oceans and how important this metabolism is for the life strategy of specific taxa is still unknown. It is hypothesized that dark carbon fixation can be important in compensating for metabolic imbalances under oligotrophic conditions. Since much of the world's oceans are oligotrophic, the significance of dark carbon fixation could therefore be large. This may be especially true under dark winter conditions in the Arctic when photosynthesis rates are low. Previously, Alonso-Sáez *et al.* (27) found that certain taxa of bacteria (e.g., *Oleispira* and *Pseudoalteromonas-Colwellia*) collected from shelf waters in the Arctic and cultured in aged seawater had the potential to fix carbon. The authors concluded that heterotrophs were primarily responsible for the observed bicarbonate uptake and proposed that this metabolism would be advantageous for survival during periods of low nutrient availability, such as winter.

In this study, we combined DIN and urea uptake rate measurements with ¹³C and ¹⁵N DNA-SIP in order to investigate the role of prokaryotic plankton in C and N cycling during the Arctic summer and winter seasons. We hypothesized that both bacteria and archaea would successfully compete for N from NO₃⁻ and urea during the Arctic winter, but not the summer when phytoplankton dominate the absolute uptake of these N sources. Further, ¹³C-based SIP was used to investigate the *in situ* capability of both bacteria and archaea to incorporate carbon from bicarbonate into DNA to demonstrate their potential involvement in fixation of carbon during the dark winter months.

Material and Methods

Field sample collection

Sampling was performed at 71°20.660' N, 156°41.416' W, which is approximately 2.5 km northwest of Barrow, Alaska. To capture the extreme Arctic light and physical conditions, sampling took place during summer (August 2011) and winter (January 2012). During the ice-covered seasons of winter, a small hole was drilled through the ice to allow access for a low-pressure electric pump for sample collection. Every effort was made to reduce stress on the organisms by limiting light and temperature changes. Sampling depth was at 1 m depth in the winter and at 8 m in the summer. A small tent was erected and heated to approximately -1°C (near the temperature of the ambient seawater) to prevent the pumped seawater and sampling equipment from freezing. During the summer, samples were collected onboard a small boat via the same pump arrangement at the same location as determined by GPS coordinates.

¹⁵N and ¹³C Additions

Water was collected into a series of 2 L acid-washed PETG bottles. A subset was used to determine ambient nutrient concentrations. Samples for SIP and uptake rate incubations were each run in duplicate and were inoculated with additions of unlabeled (^{14}N) or labeled (^{15}N) NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and urea (>98% ^{15}N). Previously reported ambient concentrations were used to establish N additions for uptake rate incubations. Since DNA stable isotope probing (SIP) requires substantial isotopic labeling, incubations for SIP samples were made with saturating additions of 2.0 µmol N L⁻¹ of NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and urea during summer. Winter additions were 3.25 µmol N L⁻¹ for NH₄⁺ or urea, and 7.7 μ mol N L⁻¹ of NO₃. For dark carbon fixation experiments, duplicate sets of samples were incubated with 200 mM of either labeled (^{13}C) or unlabeled (^{12}C) bicarbonate. The bottles were then surrounded by ambient seawater, placed in insulated coolers, and brought to the laboratory within one hour of collection to prevent freezing. Samples were incubated in a temperature-controlled chamber for 24 hours at ambient water temperature (+4.7°C in summer; -1.8°C in winter). To mimic spectral attenuation from the field during summer, light levels were maintained by GAM Hynix blue films and confirmed using a Li-COR PAR sensor. Winter samples were incubated in the dark. At the end of incubations, samples were filtered separately for uptake rates and SIP analyses, and water was collected for nutrient analyses. For uptake rates determinations, samples were filtered through Whatman GF/F (nominal pore size of $0.7 \mu m$) filters. The filters were placed in cryovials and frozen until analysis. For determination of nutrient concentrations at the end of incubations, the filtrate was poured into polypropylene tubes and frozen until analysis. Samples from SIP incubation bottles were filtered onto 0.45 µm Supor filters (PALL Life Sciences) and frozen in 750 µL STE buffer (1 M NaCl, 100 mM Tris HCL pH 8.0, 10 mM EDTA pH 8.0).

Nutrient Analysis and Uptake Rates

Nutrients were measured on ambient seawater and water incubated with labeled substrate in order to correct for isotope dilution in the uptake rate calculations. Concentrations of ammonium (NH_4^+) were measured in triplicate using the phenol-hypochlorite method (33). Duplicates of nitrate (NO_3^-) and nitrite (NO_2^-) were measured on a Lachat QuikChem 8500 autoanalyzer (34). Urea was measured in duplicate using the manual monoxime method (35). A Europa GEO 20/20 mass spectrometer with an ANCA autosampler was used to make isotopic measurements of ¹⁵N samples. Nitrogen uptake rates were calculated as per Dugdale and Goering (36), and carbon uptake rates as per Hama et al. (37). The NH_4^+ pool was isolated at the end of the incubation by solid phase extraction (38, 39) and the ¹⁵N enrichment determined so that NH_4^+ uptake rates could be corrected for isotope dilution and NH_4^+ regeneration rates measured (40).

Stable Isotope Probing

DNA extractions were conducted as previously described (41) by lysis with 75 µL of 5% SDS and 20 µL of 20 mg mL⁻¹ proteinase K for 30 min at 37 °C. Muffled glass beads (50–100 mg of 0.1 mm beads) were added, and samples were homogenized by bead-beating for two minutes before extraction with phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1). DNA was subsequently precipitated with 0.7 volumes of isopropanol and pellets were suspended in 50 µL of TE buffer (1 mM Tris pH 9.0, 10 mM EDTA pH 8.0). Cesium chloride (CsCl) density centrifugation and fractionation were conducted as previously described (41-44). Briefly, two micrograms of DNA in 0.40 ml TE buffer were spun for 48-72 hours in 4.7-ml polyallomer Optiseal tubes (Beckman) containing 4.35 mL of CsCl solution (1.701 g mL⁻¹) in gradient buffer (15 mM Tris-HCL pH 8.0, 15 mM KCL, 15 mM EDTA pH 8.0) in a Beckman VTI65.2 rotor at 140,000 x g. Thirty 150- μ L fractions were then collected from each tube using a fraction collector (Beckman) by displacing contents with mineral oil at a constant rate using a peristaltic pump. Densities for each fraction were calculated from their refractive index as described elsewhere (41, 43). After ethanol re-precipitation with 1.0 µL of molecular grade glycogen, DNA was suspended in 30 µL sterile, nuclease free DI water. These purified fractions served as template for qPCR and 16S PCR for Illumina

sequencing. We note that all direct comparisons made in this paper are for fractions and gradients from the same centrifuge run, which used the same batch of buffer.

Labeling was assessed by integrating the area of DNA and OTU abundance peaks observed in gradients and thereby estimating their average density. For bacteria and archaea, the proportional abundance from qPCR was used. Average densities for individual phylogenetic groups were calculated from 16S community OTU frequency data. To minimize biases introduced by baseline variability (i.e. because target DNA is typically found throughout gradients, and because the obtained density range can vary slightly among gradient runs), only the major peak of DNA was integrated. All fractions, which contained $\geq 20\%$ of the maximum observed quantity were hence integrated (see Figure 2). Percent labeling was calculated by assuming that 100 % labeling of DNA with ¹⁵N and ¹³C would yield a density shift of 0.016 g cm⁻³ and 0.036 $g \text{ cm}^{-3}$ respectively (43). Sequential gradient fractions differed in average by $\sim 0.0035 \pm 0.0001$ g cm⁻³. Positive labeling was therefore interpreted to have occurred when shifts of >30% and >15% for ¹⁵N and ¹³C respectively were observed. This corresponds to density shift of approximately 1.5 fractions in our gradients, where complete (i.e. 100%) labeling would correspond to a shift of 4.6 and 10 fractions for ¹⁵N and ¹³C respectively.

qPCR for 16S Bacteria and Archaea

Bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA gene copy numbers were determined for each SIP fractionation via quantitative PCR (qPCR). Bacterial 16S rRNA gene qPCR primers were 27F (5'-AGA GTT TGA TCM TGG CTC AG-3') and reverse primer 519R (5'-GWA TTA CCG CKG CTG-3'). Archaeal specific qPCR primers were 8AF (5'-TCC GGT TGA TCC TGC C-3') and the reverse primer A344R (5'-TCG CGC CTG CTC CIC CCC GT-3'). SYBR green qPCR reactions were run in 30 µL volumes using *Power* SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems), 500 nM final concentration of each primer and 2 µL of template DNA. Using an Applied Biosystems ABI 7300 Real Time PCR System, qPCR was conducted as follows: 50°C for 2 minutes and 95°C for 8 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, 55°C for 30 seconds. Genomic DNA of *Roseobacter dendrificans* Och114 was used as a standard for bacteria, while a plasmid contacting the complete 16S gene of *Methanospirillum hungatei* JF-1 served as a standard for archaea.

16S community analysis

Environmental genomic DNA and DNA from CsCl gradient fractions were amplified by targeting partial 16S rRNA genes with the universal (bacteria and archaea) primers S-D-Arch-0519-a-S-15 (5'-CAG CMG CCG CGG TAA-3') and S-D-Bact-785a-A-21 (5'-GAC TAC HVG GGT ATC TAA TCC-3') as previously described (45). These primers do not amplify ribosomal RNA genes from eukaryotes, but cover 86.5% and 87.1% of bacterial and archaeal phyla, respectively. If one mismatch is allowed (which frequently occurs during PCR), 94.6% and 94.8% of bacterial and archaeal phyla are covered respectively (45). Amplification of candidate divisions WS6, TM7, and OP11, as well as phylum Nanoarchaeota was deemed unlikely via *in silico* analysis (45). The forward primer was modified to include a 5'-M13 tag used for labeling the PCR products with Illumina tags (46). Primary PCR reactions (30 µL total) were carried out using 2X PCR Master Mix (Fermentas/ThermoScientific). Amplicons were checked by gel electrophoresis and confirmation of a single band and then cleaned using the QIAquick® PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen). The M13-containing amplicons were then tagged for MiSeq Illumina sequencing by including a unique 8bp barcode into each amplicon (46). MiSeq Illumina sequencing was performed as previously described (47) with the modification of an added CC spacer between adapter and barcode.

Sequence Classification

Raw Illumina sequence reads were processed by first removing adapter sequences and then stitching overlapping forward and reverse reads. Sequences were then clustered and assigned taxonomy using the QIIME pipeline. They were demultiplexed and then clustered into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) using UCLUST at the 95% identity level. A representative set of sequences was picked at random from each OTU and aligned to the SILVA small subunit rRNA reference alignment (www.arb-silva.de) using the PyNAST algorithm (48). Core taxa were defined as those OTUs which represented >1% of reads within a sample, and rare OTUs were defined as those having a representation <0.1% within a sample (49). Classification was then exported at the genus, class, and phylum levels. 16S rRNA gene frequencies at each level were then normalized to the respective qPCR quantities (bacterial OTUs to bacterial 16S qPCR, and archaeal OTUs to archaeal 16S qPCR). This was done because frequencies of OTUs are in reference to the whole 16S dataset which includes both bacterial and archaeal data. The qPCR normalization was also performed to account for the differential abundance and distribution of their DNA in gradients. Data were then converted to ratios of quantities in which the highest measured normalized frequency equaled one.

Results

The water column during late August was well-mixed, with a water temperature of +4.7°C and salinity of 30.2. Chlorophyll *a* was 0.4 μ g L⁻¹. In winter, the water column remained well-mixed, with a water temperature of -1.8°C, salinity of 33.7, and chlorophyll *a* concentrations of 0.01 μ g L⁻¹. Light levels were low in the water column under the sea ice at 0.12 μ mol quanta⁻¹ m⁻² s⁻¹. Summer concentrations of ambient nutrients were greatest for NH₄⁺ (Table 1). Uptake rates were similarly dominated by NH₄⁺, which was close to an order of magnitude greater than NO₃⁻ and urea uptake rates. Regeneration of NH₄⁺ was more than six times greater than uptake. During winter, NO₃⁻ concentrations increased dramatically, but all of the uptake rates fell to extremely low levels, with urea uptake rates the lowest of those measured.

Sequencing of amplified 16S rRNA genes from ambient community DNA yielded 97,858 and 25,666 quality paired-end Illumina reads for summer and winter samples respectively. A breakdown of ambient microbial communities at the phylum/family-level is shown in Figure 1. Overall, samples contained fairly similar microbial communities during both seasons, with some notable differences. Archaea accounted for a smaller proportion of overall reads in the summer (1.8%) as compared to the winter (11.8%). These data are consistent with results from qPCR of community DNA, which detected $7.1 \times 10^6 \pm 4.1 \times 10^5$ and $2.5 \times 10^6 \pm 2.0 \times 10^5$ bacterial and $8.4 \times 10^4 \pm$ 5.4×10^3 and $3.0 \times 10^5 \pm 1.7 \times 10^4$ archaeal rRNA gene copies per ml of seawater in summer and winter samples respectively. Archaea were therefore 3.6-fold more abundant in winter samples as compared to those collected during the summer, while bacteria were 2.8-fold more abundant during the summer. The ratio of bacterial to archaeal 16S rRNA genes was 85 in the summer and 8.3 in winter samples. Thirtyeight archaeal OTUs were shared among summer and winter libraries, but winter communities were characterized by a greater proportion of MGIC and a smaller proportions of reads classified as *Halobacteria* (<1%) and *Methanobacteria* (<0.3%; Figure 1A and 1B).

Bacterial communities also exhibited strong similarities, with 19 core OTUs (>1.0% of reads) shared among summer and winter, accounting for 65% and 53% of reads during summer and winter respectively. The prominent difference between the two seasons was a greater proportion of sequences classified within the Cyanobacteria/Chloroplast and Verrucomicrobia in the summer sample (Figure 1C and 1D). Winter samples conversely had greater proportions of reads within the Proteobacteria, Bacteriodetes, and Planctomycetes as compared to the summer. Within the Proteobacteria, most OTUs were classified within the SAR11 group and the Alteromonadales (*Oceanospirillum*) during the winter sampling. A greater diversity of taxa within the proteobacteria was observed during the summer. The winter samples exhibited greater species richness, containing 594 unique OTUs (found only in the winter sequence libraries) compared to 144 unique taxa in summer samples. The rare biosphere was prominent, with 93% and 96% of the OTUs found in less than 0.1% of reads in libraries during the summer and winter respectively.

CsCl DNA density gradients from ¹⁴N- and ¹⁵N-labeled NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and urea (summer and winter) as well as ¹²C and ¹³C-bicarbonate treatments (winter only) were fractionated. Each of the resulting fractions was assayed via qPCR for bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA genes to estimate the degree of isotopic labeling (Figure 2).

Addition of ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ led to isotopic labeling of bacterial and archaeal DNA in summer but not winter samples, when 30% labeling for the major peak in the gradient is used as a conservative cutoff (Table 2). Evidence for the incorporation of ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ into either bacteria or archaea was not observed in either season. Incubation with ¹⁵N-urea produced no evidence of incorporation of N from urea in summer samples, however, winter samples yielded estimates of 30% and 35% isotopic labeling for bacterial and archaeal populations respectively (Figure 2A). Winter ¹⁴N/¹⁵N-urea treatments were therefore chosen for a more detailed analysis by high throughput sequencing. In addition, ¹²C/¹³C-bicarbonate treated samples were analyzed via SIP to investigate dark (winter) carbon fixation activity by the major prokaryotic populations, revealing 17 and 18% labeling of DNA with ¹³C for bacterial and archaeal populations in the winter respectively.

A total of 1.27×10^6 paired-end reads were generated from 14 N/ 15 N-urea treatments using the Illumina MiSeq platform, yielding an average of 3.59×10^4 pairedend sequences for each fraction. The ten most abundant divisions (Proteobacteria are shown at the family level; Figure 1) accounted for 60% of the read data and were chosen for further analysis. Less abundant divisions generally did not contain sufficient read data in each fraction to resolve frequency distributions sufficiently well. SIP analysis, as presented here, therefore only addresses major phyla and orders from our sampling site. Overall, labeling with N from 15 N-urea appeared to be widespread among taxonomic groups and individual OTUs (Table 3). Firmicutes and Betaproteobacteria exhibited labeling above the 30% threshold (Table 3). Alphaproteobacterial DNA displayed a shift of only 20% at the phylum level, but specific Alphaproteobacterial

OTUs which classified within the Sar11-clade, exhibited density shifts of >30% (data not shown). In addition, labeling of 25% and 39% were observed for a Gammaproteobacterial OTU classified as Oceanospirillum and Deltaproteobacterial OTU classified within the Sar324-clade respectively. The dominant archaeal OTU classified within the MGIC lineage and displayed 31% labeling with ¹⁵N from ¹⁵N-urea.

Both the bacterial and the archaeal qPCR analysis of SIP fractions provided evidence of ¹³C-bicarbonate uptake during the winter (Figure 2B), exhibiting 17% and 18% labeling respectively. Sequencing of fractions from ¹²C and ¹³C-bicaronate treated samples produced 1.40x10⁶ reads, which yielded an average of 2.38 x10⁴ paired-end sequences for each fraction. No appreciable difference in the overall phylogenetic composition of these data as compared to the ¹⁵N fractions was observed (data not shown). Evidence of labeling was observed for all four major Proteobacterial families detected here, as well as the Firmicutes and the Crenarchaeota.

Discussion

Marine prokaryotic plankton play a critical role in the biogeochemical cycling of C and N in the world's oceans (50, 51). Identifying the phylogenetic groups that are responsible for specific C or N cycling activities can provide insights into the forces that drive marine productivity and community function, as well as the spatial and temporal dynamics of individual C and N transformation processes themselves. The work presented here aimed to quantify uptake rates of DIN sources and urea, while placing these rates into context with a targeted SIP experiment to identify incorporation by dominant groups of bacteria and archaea. In addition, we explored dark carbon fixation by bacteria and archaea, which can potentially be coupled to ammonium oxidation (via urea deamination).

SIP data suggests an important seasonal transition of microbial N incorporation from NH₄⁺ during the summer to urea during the winter (Table 2). In addition, SIP implicated a broad range of microbial taxa in winter urea utilization, including Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, and MGIC. Utilization of ¹⁵N-urea is not necessarily expected, given that other sources of N were available, but it is not inconsistent with the phylogenetic distribution of urease genes among bacteria and archaea. Although it has been argued that ureases are rare in the domain Archaea (17), and it has been noted that urease genes are absent from the genomes of *Nitrosopumilis maritimus* and *Nitrosoarchaeum limnia* (52), it has also been observed that *ureC* genes are abundant in polar archaea, with an average ratio close to or greater than one as compared to 16S rRNA genes (2). A search of genome sequences available in the DOE's Joint Genome Institute IMG database (as of August 2013) identifies urease genes within genomes of

several *Halobacteria* and Crenarchaeota, the latter of which are relevant to our samples. Similarly, this search identifies ureases in the genomes of Alpha-, Beta-, Gamma-, and Epsilon-Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Firmicutes, which were the main phylogenetic groups at our sampling site. In contrast to SIP observations, urea uptake rates were measurable but very low in both summer and winter samples. This discrepancy is likely a reflection of our choice of filters. GF/F filters (nominal pore size of 0.7 μ m) were employed in our study to determine rates, while DNA extractions for SIP were conducted using 0.45 μ m filters. Flow cytometric analysis of seawater samples indicates that most bacterial cells in winter samples were smaller than the 0.7 μ m cutoff of GF/F filters (data not shown; more details provided in (24)). Simpson, et al. (23) reported that the 0.2-0.7 μ m fraction accounts for <10% of N uptake during summer, and that bacteria assimilated relatively more N when phytoplankton were less important in N uptake. Urea uptake rates as reported here are therefore likely an underestimation of actual *in situ* activity, particularly for the winter.

The metabolic advantage of NH₄⁺ leads to the expectation of universal labeling of DNA with ¹⁵N from ¹⁵NH₄⁺ during either season. A lack of labeling with ¹⁵NH₄⁺ might indicate incubation times inconsistent with rates of uptake. However, summer and winter samples exhibited good incorporation of ¹⁵N from NH₄⁺ and urea respectively, indicating that incubation times chosen for our experiments were sufficiently long. Conversely, incubation times that are too long can lead to crossfeeding and eliminate the ability to resolve differential uptake in SIP experiments (44). Cross-feeding results when a substrate is added in one form but is converted to another form during the incubation. Nitrification, for example, can occur at high rates during

the Arctic winter (24, 53), and therefore additions of ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ could result in the production of ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻, which could subsequently be incorporated. Additionally, conversion of urea to NH_4^+ is likely to occur, but there is no current information on the rate of that process in the environment. Given those caveats, our relatively short incubation times and low ambient rates of uptake (Table 1), it is unlikely that cross-feeding represented an important factor in our results.

Incorporation of N from 15 N-NO₃ by bacterial or archaeal populations was not supported by SIP for either season (Table 2). This is contrary to prior studies that indicate NO₃⁻ can serve as an important N source to bacterioplankton in the Arctic. For example, using protein synthesis inhibitors and ¹⁵N-tracers in waters collected from northern Baffin Bay it was observed that heterotrophic bacteria can account for as much as 25% of NO₃⁻ uptake when chlorophyll concentrations are low ($\leq 2 \mu g L^{-1}$) (25). Experiments in the Barents Sea similarly indicated that bacteria can account for 16-40% of total NO₃⁻ uptake, with greater importance of this process at stations near ice cover (54). A study of sub-Arctic Pacific communities revealed that bacteria can account for 32% of total NO₃⁻ uptake, roughly similar to heterotrophic bacterial NH₄⁺ uptake (55). Overall, a meta-analysis of these and other data suggests a pattern of greater NO_3^{-1} utilization by heterotrophic bacterioplankton under low chlorophyll conditions and relatively lower contributions when phytoplankton are more prevalent (25). Although NO₃⁻ incorporation, as determined via SIP, was not observed in this study, we note that background NO₃⁻ levels ($\sim 10 \mu$ M, Table 1) in winter samples were substantially above our additions. SIP experiments, as performed here, require an excess of ¹⁵N-labeled substrate in order to result in >30% labeling of cellular DNA. Additions of 15 N-NO₃⁻ to

winter samples were therefore likely below the limit of detection for our experimental setup. Summer additions, on the contrary, were sufficiently high and a lack of ¹⁵N-DNA labeling is consistent with NO₃⁻ uptake being dominated by phytoplankton (56). It has also been noted that microbial growth parameters do not correlate well with NO₃⁻ uptake in the sub-Arctic Pacific, and that NO₃⁻ is likely the least preferred N source supporting bacterial growth (55). Utilization of NO₃⁻ in the Arctic varies both seasonally and spatially, but it appears that NO₃⁻ may be a source of N only as a last resort for bacterioplankton, especially during times other than the spring bloom when energetically more favorable sources of N such as NH_4^+ , amino acids, and urea are abundant (24).

Community analysis of 16S rRNA genes revealed that summer and winter communities were largely similar, while displaying some notable differences. Minor seasonal differences in microbial community composition are in line with previous reports for Arctic Ocean microbial communities (57-59). For example, analysis of DGGE fingerprints from Arctic and Antarctic samples revealed no seasonal variation in archaeal community structure, but suggested greater richness of archaea in water from greater depth (59). The dominant contributors to archaeal community composition in the study by Bano et al. (59) were MGIC, similar to populations described here. We also observed a greater relative proportion of archaea during the winter, similar to prior observations (52). The abundance of MGIC in the Southeast Beaufort Sea has been observed to be from 6% to 18% between January and March, while decreasing to ca. 5% of cells in May and June of the same year (52). This change was attributed to growth of the archaeal populations during the winter and not mixing with deeper water

masses, which often contain greater proportions of these organisms. Galand, et al. (60) reported that MGIC were the most abundant archaea when five distinct water masses of the Arctic Ocean were interrogated, representing between 27% and 63% of sequences in pyrotag libraries. Overall, these data suggest that archaea are a salient and stable feature of Arctic marine prokaryotic plankton communities and that their relative importance increases during the dark and cold months of the Arctic winter. Seasonal differences in bacterial communities are equally constrained. A study using samples collected from the western Arctic reported no significant seasonal differences in bacterial communities, as determined via pyrotag sequencing, despite large differences in biogeochemical parameters (57). The dominant bacterial taxa in that study were the Alpha- and Gamma-proteobacteria as well as the Bacteroidetes (Flavobacteria) (57). Our findings match these observations, although, Kirchman et al. (50) did not observe a shift towards greater proportions of chloroplast and SAR11-like sequences during the summer. These discrepancies likely arise from the use of $0.8 \,\mu m$ pre-filtered samples (55) in order to remove much of the eukaryotic phytoplankton, including their chloroplasts.

Urea is present in relatively high concentrations in polar seawater (22, 23, 52), and its role as an important component of the Arctic N cycle has been recognized. Urea can account for as much as 30-50% of the N assimilated by phytoplankton annually (22, 23) and as much as 80% of the regenerated production during the spring bloom (23). Urea also has been reported to have similar half saturation constants but greater maximum uptake rates as compared to NH_4^+ (61). A more recent study has investigated the role of urea in nitrification by polar marine archaea (52). In that study, metagenomic analysis of Arctic winter samples revealed an abundance of urea transport and degradation genes. Quantitative PCR assays resulted in good correlation between the number of MGIC and *ureC* genes, suggesting that *ureC* genes were abundant in polar archaea. Experiments with ¹⁴C-labeled urea demonstrated uptake of C from urea (carbon dioxide is generated from urea by urease activity) by the 0.2-0.6 μ m fraction and that this activity was greater under dark conditions (52). The implication is that urea may fuel nitrification and autotrophic growth by polar archaea via the release of ammonium from urea. This may be advantageous under dark conditions, when urea can be a more reliable source of energy for ammonium oxidizers (2). Urea may also be continually produced during the Arctic winter via microbial and zooplankton (20) activities. The notion of urea-fueled nitrification is not without precedent. It has been argued that urea hydrolysis may serve to generate ammonium and carbon dioxide by ammonium oxidizers (62), allowing these bacteria to generate energy to fuel dark carbon fixation.

A recent study using DNA-SIP on bacterial communities in the coastal northwest Pacific Ocean found dark carbon fixation to be widespread across different bacterial taxa (29). In another study in deeper waters (>50m) of the Chukchi Sea during spring and summer, results from microautoradiography-catalyzed reporter deposition fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (MAR-CARDFISH) showed that the percent of bacteria and Crenarcheota actively incorporating bicarbonate was highest on the shelf at 20% (for both groups) and decreased to <10% further offshore (63). Also using MAR-CARDFISH, a study in the Canadian Arctic found that Gamma- and Beta-Proteobacteria were active in the assimilation of bicarbonate when stationary phase
seawater cultures were grown on a resource deplete medium, specifically the Gammaproteobacteria *Oleispira* and *Pseudoalteromonas-Colwellia* (27). Our results demonstrate that dark carbon fixation may not be limited to dilution cultures grown under enhanced substrate-depletion, but may also be a viable metabolic strategy for many taxa under *in situ* conditions. Moreover, our work expands on the previously reported diversity of bacteria and archaea active in the assimilation of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in the Arctic during winter.

The relevance of chemoautotrophy, such as ammonia oxidation by bacteria and archaea, may increase from summer to winter in Arctic waters when light levels and photosynthetic primary production are low (53). The important role of ammonia oxidizing Crenarchaeota to carbon fixation and nitrogen cycling in deeper waters of the world's oceans is becoming well established (30, 31, 64). For example, it is estimated that dark carbon fixation by ammonia-oxidizing archaea to be >700 Tg-C y^{-1 (30)}, of which approximately 400 Tg-C y^{-1} is fixed by Crenarchaeota (64). Yet, the relevance of ammonia oxidation in surface waters of the ocean are thought to remain low due to inhibition from light and competition for ammonia with phytoplankton (65, 66). Arctic winter surface waters are comparable to deeper waters in the ocean due to limited light as a consequence of sea-ice coverage and short day lengths, and low inputs of organic matter from photosynthesis. Further, ammonium concentrations in the Arctic are higher in winter than in summer (53)(this study). Thus, the role of chemoautotrophy from ammonia oxidation may be notable in Arctic surface waters during winter, as it is for deeper waters in the world's oceans. Consistent with this proposition, Christman et al. (53) found that ammonia monooxygenase (*amoA*) genes from Crenarchaeota and

Betaproteobacteria in surface waters near Barrow, Alaska were almost two magnitudes greater in winter than in summer, with most or all Crenarchaeota likely being capable of ammonia oxidation.

In addition to chemoautotrophic contributions to DIC uptake in oxygenic waters, all heterotrophic bacteria are thought to be able to assimilate bicarbonate via pathways involved in anaplerotic reactions of the tricarboxylic acid cycle. However, carbon fixation by heterotrophs via anaplerotic reactions is assumed to only account for 1-8% of bacterial biomass production (67, 68) and thus, play only a minor role in DIC uptake. In contrast, ammonium additions failed to stimulate bicarbonate assimilation on a per cell basis leading Alonso-Sáez *et al.* (27) to conclude that the high rates of bicarbonate assimilation they observed in their seawater cultures resulted from dark carbon fixation by heterotrophs. Dark carbon fixation therefore does not appear restricted to deeper waters and has the potential to be an essential survival strategy for heterotrophs, chemoautotrophs, mixotrophs, and other organisms in the microbial loop that rely on archaeal and bacterial production during the Arctic winter.

To determine the extent that dark-carbon fixation is a significant aspect of community ecology during the Arctic winter, specifically for those microorganisms that are primarily heterotrophic, additional research is needed. To start, quantification of the *in situ* rates of bicarbonate uptake by bacteria and archaea in the dark is essential (e.g.,(69)). Preliminary data from our study area during January suggest an *in situ* bicarbonate uptake rate of 0.09 μ g-C L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (SE Baer, DA Bronk, unpublished data), which is similar to rates observed by L. Alonso-Sáez (personal communication) in the Canadian Beaufort Sea and within the range for reported heterotrophic production rates

in the Arctic in winter and spring (70, 71). These scarce uptake measurements suggest that dark carbon fixation may be notable for marine Arctic ecosystems during winter and highlight the need for additional observations. Given this, the phylogenetic diversity of labeled bacterial populations in ¹⁵N-urea and ¹³C-bicarbonate SIP experiment, it appears that this process could also be an important bacterial survival strategy in Arctic seawater during the winter. Future investigations of Arctic urea driven ammonium oxidation and carbon fixation dynamics should therefore consider both bacterial and archaeal plankton components.

The current study, in conjunction with discoveries made by others, continues to call our attention to several unresolved questions, such as: How widespread is a seasonal shift in ammonium and urea utilization? Do ambient resources have a role in regulating N utilization in the Arctic? What is the capacity and rate of dark DIC assimilation by heterotrophic bacteria? How does this metabolism influence other members of the ecosystem such as bacteriovores, especially in oligotrophic environments like the Arctic in winter? And, what is the role of dark carbon fixation in the energy and carbon budget of the world's oceans? It was only recently that ammonia-oxidizing archaea were identified as key players, capable of dark carbon fixation in oxygenic mesopelagic environments. The above questions remain poorly addressed for aerobic chemoautotrophs, mixotrophs, and heterotrophs. Recent methodological advances with DNA-SIP, RNA-SIP, lipid-SIP, MAR-CARDFISH and metagenomics have promise to help us resolve the importance of dark carbon fixation in oxygenated waters on a seasonal basis in the Arctic Ocean or on global scales and to deepen our

understanding of life-history strategies adapted for survival in resource limited environments.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank Q. N. Roberts, K. Sines and R. E. Sipler for fieldwork. We also thank M. P. Sanderson for running mass spectrometry samples. This work would not have been possible without the guidance and support of the UMIAQ support team, led by B. France, and the support by the United States National Science Foundation grants OCE 0961900, ARC 0910252, and ARC 0909839.

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TABLES

Table 1. Concentrations and uptake rates of ammonium (NH_4^+) , nitrate (NO_3^-) and urea in near-shore waters of the Alaskan Arctic during January (winter) and August (summer). Uptake rates were determined with GF/F filters (nominal pore size of 0.7 μ m). Where the standard deviation (SD) is noted as not available (n.a.) it implies that n=1 for that measurement.

		Summer		Winter	
Parameter	Unit	concentration or rate	SD	concentration or rate	SD
$\rm NH_4^+$ concentration	nmol N L ⁻¹	590	60	960	23
NH4 ⁺ uptake	nmol N L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	5.78	0.34	0.19	0.1
${\rm NH_4}^+$ regeneration	nmol N L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	38.2	3.15	10.5	5.2
NO ₃ ⁻ concentration	nmol N L ⁻¹	290	n.a.	9,855	1.4
NO ₃ ⁻ uptake	nmol N L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	0.82	0.69	0.14	0
Urea concentration	nmol N L ⁻¹	230	2.9	157	1.9
Urea uptake	nmol N L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	0.99	n.a.	0.01	0

Table 2. Percent isotopic labeling of DNA with ¹⁵N or ¹³C calculated from qPCR data of SIP fractions. Bold percentages are above the 30% and 15% thresholds used to define ¹⁵N- and ¹³C-substrate uptake, respectively.

Kingdom	Season	Substrate	% Incorporation
Bacteria	Summer	¹⁵ N-NH ₄	31
Bacteria	Summer	¹⁵ N-NO ₃ ⁻	-4
Bacteria	Summer	¹⁵ N-Urea	-2
Archaea	Summer	¹⁵ N-NH ₄	31
Archaea	Summer	¹⁵ N- NO ₃ ⁻	-5
Archaea	Summer	¹⁵ N-Urea	2
Bacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N-NH ₄	9
Bacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N- NO ₃ ⁻	6
Bacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	30
Archaea	Winter	¹⁵ N-NH ₄	23
Archaea	Winter	¹⁵ N- NO ₃ ⁻	17
Archaea	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	35
Bacteria	Winter	¹³ C-bicaronate	17
Archaea	Winter	¹³ C-bicaronate	18

Table 3. Percent isotopic labeling of DNA with ¹⁵N or ¹³C derived from 16S rRNA gene sequenced data obtained for SIP fractions of winter samples. Bold percentages are \geq 30% and 15%, the thresholds used to define ¹⁵N- and ¹³C-substrate uptake, respectively.

Kingdom	Division/Family	Season	Substrate	% Incorporation
Archaea	Crenarchaeota	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	31
Bacteria	Actinobacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	17
Bacteria	Bacteroidetes	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	22
Bacteria	Firmicutes	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	31
Bacteria	Planctomycetes	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	22
Bacteria	Verrucomicrobia	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	12
Bacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	20
Bacteria	Betaproteobacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	33
Bacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	25
Bacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Winter	¹⁵ N-Urea	23
Archaea	Crenarchaeota	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	22
Bacteria	Actinobacteria	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	14
Bacteria	Bacteroidetes	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	12
Bacteria	Firmicutes	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	17
Bacteria	Planctomycetes	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	14
Bacteria	Verrucomicrobia	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	12
Bacteria	Alphaproteobacteria	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	18
Bacteria	Betaproteobacteria	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	15
Bacteria	Deltaproteobacteria	Winter	¹³ C-bicarbonate	18
Bacteria	Gammaproteobacteria	Winter	13C-bicarbonate	15

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Phylogenetic analysis of archaeal (A & B) and bacterial (C & D) 16S rRNA gene sequences for arctic summer (A&C) and winter (B & D) seasons. PCR products were barcoded and sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq platform. Operational Taxonomic Units (OTU) were defined at the 95% identity level for bacteria. Representative sequences from each OTU were chosen at random and their phylogenetic affiliations were determined using QIIME (47). Underlined taxa indicate phylum (division) level classification. Non-underlined taxa are family level assignments (not all are shown).

Figure 2. Shown are examples of qPCR analysis of SIP gradient fractions for bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA gene copies. Relative quantities detected in each fraction are shown as a function of density. All data are normalized to the highest observed quantities and are hence shown as a ratio, where 1 equals the highest observed value. Error bars indicate one standard deviation calculated from three replicate qPCR measurements. The horizontal lines indicates the threshold above which quantities were integrated to calculate average DNA density and percent incorporation. (A) Comparison of winter and summer ¹⁴N-urea ($^{\circ}$) and ¹⁵N-urea ($^{\circ}$) are treatments. (B) Dark carbon fixation SIP experiment showing ¹²C-bicarbonate ($^{\circ}$) and ¹³C-bicarbonate ($^{\bullet}$) treatments for bacteria and archaea respectively.

FIGURES

Figure 1



Figure 2

A



B



Chapter 2: Transcriptome Analysis of *Scrippsiella trochoidea* CCMP 3099 Reveals Physiological Changes Related to Nitrate Depletion

This chapter has been published essentially in this form in Frontiers in Microbiology and is formatted in accordance to journal specifications. The paper can be located under the following citation:

Cooper Joshua T., Sinclair, Geoff A., Wawrik, Boris. 2016. Transcriptome Analysis of *Scrippsiella trochoidea* CCMP 3099 Reveals Physiological Changes Related to Nitrate Depletion. Frontiers in Microbiology,7:639. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2016.00639.

Author contributions to the Frontiers in Microbiology paper:

JTC, GS, and BW contributed to experimental design. JTC conducted the experiments, analyzed the data and took the lead in preparing the manuscript. BW and GS contributed to data analysis and manuscript preparation. The work was supported through NSF grant OCE 0961900 and a grant from the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation to BW.

Abstract

Dinoflagellates are a major component of marine phytoplankton and many species are recognized for their ability to produce harmful algal blooms (HABs). Scrippsiella trochoidea is a non-toxic, marine dinoflagellate that can be found in both cold and tropic waters where it is known to produce "red tide" events. Little is known about the genomic makeup of S. trochoidea and a transcriptome study was conducted to shed light on the biochemical and physiological adaptations related to nutrient depletion. Cultures were grown under N and P limiting conditions and transcriptomes were generated via RNAseq technology. *De novo* assembly reconstructed 107,415 putative transcripts of which only 41% could be annotated. No significant transcriptomic response was observed in response to initial P depletion, however, a strong transcriptional response to N depletion was detected. Among the down-regulated pathways were those for glutamine/glutamate metabolism as well as urea and nitrate/nitrite transporters. Transcripts for ammonia transporters displayed both up- and down-regulation, perhaps related to a shift to higher affinity transporters. Genes for the utilization of DON compounds were up-regulated. These included transcripts for amino acids transporters, polyamine oxidase, and extracellular proteinase and peptidases. N depletion also triggered down regulation of transcripts related to the production of Photosystems I & II and related proteins. These data are consistent with a metabolic strategy that conserves N, while maximizing sustained metabolism by emphasizing the relative contribution of organic N sources. Surprisingly, the transcriptome also contained transcripts potentially related to secondary metabolite production, including a homolog to the Short Isoform Saxitoxin gene (sxtA) from Alexandrium fundyense,

which was significantly up-regulated under N-depletion. A total of 113 unique hits to Sxt genes, covering 17 of the 34 genes found in *C. raciborskii* were detected, indicating that *S. trochoidea* has previously unrecognized potential for the production of secondary metabolites with potential toxicity.

Introduction

Harmful algal blooms (HABs) are a natural phenomenon (Hallegraeff, 1993; Granéli and Turner, 2006b), yet HAB frequencies and apparent ecological pervasiveness have increased within the last several decades. The formation of blooms occurs through the intersection of physical, chemical, and biological processes that are often specific to the HAB species (Paerl, 1988;Granéli and Turner, 2006a). Global prevalence and expansion of harmful algal blooms (HABs) appear, at least in some cases, to be linked to anthropogenic organic and inorganic nutrient loading into estuarine and coastal regions (Glibert et al., 2006; Anderson et al., 2008; Howarth, 2008). Agricultural runoff from the usage of inorganic nitrogen (nitrate and ammonium) has been shown to promote large phytoplankton algal blooms in the Gulf of California (Beman et al., 2005). Inorganic nitrogen has also been shown to promote many HABs as well as organic sources of nitrogen such as urea, glutamine, glycine and amino acids (Baden and Mende, 1979; Mulholland et al., 2002; Dyhrman and Anderson, 2003; Glibert and Legrand, 2006;Cochlan et al., 2008;Kudela et al., 2008). Similarly, HABs also have ways to incorporate organic forms of phosphate using secreted ectoenzymes (alkaline phosphatase) to hydrolyze the organic-P back to inorganic-P for uptake (Sakshaug et al., 1984;Dyhrman, 2005).

While some HAB occurrences appear to be strongly linked to nutrients, others show limited connections (Anderson et al., 2008). Instead, it appears that HAB dynamics exhibit complex relationships with biotic and abiotic factors. The strength of nutrient-HAB relationships are complicated by the variability in HAB adaptations to differing nutrient and light regimes (Smayda, 1997). In addition, many HAB species, such as some dinoflagellates, are capable of switching their dependence on strict photoautrophy to mixotrophy by feeding on bacteria, algae (Jeong et al., 2005a;Jeong et al., 2005b), or organic N and P from decaying fish killed by the bloom and zooplankton excretions (Vargo et al., 2008). In areas where nutrients limit growth, dinoflagellates may also migrate vertically to nutrient rich sediments to uptake dissolved N (Sinclair et al., 2006b;a;Sinclair and Kamykowski, 2008) thus alleviating nutrient stress. Given this, significant questions remain about the way in which many HAB species adapt to environmental variability at the molecular and cellular level, the way in which they conserve and utilize diverse dissolved organic and inorganic nutrients as resources are depleted during peak bloom conditions, and how requisite cellular mechanisms are controlled in the context of bloom persistence.

Dinoflagellates are a major component of marine phytoplankton and many species are recognized as toxin producing HABs (Smayda, 1997). Dinoflagellates bloom dynamics involve a complicated life cycle that includes stages of vegetative growth, sexual reproduction, and formation resting cysts (Xiao et al., 2003;Granéli and Turner, 2006a). Non-toxin producing dinoflagellates are less well studied than their toxic counterparts, but can frequently be as devastating to local fisheries via the formation of high-density, high-biomass blooms that result in hypoxia (Horner et al., 1997). *Scrippsiella trochoidea* is a non-toxic, marine dinoflagellate that can be found in both cold and tropic waters where it is known to produce "red tide" events. *Scrippsiella* blooms have been reported extensively from China (Qin et al., 1997;Wang et al., 2007;Zinssmeister et al., 2011), coasts of Japan, Northern Europe, Mediterranean Gulf, Southern Atlantic of Namibia (Montresor et al., 1998;Gottschling et al., 2005;Spatharis

et al., 2009), Southern Gulf of Mexico (Licea et al., 2002), and the coastal United States (Zinssmeister et al., 2011). *Scrippsiella* blooms can become high in cell density and can lead to oxygen depletion resulting in fish kills (Hallegraeff, 1992).

The interplay between inorganic nutrients and S. trochoidea bloom formation appears complex. For example, a bloom of S. trochoidea in a semi-enclosed bay near Hong Kong maintained high cellular densities in the face of low inorganic nutrients (N, P, Si, metals), and bloom formation could not be stimulated via nutrient addition (Yin et al., 2008). Modeling instead suggests that diel vertical migration of S. trochoidea, and wind/tidal currents can cause convergences where cells are concentrated by physical forces even when waters are nutrient depleted (Lai and Yin, 2014). It has also been suggested that HABs may succeed in the wake of preceding nutrient depleting blooms of other phytoplankton species, allowing species adapted to low nutrient concentrations or feeding on bacteria or organic pools to thrive. S. trochoidea was traditionally considered to be strictly a photoautrophic dinoflagellate, however, experimental feeding studies have shown S. trochoidea to be mixotrophic, ingesting organic matter or prey including other dinoflagellates, cryptophytes (Jeong et al., 2005b), diatoms (Du Yoo et al., 2009) and bacteria (Jeong et al., 2005a). In fact most photoautrophic dinoflagellates are now thought to be capable of mixotrophy(Jeong et al., 2005b).

Here, we present a transcriptomic analysis of *S. trochoidea* CCMP 3099, using RNA-seq, designed to examine the effects of nitrogen limitation on gene expression. The purpose of the study was threefold. First, the study was part of the Marine Microbial Eukaryote Transcriptome Sequencing Project (MMETSP) (Keeling et al., 2014), which, in part, aimed to characterize the diversity of protein coding genes in a

broad diversity of marine algae. Dinoflagellates have some of the largest known genomes in nature as well as a high estimated genomic repeat content, which has made their genomes poor candidates for previous sequencing efforts. As a consequence, little is known about their complement of protein coding genes. Second, we investigated the transcriptional response triggered by N and P exhaustion, hypothesizing that regulation of gene expression would be in line with physiological adaptations related to nutrient limitation observed in other algal groups. Lastly, the genetic potential for toxin production was investigated by via an analysis of the transcriptome for the presence of transcripts encoding genes involved secondary metabolite production.

Materials and Methods

Culture Conditions

Non-axenic cultures of Scrippsiella trochoidea CCMP 3099 were obtained from the National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (Provasoli-Guillard NCMA, Boothbay Harbor, ME). Cells were maintained in L1 (Guillard and Ryther, 1962;Guillard et al., 1973;Guillard and Hargraves, 1993) seawater media using 0.45 µm filtered, autoclaved natural seawater obtained from the Gulf of Mexico at 33 ppt salinity, which was stored in the dark and aged for at least 3 months. Cultures were grown in a light incubator at 23-24 °C and 30-40 µmol quanta m⁻²s⁻¹ on a 12-h light:12h dark cycle. Prior to the experiment, cells were grown to early stationary phase in 350 mL of L1 media and served as the inoculum for the nutrient trials at a 1:10 dilution. Concentrations of nitrate and nitrite were determined using the method of (Miranda et al., 2001), which relies on the reduction of nitrate to nitrite with Vanadium(III). Nitrite in V-treated and untreated seawater was then quantified via the addition of acidic Greiss regent and spectrophotometric detection at 535nm. Phosphate concentrations were determined colorimetrically as per Grasshoff (Grasshoff et al., 1983). Nutrient depletion rates were calculated as the difference in concentration between sequential time points divided by time ($\Delta C/t$). The three treatments included the control (nutrient replete), nitrogen-limited, and phosphorus-limited and were run as static batches. To evaluate nutrient depletion responses in S. trochoidea, cultures were set up by modifying the ratio of available N to P. N:P ratios were modified so that cultures would grow into either exhaustion of N or P with roughly similar incubation times. Replete conditions were defined as the normal L1 media containing 880 μ M NaNO₃ and 36 μ M NaH₂PO₄

(N:P ratio 24:1). Nitrogen-limited cells were started with an N:P ratio of 4:1 using 146 µM nitrate and 36 µM phosphate. Phosphorus-limited were started with a higher N:P ratio of 40:1, with nitrogen kept at replete levels (880 μ M) and phosphate at 22 μ M. Experimental cultures were grown in larger 1 L volumes of L1 medium in 2500 mL Pyrex Fernbach flasks (10 inch bottom diameter; <1 inch medium) without shaking. All treatment flasks were gently mixed daily during the course of the experiment to eliminate possibility of either carbon limitation or patchy nutrient distribution within the Fernbach flask. Cell counts were generated daily to monitor growth by preservation with 1% formalin (v/v) and counting via light microscopy as well as using a Hemocytometer. Growth rates were calculated by using standard growth equations for exponential growth (Guillard, 1973). After sampling, cultures were transferred to new sterile culture flasks (150 ml volumes). The remainder of the N- and P-limited cultures were split, where one of the resulting sub-samples, respectively, was incubated under continued nutrient deplete conditions, while the other treatment was reconstituted to the original nitrate (N-deplete) or phosphate (P-deplete) concentration by nutrient addition (Figure 1).

RNA Isolation

Nutrient concentrations were monitored daily. Once nitrate or phosphorous dropped below detection limits (~1 μ M for phosphate, and ~0.1 μ M for nitrate), cultures were allowed to continue growth for an additional 24 hours to encourage complete depletion of the respective nutrients in culture medium and reduce the potential impact of residual nitrogen/phosphorus stored in vacuoles. All treatments were harvested during the mid-exponential growth phase six hours into the 12-hour light cycle. Cells

were gently filtered in 25-50 mL aliquots onto 3 µm Durapore (Millipore) membrane filters at 5 PSI negative pressure to minimize cell lysis. The 3 µm filters have pore sizes sufficiently small enough to capture dinoflagellate cells, while allowing a large portion of bacterioplankton to pass through the filter. Filters were immediately transferred to 2mL screw cap tube containing 750 µL RLT buffer (QIAGEN, Valencia CA) and ca. 50 mg of muffled glass beads (Biospek, Bartlesville, OK), frozen using liquid N₂, and stored at -80°C until extraction. All samples for all treatments were taken within a 30 minutes window to reduce the potential effect of diel variations. For extraction, filters were thawed and cells were lysed by bead beating using a Mini-Bead Beater (BioSpec Products, Bartlesville, OK). Two rounds of beating were conducted at maximum speed for 2 minutes, placing tubes on ice for 2 minutes between steps. Cellular debris and filters were removed by centrifugation at 14,000 x g for 1 min. The supernatants were transferred to QIAshredder (Qiagen, CA, USA) columns to remove residual cellular debris. Total RNA was then extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, CA, USA) according to the manufacturers protocol. Genomic DNA bound to the column was removed using an on-column RNase-free DNase I digestion protocol (Qiagen, Valencia CA, USA) as recommended by the manufacturer.

RNA Library Preparation and Sequencing

RNA samples were quantified via a Qubit BR Single Stranded RNA Kit (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY). Qualities as well as RNA integrity were also assessed using the Aglient 210 Bioanalyzer. Library preparation and sequencing were performed by the National Center for Genomic Research (NCGR). Illumina TruSeq RNA sample preparation started from 2 µg of total RNA. The TruSeq protocol selects for mRNA by using a poly-T primer for bead capture and subsequent reverse transcription, limiting both ribosomal rRNA and prokaryotic mRNA contamination in the final sequence libraries. After bead capture and cDNA synthesis, libraries were generated by sheering fragments to an average 200-300 bp insert size. Three separate cDNA libraries were sequenced with an Illumina HiSeq200 (Illumina, USA). The original sequence data can be obtained from the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under the accession numbers SRX551166, SRX551167, SRX551168 with MMETSP IDs of MMETSP0270, MMETSP0271, MMETSP0272 corresponding to the replete, nitrogen deplete, and phosphate deplete treatments.

De novo Transcriptome Assembly

Several de Bruijn graph assemblers for RNAseq transcriptome reconstruction were assessed (data not shown) including Trinity, Velvet/Oases, and Abyss/Trans-Abyss (Birol et al., 2009;Simpson et al., 2009). Among the tested assembly algorithms, ABySS/Trans-ABySS performed best at reconstructing full-length domains of highly conserved sequences, via repeated blastx (NCBI, blastx) queries. Raw Illumina reads were processed post-sequencing by NCGR to remove adapters. The trimmed read data provided by NCGR, still contained potential adapter artifacts and reads were therefore further processed in house to remove remaining residual adapters using Trimmomatic v.32 (Bolger et al., 2014). Reads were then quality trimmed to remove low quality nucleotides with quality scores <20. The *de novo* transcriptome of *S. trochoidea* was assembled by pooling data from all treatments together. Sequences were assembled using ABySS (v. 1.3.7; (Birol et al., 2009;Simpson et al., 2009) at fifteen different *kmer* settings ranging between 20 to 50 (stepwise increment of 2). The 'erode' flag was

set to zero and the number of pairs to consider a contig was set to ten with scaffolding turned off as described elsewhere (Birol et al., 2009; Simpson et al., 2009). The multiple *k-mer* strategy was chosen as several studies have shown that small *k*-mer values can recover more short transcripts and are likely to be assembled while at larger k-mer values, fewer but longer transcripts are assembled (Surget-Groba and Montoya-Burgos, 2010). Large k-mers however enhance the possibility of closing gaps in shorter k-mer contigs, and thus a hybrid approach may recover complete fragments. Trans-ABySS version 1.4.8 (Robertson et al., 2010) was used to merge contigs from each single k-mer assembly into a final set of contigs. Trans-ABySS is a conservative merging algorithm, resulting in high redundancy. Contigs were therefore further collapsed and extended using the overlap consensus assembler CAP3 (Huang and Madan, 1999). Further CD-HIT-EST (v4.6; (Li and Godzik, 2006)) was applied as per the manual instructions for clustering expressed sequence tags so that smaller sequences with >90% identity to larger contig sequences would be collapsed. Previous studies of dinoflagellate transcripts suggest the possibility of many copies for individual genes (Bachvaroff et al., 2004; Hackett et al., 2004; Patron et al., 2005; Patron et al., 2006). Without a reference genome the approach taken here is likely a conservative underestimation of the true transcript diversity. To remove residual rRNA signal, blastn (Camacho et al., 2009) was used to compare reads to the SILVA Large Subunit (LSU build 115) and Small Subunit (SSU build 115) databases. Any read that matched a sequence in the SILVA databases with e-values $<1e^{-50}$ was removed.

Transcriptome Annotation

All contigs were searched using blastx (e < 1e-5) against the NCBI-NR, UniprotKB/Swiss-Prot, and UniprotKB/TREMBL databases. Annotation was conducted as outlined in (De Wit et al., 2012). Briefly, blastx hits are parsed for best hits, skipping hits for "hypothetical" or "unknown" proteins in favor of more descriptive terms. GO terms are assigned from Uniprot searches (De Wit et al. 2012). The pipeline also outputs Kyoto Encyclopedia of Gene and Genomes (KEGG) annotations. Krona was used to explore the taxonomy of hits to the NCBI-NR database and used to create Krona plots (Ondov et al., 2011). KEGG mapper (http://www.genome.jp/kegg/mapper.html) was used to examine KEGG biochemical pathway maps for critical pathways such as TCA cycle, Nitrogen Metabolism, Photosynthesis and to examine the overall global transcriptome.

To further annotate sequences with poor blastx hit descriptions or lacked a database match, we choose to implement additional searches using RPS-BLAST against the CDD databases (COG, KOG, PRK, SMART). For this, assembled contigs were translated into potential amino acid sequences using ORFpredictor (Min et al. 2005). ORFpredictor uses a blastx like strategy to search for the best ORF, and also orders contigs in same reading framings. Previous transcriptome studies have reported that ORFpredictor performs well at finding the correct reading frame in dinoflagellate transcriptomes (Jaeckisch et al., 2011). Translated potential proteins were also annotated using HMMER3 hmmsearch (http://hmmer.janelia.org) against PfamA and PfamB (http://pfam.sanger.ac.uk), and Tigrfam (http://www.jcvi.org/cgi-

bin/tigrfams/index.cgi) databases using the gathering thresholds for each model instead of an e-value threshold.

Analysis for transcriptome completeness

A lack of genome data for S. trochoidea makes it difficult to assess whether transcriptomes have been sequenced at sufficient depth. In genome sequencing projects, genome completeness is often assessed by mapping a transcriptome to the Core Eukaryotic Genes Mapping Approach (CEGMA) to estimate if core eukaryotic genes are present. As applied here, the core set of eukaryotic genes was based originally on the KOG (eukaryotic orthologous genes) refined to 458 core eukaryotic gene families (Parra et al., 2007). CEGMA was further developed to analyze those 248 ultraconserved core eukaryotic genes (CEGs) that are thought to be present in low copy numbers (Parra et al., 2009). The CEGMA output includes both complete orthologs as well as orthologs that are partial, and calculates a percent completeness for both partial and complete CEGs, in addition the average number of orthologs per family. In addition to S. trochoidea transcriptome data, the CEGMA pipeline was also used to analyze previous public datasets downloaded from the NCBI Transcriptome Sequencing Archive, and genomes from JGI-DOE Genome portal that included dinoflagellates and other algae, which share close phylogenetic relationship to dinoflagellates.

Read Mapping and Quantification of Gene Expression

The quality filtered, trimmed and rRNA free, paired-end fastq reads were mapped and aligned to the final transcriptome assembly using Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) and Samtools (Li et al., 2009). Bowtie2 was run with the "-sensitive", "-no-mixed", "no-discordant" parameters in "end-to-end" mode to only map reads that were paired properly and read counts were obtained using HTseq Count program (http://www.huber.embl.de/users/anders/HTSeq/) using "union" mode as the method to eliminate multi-mapping and transcripts that cover more than one contig. Examination of the transcriptome reveals fragmented genes and potential gene families. The resolution of the *de novo* transcriptome is limited to gene level and not isoform level quantification. Redundancy in *de novo* transcriptome assemblies may be artificial via the *k*-mer assembly strategy and could represent "real transcript variants/isoforms", however the more conservative approach to collapse variants/isoforms was applied here. We note here that collapsing unigenes may lead to some loss of signal for differentially expressed paralogs. Raw counts were then used as input into the R package DESeq to detect differentially expressed genes, following the "without replicates" as outline in (Anders and Huber, 2010) and the DESeq manual. To estimate dispersion between samples without replicates, the method "blind", and sharingMode set to "fit-only". Only genes with adjusted p-values smaller than 0.1 (representing false discovery rate) were deemed differentially expressed (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

Functional Enrichment

Functional enrichment of gene ontology was estimated using Fishers Exact test in topGO using the parent-child analysis to determine if genes identified as differential expressed were also enriched in biological processes, cellular components, and molecular function (Alexa and Rahnenfuhrer, 2010). The adjusted p-values from the DESeq model of the replete vs. N-limited was used, as there were a number of genes identified as differentially expressed via the Benjamin Hochenberg adjusted p-value < 0.05. The node size was 10, and a p-value < 0.05 was applied to call GO categories as

significantly enriched. Only those nodes that were less than p-value of 0.01 are summarized.

Analysis of Secondary Metabolite Genes

Blast analysis (blastx and blastp; e-values < 1e-5) was used to compare S. trochoidea transcriptome sequences with the NCBI NR database, as well as sequence datasets from other algae, including dinoflagellates. For phylogenetic analysis (Figure 5), a subset of sequences was retrieved from the database, which included best database hits, as determined by blast, as well as more distantly related, representative sequences for comparison. Protein sequences were aligned using MAFFT version 7.157b (Katoh and Standley, 2013), and trimmed using trimAL with the "automated1" setting optimized for Maximum Likelihood reconstruction (Capella-Gutiérrez et al., 2009). The alignment was checked manually using SeaView 4 (Gouy et al., 2010) and all gap, and sites with sparse numbers of potential homologous amino acids were removed. The alignment was then further evaluated for the best amino acid substitution model using ProtTest 3(Darriba et al., 2011), which suggested a model with LG+GAMMA. RAxML-SSE version 8 (Stamatakis, 2014) was used to reconstruct a maximum likelihood tree. The PROTGAMMALG setting in RAxML was used to search for the best tree in 100 searches, and subsequently calculated 100 bootstraps values. Additionally the search method of (Hackett et al., 2013) was applied using protein sequences from Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii T3 saxitoxin biosynthesis cluster (Kellmann et al., 2008) to query to the un-translated S. trochoidea transcriptome using BLAST (tblastn, e-value < 1e-5) to identify additional Sxt genes in the transcriptome. In addition, secondary metabolite gene prediction was conducted via antiSMASH

(Medema et al., 2011).

Results

Culture Conditions

During mid-log growth, cultures were depleting ca. 25 μ M Day⁻¹ nitrate and 3.5 μ M Day⁻¹ phosphate from the culture media (Figure 1, Figure 2). Given that the detection limits for the N and P assays utilized here ($\sim 1 \mu$ M), the assumption was made that residual nutrients were insufficient to maintain additional consumption 24 hours after nutrient levels dropped below the limit of detection, and that a physiological response related to N and P depletion should be observed. Maximum growth rates for all three treatments were highest on day 3 with a maximum of 0.86 divisions per day for replete, 0.73 (d^{-1}) for N-limited, and 0.91 (d^{-1}) for P-limited treatments, respectively. Specific growth rates declined after day 3 in all cultures, as cell concentrations increased toward stationary phase and concomitant depletion of inorganic N and P. Immediately after sampling, the remaining culture volume (ca. 300 ml) was split into two equal volume sub-cultures, one of which was spiked with either 300 µM nitrate (for N-limited cultures) or 25 μ M phosphate (for P-limited cultures) to demonstrate that growth would resume if limitation was relieved. In spiked flasks, cultures resumed rapid depletion for dissolved nutrients (Figure 1). The unspiked, N-limited culture continued to decline exhibiting net cell death, supporting the notion that the culture was indeed starved for N (Figure 2). Un-spiked P-limited cultures were able to maintain, albeit slow, growth suggesting that cells were not truly P-limited. In addition, measurable phosphate concentrations appeared to increase at and beyond the time of sampling in the P-limited culture (Paired t-test, t = -2.46, df=2, p=0.1331) (Figure 1). We note that cultures were transferred to a smaller culture flasks after sampling, which might have
affected culture behavior post transfer. Cultures were always maintained with high surface to volume ratios (large Fernbach flasks before sampling, and sideways incubated tissue culture flasks after sampling), to minimize impact of potential selfshading and light limitation.

General Transcriptome Features

The assembled transcriptome of *S. trochoidea* consists of 201.9 million base pairs (Mbp) of sequence represented by 205,934 contigs (Supplemental Table 3). Redundancy reduction was used to collapse sequence isoforms and assembly errors using CAP3 and CD-HIT-EST, collapsing transcripts into 107,473 contigs with total length of 125 Mbp (Supplemental Table 3). Of these, 58 contigs produced significant hits to the Silva SSU and LSU rRNA databases and were removed from subsequent analysis, leaving a dataset of 107,415 complete or partial protein coding gene sequences.

The blastx search of the NCBI-NR database yielded annotations for 41% of the total transcriptome. Of these, 93% were assigned to eukaryotes genes, 6% to Bacteria, and 0.4% to Archaea (Figure 3). Examination of hits within the Eukaryota showed that 50% could be assigned to Alveolata, 16% to the Stramenopiles, 11% to the Opisthokonta, 8% to Viridiplantae, while the remaining 15% belonged to a variety of less well represented clades. Most of the hit distribution within the largest group Alveolata yields most hits to *Perkinus marinus* (27%), Dinophyceae (16%), Apicomplexa (5%), and Ciliphora (5%). Blastx searches against Uniprot-SwissProt and Uniprot-TREMBL database yielded a combined 43,797 hits accounting for 40.1% of the total transcriptome as per De Wit (2012). This generated 43,785 annotated

transcripts. Of these, 16,148 transcripts could be assigned to enzymes in KEGG pathways, and 34,480 were assigned GO categories obtained from Uniprot-SwissProt. RPSblast with the conserved domain database (CDD) resulted in 31,725 contigs annotated with at least one CDD number, COG, Pfam or SMART identification.

Transcriptome Completeness

The potential protein coding content of *S. trochoidea* was estimated using the non-linear equation from (Hou and Lin, 2009), which estimates the number of protein coding genes by integrating genomic information from sequenced eukaryotic organisms and cellular DNA content. Typically, this number represents the haploid amount of DNA per cell, however, reports of genome size in *S. trochoidea* differ considerably, and *S. trochoidea* is known to make temporary cysts. Using values estimated by (Rizzo and Noodén, 1973) or (Shuter et al., 1983) of haploid cells at 17 or 34 pg DNA cell⁻¹ gives a general estimate that *S. trochoidea* may contain between 58,464 to 66,579 protein-coding genes.

Alternatively, the completeness of ultra-conserved and conserved eukaryotic genes was estimated using the CEGMA pipeline, which uses a database of 248 single-copy, ultra-conserved eukaryotic genes originally based on the original eukaryotic orthologous groups (KOGs) as a measure of genome completeness (Parra et al., 2009). The CEGMA pipeline predicted 210 ultra-conserved Core Eukaryotic Genes (CEG) in the *S. trochoidea* transcriptome and an average of 2.74 orthologs per complete CEG. Of detected CEGs, 80.95% had more than one ortholog in the transcriptome. If CEGs with partial predictions are included, the number of ultra-CEGs increases to 220, suggesting

that the transcriptome captures ca. 89% of the core genome in *S. trochoidea*, which is consistent with observations for other marine algae (*Supplemental Table 6*).

Low Phosphorus Treatment

The results from nutrient measurements and growth curves (Figures 1 & 2) indicate that cultures did not reach P-limitation by the time of sampling, even though phosphate concentrations had dropped below the limit of detection 24 hours before RNA collection. The absence of limitation is supported by DESeq analysis of the respective transcriptome data, which indicated that only 17 transcripts (<0.016%) were differentially expressed (p-adjusted < 0.1) (Figure 4b). Of these, 14 were down and 3 were up-regulated, while 12 were also significantly DE at an FDR=0.05. Eleven transcripts had matches in the database. Among the down-regulated transcripts were genes for sulfate transport, two homologs for fibrocystin-L, three genes for cell-wall binding proteins, and 3-dehydroquinate synthase. The only up-regulated transcript with a database match encodes the Photosystem Q(B) protein PsbA.

Differentially Expressed Genes under N-depletion

Analysis of the replete versus N-limited treatment using DESeq indicated that 382 transcripts were differentially expressed (DE) at a FDR=0.1. Of these, 215 could be functionally annotated. Among the differentially expressed genes, 178 were also significantly DE at an FDR=0.05. Of the 215 annotated DE genes, 107 were significantly down-regulated, and 108 were up-regulated in comparison to the replete control. DE transcripts were then clustered based on Biological Process and Molecular Function GO categories using topGO. Within each putative category, transcripts were ranked by Log₂-fold change, with values < 0 representing down-regulation and values >

0 representing up-regulation relative to the control (Tables 1). Analysis of the *S. trochoidea* transcriptome thereby demonstrates significant effects of nitrogen limitation on electron transport chain components, photosynthetic pathways, nitrogen, lipid, carbohydrate, and amino acid metabolism, as well as stress-related transcripts (Table 1), using the adjusted p-values of the DESeq model as input to the GO enrichment test with topGO and an adjusted-*p*-value < 0.01 revealed similar patterns.

Nitrogen Metabolism under N-depletion

The transcriptome contained genes for the transport and reduction of nitrate, as well as homologs of glutamine synthetase and glutamate synthases (GS-GOGAT) corresponding to nuclear and plastid versions of these enzymes (Figure 5). Worth noting is that the detected nitrite reductase transcript, which was most closely related to bacterial NAD(P)H nitrite reductases from the Flavobacteria Formosa agariphila KMM 3901 and Joostella marina DSM 19592 respectively. None of the primary nitrate assimilation genes were differentially expressed under N-limiting conditions. Several transcripts related to xanthine metabolisms (e.g. 10 contigs annotated as xanthine dehydrogenase), which have recently been proposed to be involved in N storage (Lin et al., 2015a), were detected and were highly but were not differentially expressed. Several nitrogen cycling pathway genes were significantly down-regulated, including two glutamine amindotransferase-like proteins, a urea transporter, arginase, glutamate dehydrogenase, nitrate/nitrite transporter and NADH dependent glutamate synthase. Genes most closely related to ammonia transporters displayed both up and downregulated expression, with four transcripts experiencing significant down-regulation and two having significantly increased expression levels. Among the up-regulated

transcripts related to N metabolism were genes for the uptake and degradation of proteins or amino acids such as uric-acid permease, xanthine-uracil permease, aspartyl aminopeptidase, polyamine oxidase, extracellular serine proteinase, aliphatic amidase expression-regulating protein, and oligopeptide transporter 6, while Leu/Ile/Val-binding proteins, and vacuolar amino acid transporter were down-regulated. Also among the DE genes were alkaline phosphatase, which was weakly up-regulated under N-depletion, as well as two contigs annotated as spore formation related proteins (spore coat protein A, subtilisin DY).

Photosynthesis and Cellular Respiration under N-depletion

In peridinin containing dinoflagellates such as *S. trochoidea*, the plastid genome has been reduced and mostly moved to the nuclear genome. Plastid DNA is therefore typically present as mini-circles that typically have only two functional genes (Hackett et al., 2004;Nisbet et al., 2004;Nisbet et al., 2008). The polyA-selection strategy was therefore able to retrieve multiple copies of all respective genes involved in the Calvin Cycle, and Photosynthesis (II and I), Cytochrome bc1 complex respiratory unit, and F-type ATPases. Under N-limiting conditions, genes representing transfer of electrons in Photosystems I & II (Photosystem II CP47, Photosystem I P700 A2, Photosystem I P700 A1, Photosystem II CP43, Photosystem II D2) along with addition members of the photosynthetic pathway (Photosystem Q, Cytochrome b6, Cytochrome b6-f complex subunit 4, Cytochrome b559, and Flavodoxin) were significantly down-regulated. This occurred in conjunction with the down-regulation of chloroplastic ATP synthase alpha and beta subunits and phototropin-2 related to chloroplast relocation. Genes involved in terpenoid biosynthesis, represented by 2 transcripts annotated as 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-

phosphate reductoisomerase, as well as genes related to carotenoid biosynthesis were up-regulated under N-deplete conditions. Conversely, transcripts related to chlorophyll biosynthesis were expressed at similar levels in both treatments. In addition to photosynthesis related genes, a down-regulation in transcripts pertaining cellular respiration and detoxification of reactive oxygen species was observed (Cytochrome c peroxidase, sodium/calcium exchanger in the mitochondrial membrane, Cytochrome b and Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1).

Carbohydrate and Lipid Metabolism under N-depletion

KEGG analysis indicates that the *S. trochoidea* transcriptome contains all requisite genes for the reductive pentose phosphate cycle, glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, glyoxylate cycle, galactose degradation, fatty acid biosynthesis (initiation, elongation), beta-oxidation, and the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA). Complete pathways for lipid metabolism of several compounds were detected, including triacylglycerol biosynthesis, acylglycerol degradation, ceramide and sphingosine biosynthesis, as well as sphingosine degradation. Also present is a complete set of transcripts necessary to biosynthesize glucose to UDP-glucose, and galactose to UDP-galatactose. The primary storage product in dinoflagellates is starch (Seo and Fritz, 2002;Lee, 2008;Dagenais Bellefeuille et al., 2014), and it has been shown that starch biosynthesis may begin with UDP-glucose in dinoflagellates (Deschamps et al., 2008). The transcriptome also suggests terpenoid biosynthesis of C5 isoprenoids via the non-mevalonate pathway. Transcripts related to carbohydrate catabolism of cellulose appear to be significantly up-regulated under N-depletion. These include beta-glucanase, 1,4-beta-D-glucan

cellobiohydrolase B, 1,4-beta-D-glucan cellobiohydrolase B, glucan 1,3-betaglucosidase, and Endoglucanase-5.

Secondary metabolite genes under N-depletion.

Blast analysis of the S. trochoidea transcriptome revealed several transcripts potentially related to secondary metabolite production, including a hit to the Short Isoform Saxitoxin gene (sxtA) from Alexandrium fundyense, which was up-regulated under N-depletion, as well as several additional polyketide synthases. Blast analysis (blastx and blastp; e-values < 1e-5) was used to compare *S. trochoidea* transcriptome sequences with the NCBI NR database, as well as sequence datasets from other algae, including dinoflagellates. In all, seven transcripts were annotated as "sxtA short isoform" in this manner. Five of these were longer than 200 amino acids and were phylogenetically analyzed (Figure 6). The discovery of a homolog to the sxtA genes in S. trochoidea prompted a search for the remainder of the saxitoxin biosynthetic cluster as described for Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii described by (Kellmann et al., 2008). All 34 annotated Sxt peptides from C. raciborskii were therefore tblastn (e-value<1e-05) searched against the S. trochoidea transcripts. A total of 136 contigs exhibited homology to the saxitoxin biosynthesis cluster. Of these, 113 were unique hits to Sxt genes, covering 17 of the 34 genes found in C. raciborskii, indicating that S. trochoidea appears to posses homologs to at least half of of the biosynthesis pathway involved in the synthesis of saxitoxin (Figure 7). Similarly, S. trochiodea also contains 12 Sxt homologs to those found in *Alexandrium tamarense* Group IV (Hackett et al., 2013).

Phylogenetic analysis revealed that *S. trochoidea sxtA*-like transcripts formed a well-supported clade with sequences from other dinoflagellates (Figure 6), and that

sequences originating *Aureococcus anophagefferens* appearing basal to dinoflagellate sequences. Cyanobacterial *sxtA* sequences clustered separately from dinoflagellates as has been shown previously (Hackett et al., 2013). Analysis of the Pfam annotation of putative *S. trochoidea* proteins and related sequences reveals the presence of a phosphopantetheine attachment site (PF00550). The *sxtA* short isoform of *A. fundyense* contains only a phosphopantetheine attachment site, while the "long" isoform also contain aminotransferase class I and II domains, which are absent in the transcript, detected in *S. trochoidea*.

In all, 235 putative polyketide synthase hits were detected in *S. trochoidea* when compared to *Emiliania huxleyi*, *Cryptosporidium parvum*, *Ostreococcus lucimarinus*, Ostreococcus tauri, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii and dinoflagellate annotated transcripts in NCBI. Secondary metabolite prediction by antiSMASH showed these putative PKS hits grouped into ten clusters. Three clusters represented Type I polyketide synthases, three clusters of non-ribosomal peptide synthases, and one cluster for hybrid non-ribosomal polyketide/polyketide synthase. Many of the contigs appears to have single beta-ketoacyl synthase (PKS KS) domains, single acyl carrier protein domains (ACP), and polyketide synthase acyl transferase domains (PKS AT). Contig 91643 was annotated as a Type I polyketide synthase and was characterized by acyl carrier protein (ACP), repeating beta-keto-acyl synthase (KS), followed by dehydratases (PKS DH), ketoreductase (PKS KR), and ending with enoylreductsae (PKS ER) and thioesterase (PKS TE). Contig 84599 also had several repeating domains of KS, KR, DH and ended with PKS ER and PKS TE. The remaining contigs were highly fragmented and contained single or multiple domains. Regardless, these data point to

significant potential to encode secondary metabolites in the *S. trochoidea* transcriptomes described here.

Discussion

General Transcriptome Features and Completeness

Gene expression in eukaryotes is subject to a range of control mechanisms such as the level of transcription, nuclear export, translation, and post-translational modification. It has been noted that a scarcity of transcriptional regulation exists in dinoflagellates (Lin, 2011). Similarly, proteomic analysis of *T. pseudonana* cultures have demonstrated a reduction of proteins related to nitrate reduction under N starvation even though they did not appear differentially expressed (Hockin et al., 2012), and posttranscriptional regulation in the presence of nitrate has been observed in *Cylindrotheca fusiformis* (Poulsen and Kröger, 2005). The present study may therefore underestimate the degree to which gene expression is modulated in *S. trochoidea*.

Though large, the size of *S. trochoidea*'s transcriptome is consistent with studies, which have reported ~49-118K transcripts for dinoflagellates (Bayer et al., 2012;Beauchemin et al., 2012;Zhang et al., 2014). Similarly, ~42,000 predicted coding genes have been observed from sequencing approximately half the nuclear genome of *Symbiodinium minutum* (Shoguchi et al., 2013), which is thought to represent a basal clade of dinoflagellates and contain a smaller genome than other dinoflagellate lineages, while ~36,000 coding genes were reported for an assembly of ~80% of the genome of *Symbodinium kawagutii* (Lin et al., 2015a). Analysis of ultra-conserved genes further indicates genome completeness of 85-89% indicating that transcriptomes described here are likely a good representation of the potential protein coding potential of *S. trochoidea*. Although selection of polyadenylated transcripts and size filtration were used to capture primarily eukaryotic poly-adenylated mRNA, some prokaryotic

ribosomal RNAs (rRNA) were detected in the transcriptome assembly. However, these represented <0.02% of reads. Assuming that the bacterial RNA pool was >95% ribosomal, it can be estimated that <0.05% of the transcriptomes analyzed here were of bacterial origin and that bacterial contamination is of minor importance. Nevertheless, the best blast hits of *S. trochoidea*'s predicted proteins are often related to bacteria and archaeal homologs. Closer inspection shows that these hits typically exhibit low identity (~20-48% amino acid similarity using blastx) and therefore likely arise as a consequence of the paucity of available protistan (eukaryotic) genomic data. Dinoflagellates also have unique and complex evolutionary histories of endosymbiosis, horizontal gene transfer, and vertical inheritance from both Bacteria and other Eukarya (Beauchemin et al., 2012;Wisecaver et al., 2013).

Approximately half of the transcriptome could be assigned annotations via comparison with NCBI-NR, and Uniprot-Swissprot/TREMBL databases. A lower percentage of assignments could be made via KEGG and KOG match annotations accounting for only approximately 28% and ~22% of transcripts respectively (Table 4), which is consistent with observations for other dinoflagellates (Jaeckisch et al., 2011;Bayer et al., 2012). The paucity of available protistian genome sequences makes annotating these unusual eukaryotes challenging, because sequence similarities to the databases records are frequently <40%, and it remains difficult to determine copy numbers or to identify isoforms. *S. trochoidea* 's transcriptome contains many examples of highly similar transcripts, but it remains unclear to what degree these are artifacts of the multi-*k*-mer assembly strategy. Dinoflagellates have been shown to contain multiple distinct gene copies using EST and Sanger sequencing (Okamoto et al.,

2001;Bachvaroff and Place, 2008), which do not suffer requisite assembly issues. The number of contigs reported here, therefore, is likely to be an over-estimate of the true diversity of proteins produced by *S. trochoidea*. Conversely, post-transcriptional processing and splicing may lead to assembled transcript diversity not reflected in the genome sequence. For example, homology among gene families and significant mRNA editing in dinoflagellates (Zhang and Lin, 2008) may produce unique *k*-mers that could produce spurious contigs. Also, 5'- spliced leader sequences produced by dinoflagellates (Zhang et al., 2007) may lead to artifacts, given that the de Bruin-graph depended assembly strategy is limited by *k*-mer diversity within reads, which may be narrow in the 5'-region of transcripts. Lastly, while it has been traditionally assumed that dinoflagellates genes have few introns, recent reports suggest that introns may be more wide spread than previously thought (Bachvaroff and Place, 2008;Orr et al., 2013;Shoguchi et al., 2013;Lin et al., 2015b).

Phosphorus Metabolism

A significant response to low P conditions was not observed in the sequenced transcriptome. Only 17 genes were differentially expressed with respect to the replete treatment, and these were not characteristic of classical phosphorus limitation known from other dinoflagellates (Dyhrman and Palenik, 1999;Morey et al., 2011). For example, alkaline phosphatase is an ectoenzyme that hydrolyzes organic phosphates into dissolved phosphate for subsequent uptake and is commonly used as an indicator of phosphate stress in dinoflagellates (Dyhrman and Palenik, 1999). In *S. trochoidea* alkaline phosphatase activity has been reported to be low in nutrient replete and high in P-deficient cells (Sakshaug et al., 1984). The transcriptome contains several homologs

to alkaline phosphatase, but these were not among the differentially expressed genes. Given this, all subsequent discussion focuses to the N-depletion experiment.

Nitrogen metabolism

S. trochoidea displayed classic N starvation characteristics common in photosynthetic eukaryotes, including chlorosis (vellowing of the culture) and downregulation of photosynthetic electron transport (Turpin, 1991; Morey et al., 2011). In addition, S. trochoidea experienced an up-regulation of genes related to amino acid catabolism and transport, consistent with increased processing and recycling of organic N compounds and remodeling of the internal metabolic pathways to compensate for the lack of external N. The observed connection between photosynthesis and N metabolism has long been recognized in green algae, diatoms, terrestrial plants (Turpin et al., 1988; Turpin, 1991), and the dinoflagellate Alexandrium minutum (Yang et al., 2010), where photo-acclimation through a reduction in photosystem reaction centers is linked to cells entering stationary-phase. Experiments described here were not designed to test exponential versus stationary-phase effects, and it is therefore difficult to separate the potential impact that growth phase responses may have played. However, both Nreplete as well as N-spiked cultures continued to grow past the sampling time, while Ndepleted cultures stagnated, indicating that S. trochoidea was likely not experiencing resource limitations other than those that were controlled for at the time of sampling.

Glutamine synthetase and glutamate synthase were among the significantly upregulated transcripts, indicating increased investment in cellular ammonium assimilation potential. In contrast, the detected transcripts for nitrate and nitrite transporters as well as nitrate and nitrite reductases were not differentially expressed.

This is in contrast to observations from diatoms, where nitrate and nitrite reductases are frequently up-regulated during N starvation. For example, in the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* nitrate assimilation genes including nitrate & nitrite reductase and ammonium transporters have been found up-regulated under N starvation (Maheswari et al., 2010). It should be noted that internal stores of nitrate/nitrite were not assessed in experiments described here and it is possible that these were not entirely depleted by the time of sampling. Phytoplankton replete with nutrients are known to luxury consume and store in excess nutrients in vacuoles (Reynolds, 2006;Lin et al., 2016). In dinoflagellates this is often coupled to behavioral adaptation, such as vertical migration into nutrient rich sediments, where N uptake can support growth in a more nutrient deplete photic zone (Sinclair et al., 2006b;Sinclair et al., 2009). However, it has been noted that *S. trochoidea* does not appear to luxury consume (Flynn et al., 1996), and it is therefore more likely that cells adapted to nitrate depletion by adjusting overall cellular N processing and potentially targeting organic N substrates (see discussion below).

Several ammonium transporters were detected and observed to be both up- and down-regulated in *S. trochoidea's* transcriptome. Typically, ammonium transporter activity is highly expressed under nitrogen limitation. For example, ammonia and nitrogen transporters were highly expressed under nitrogen limitation in *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*, and also in nitrogen-deficient media in the haptophyte *Isochrysis galbana* (Kang et al., 2007). Highest ammonium transporter mRNA was detected in nitrogen-starved *Cylindrothea fusiformis* (Hildebrand, 2005). In *S. trochoidea*, differential transcription of multiple ammonium transporters may reflect the utilization of ammonium transporters with differing affinity as is the case in *Cylindrotheca fusiformis*

(Hildebrand, 2005). Upregulation of ammonium transporters has also been reported in prior studies. For example, when *Karenia brevis* (Wilson clone) was nitrate limited, gene expression of type III glutamine synthetases, nitrate/nitrite transporters, and ammonium transporters were all significantly up-regulated (Morey et al., 2011). Similarly, transcriptome analysis of *Alexandrium fundyense* indicated that this organism can utilize ammonium, nitrate, nitrite, urea and potentially cyanate, and when cells were N-limited significant up-regulation of nitrogen transporters, nitrite reductase, and glutamine synthetase was observed (Zhuang et al., 2015). Moustafa et al. (2010) have observed differential gene expression in *Alexandrium tamarense* in response to N and P limitation, as well as the presence or absence of bacteria, and have noted that the presence of bacteria was perhaps the primary driver associated with these changes (Moustafa et al., 2010). Overall, however these data point to the interpretation that dinoflagellates are capable of incorporating many forms of dissolved inorganic and organic nitrogen sources to satisfy their N demand.

Transcriptome data presented here suggest that *S. trochoidea* may have remodeled cellular metabolism to make greater use of dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) compounds, pointing to increased importance of organic-N utilization under Nlimiting conditions. This notion is supported by the observation that one of the most highly differentially expressed transcripts was a proton-coupled amino acid transporter with high sequence identity to *Emiliania huxleyi* (Supplemental Table 9). In marine systems, DON production by microbes can be quite high (Bronk et al., 1994), and this is often mirrored by equally high uptake rates of recently produced DON (Bronk and Glibert, 1993). These observations indicate a tight coupling between the production and

consumption of a pool of labile DON that represents an important source of N to the phytoplankton and bacteria in the environment (Sipler and Bronk, 2015). The labile DON pool is composed of metabolites such as amino acids and nucleosides, which are easily integrated into cellular metabolism. The uptake of DON compounds would be facilitated by the observed remodeling of the cellular pathways to compensate for nitrogen flow by recycling amino acids and unconventional nitrogen storage products such as uracil/xanthine. For example, dinoflagellates may store N in the form of uric acid crystals, which could later be catabolized when the cell are stressed (Dagenais-Bellefeuille and Morse, 2013). Elevated expression of a putative xanthine/uracil/vitamin C permease is consistent with transcriptomes reported for *Scrippsiella trochoidea* (this study), A. anophagefferens and T. pseudonana (Mock et al., 2008; Wurch et al., 2011). While the functional diversity of xanthine permease-like enzymes is broad, they potentially aid in uptake of purines from the environment, and may serve as superior sources of nitrogen when limited. This is supported by a study of A. anophagefferens in which xanthine permease was high up-regulated when cells were N limited in both culture and field conditions (Wurch et al., 2014). Overall, it therefore appears that S. trochoidea may be well poised to benefit from the rapidly cycling DON pool in lieu of available DIN sources, at least when nitrate is initially depleted.

Carbon metabolism

Nitrogen stoichiometrically limits cellular biosynthesis given that it is a component of essential cellular building blocks including amino acids and nucleotides. Down-regulation of photosynthetic pathways may therefore serve to reduce cellular N demand. In conjunction with photosystem components (though not chl *a* metabolism),

genes involved in mitochondrial respiration and in quenching of reactive oxygen species (ROS) were down-regulated. This is consistent with an overall picture of modulated metabolic activity in S. trochoidea in response to N-depletion also observed in other algae. For example, N and P limitation in the toxic alga Prymnesium parvum were found to decrease cytochrome and light harvesting gene expression in stationary growth (Beszteri et al., 2012), while N-starvation leads to four-fold down-regulation of genes related to the light harvesting complex in *Emiliana huxleyi* (Dyhrman et al., 2006). A reduction in chlorophyll related to a decrease in the number of PSII reaction centers has also been observed in a range of other eukaryotic marine algae, including such as chlorophytes, diatoms, prymnesiophytes (Berges et al., 1996; Simionato et al., 2013) as well as Synechococcus (Görl et al., 1998; Simionato et al., 2013). Down regulation of transcripts in S. trochoidea encoding high-nitrogen containing proteins like the photosystem proteins may further reflect changes in cellular stoichiometry to conserve N resources. Proteomic studies of N-limitation in dinoflagellates have shown similar results to our observed transcriptome data with down-regulated processes like carbon fixation, photosynthesis (Lee et al., 2009;Zhang et al., 2015). Alternatively, down-regulations is perhaps a way to compensate for increases in cellular C:N ratios. Measurements in *Scrippsiella trochoidea* and *Alexandrium fundyense*, for example, have suggested increased ratios of particulate organic carbon (POC) to organic nitrogen (PON) under N limitation (Eberlein et al., 2016).

Secondary Metabolism

Prior studies of *S. trochoidea* have not noted toxic compounds found in other dinoflagellates. In fact, the perceived lack of toxicity is routinely cited as the basis for

using this organism as a non-toxic control when testing other dinoflagellates, such as *Alexandrium*, for toxin production (Hold et al., 2001;Smith et al., 2002). Contradictory to this assumption, two *S. trochoidea* isolates have been found to be lethal to Eastern Oysters and Northern Quahog larvae, though not to Sheepshead Minnows (Tang and Gobler, 2012), raising the potential of previously unrecognized toxicity. Tang and Gobler (2012) demonstrated that late exponential and stationary phase cultures induce greater mortality in juvenile shellfish than exponential growth cultures. Experimental treatments of bivalve larvae with live culture, dead (frozen, boiled), and cell-free supernatant suggested a physiochemical mechanisms of toxicity involving either secondary metabolites or chemical constituents from within the algae. The requisite toxic compounds or secondary metabolites have not been identified to date.

Saxitoxin is well known to occur in both Cyanobacteria and dinoflagellates (Hackett et al., 2013) and the presence of saxitoxin was correlated with the detection of the *sxtA* genes by PCR in strains of *Alexandrium tamarense* (Stüken et al., 2011), although *sxtA* genes were also detected in strains in which toxin was not found. Other non-toxic and toxic dinoflagellates also appear to have partial saxitoxin pathways, though it appears that homologs of the C-terminal of *sxtA* and *sxtG* genes are exclusively associated with toxic strains (Hackett et al., 2013). Contigs annotated as *sxtA* in *S. trochoidea* did not include a C-terminus with an aminotransferase domain, suggesting that *S. trochoidea* likely does not produce traditional saxitoxin. The transcriptome also contains several homologs to non-ribosomal peptide synthases (NRPS), and hybrid polyketide/NRPS genes, suggesting previously unrecognized secondary metabolism. A bacterial source of requisite PKS/NRPS sequences cannot be

completely excluded, given that PKS genes have previously been correlated with bacterial presence in dinoflagellate cultures (Snyder et al., 2005), but is unlikely here given selection for eukaryotic mRNA (see discussion above). Their potential involvement in toxicity remains unclear, given that it is quite difficult to ascertain toxicity from gene sequences alone. A detailed metabolite analysis of *S. trochoidea* may therefore be warranted to identify potential toxic secondary metabolites as well as previously unrecognized toxins similar to saxitoxin.

Conclusion

Data collected through the MMETSP project (Keeling et al., 2014) are a valuable resource for the interpretation of molecular datasets collected from the environment. Here we describe the most complete transcriptome of the high-density bloom forming *Scrippsiella trochoidea* to date and demonstrate that transcript abundances are significantly affected by N availability. Overall, observations point to *S. trochoidea*'s ability to flexibly adapt to variations in N availability. These adaptations likely play a central role in near coastal environments where DIN sources are rapidly depleted in bloom conditions. The ability of *S. trochoidea* to switch to a resource utilization pattern that includes DON compounds may help sustain blooms and serve as a model for other persistent red tide events. Transcriptome data further suggests that *S. trochoidea* needs to be reevaluated for the potential to produce toxic secondary metabolites, an observation that may significantly influence the way the impact the way *S. trochoidea* blooms are understood.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

Funding for this project was in part provided by the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation as part of the Marine Micro-Eukaryote Transcriptome Project (MMETSP), and in part via a grant from the National Science Foundation (OCE 0961900). We would also like to thank Henry Neeman at the OU Supercomputing Center for Education & Research for informatics support.

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FIGURES

Figure 1. (A) Nitrate measurement illustrating low starting N concentration in the N-limited culture and depletion over time until day 7. Cultures, starved for 24 hours, were sampled on the 8th day. The remaining 300 mL were split into 150 mL cultures, and additional nitrate was added to one of the flasks originating from the N-limited treatment. **(B)** Phosphate concentration illustrating lower starting concentration of the P-limited culture, and depletion of P over time until day 7. The culture was starved 24 hours, and sampled on the 8th day. The remaining culture was split into two equal volumes and phosphate was to one of the flasks originating from the P-limited treatment.


Figure 2. Cell densities of cultures for each of the treatments. Error bars indicate one standard deviation. Solid circles indicate the replete (control) culture. Black triangles are used to plot the N-limited culture, while open diamonds are used to plot the P-limited cultures.



Figure 3. Krona Plots of the blastx-hits. **(A)** Eukaryota and distribution of hits within, showing majority assigned to Alveolata. **(B)** Alveolata with most reads assigned to the *Perkinsus marinus*.



Figure 4. (A) Log-Log plot of replete to the N-depletion treatment showing the number of differentially expressed genes in red (down-regulated) and blue (up-regulated, and those that are no DE are in gray-black with p-adjusted to an FDR<0.1. **(B)** Log-Log Plot of replete to the P-limited treatment.



Figure 5. Cellular overview of genes detected as differentially expressed and potential role it altering the metabolic pathways of S. trochoidea under N-limitation, relative to replete conditions. The glyoxylate cycle is not shown connecting the mitochondrial and plastid pathways for clarity. Blue and Red circles indicate up- and down regulation in response to N-limitation respectively, and indicate the location of genes detected as differentially expressed. AAT, Amino acid transporters; ALP, Alkaline phosphatase; AMT, Ammonium transporter; ARG, Arginase; BG, Beta-glucanase and 1,4-beta-Dglucan cellobiohydrolase; CCP, Cytochrome c peroxidase; CCD1, Carotenoid 9, 10(9',10')-cleavage dioxygenase 1; CEL, Cellulase/Endoglucanase 5 precursor; CP, Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase; DOP, Dissolved organic phosphate; DXR, 1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase; ECP, Extracellular peptidases/protease; GBG, Glucan 1,3-beta-glucosidase; GDH2, Glutamate dehydrogenase 2; GSII, Glutamine synthetase II; GSIII, Glutamine synthetase III; GST, Glutathione Stransferase; GOGAT, Glutamate synthetase; NIA, Nitrate reductase; NiR, Nitrite reductase; NRT, Nitrate/Nitrite transporter; STP, Sulfate transporter; URE, Urease; UTP, Urea transporter; XUV, Xanthine/Uric Acid transporter; ZT, Zinc transporter.



Figure 6. Phylogenetic relationships among saxitoxin *sxtA* from *S. trochoidea* and close blastp hits to NCBI-NR, 20 Maximum likelihood searches and 500 Rapid Bootstraps using RAxML. *sxtA* hits from *S. trochoidea* form a clad with others from dinoflagellates. These are related to the sister clade of *sxtA* from cyanobacteria which are known to produce toxins.



Figure 7. Gene arrangement of Saxitoxin gene cluster in *Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii* with homologs of *Alexandrium tamarense* and *Scrippsiella trochoidea* shaded to demonstrate shared gene similarity in both toxic and non-toxic dinoflagellates and the known cyanobacterial saxitoxin pathway (Adapted from (Kellmann et al., 2008), and *sxt* gene hits of *Alexandrium tamarense* plotted from (Hackett et al., 2013) in addition *sxt* gene hits from this study.



TABLES

Table 1.A Significantly enriched GO terms for Biological Process P < 0.01 with Positive Log2 fold change indicating up-regulation in response to N-depletion. See Supplemental Table 7 for complete list).

GO term	Description	Annotated	Significant	Expected	P-value
GO:0071705	Nitrogen compound transport	591	8	1.35	3.10E-04
GO:0044711	Single-organism biosynthetic process	2748	11	6.3	3.90E-04
GO:0019682	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate metabolic process	17	2	0.04	1.22E-03
GO:0008299	Isoprenoid biosynthetic process	120	3	0.27	1.41E-03
	Isopentenyl diphosphate biosynthetic process,				
GO:0019288	methylerythritol 4-phosphate pathway	14	2	0.03	1.91E-03
GO:0046490	Isopentenyl diphosphate metabolic process	18	2	0.04	2.28E-03
GO:0044264	Cellular polysaccharide metabolic process	549	4	1.26	2.71E-03
GO:0007588	Excretion	35	2	0.08	3.49E-03
GO:0090407	Organophosphate biosynthetic process	831	9	1.9	3.67E-03
GO:0042886	Amide transport	107	3	0.25	7.21E-03
GO:0006793	Phosphorus metabolic process	3410	12	7.81	7.71E-03
GO:0051189	Prosthetic group metabolic process	14	1	0.03	1.05E-02
GO:0015833	Peptide transport	93	3	0.21	1.07E-02

0 Isc	ppentenyl diphosphate biosynthetic process	18	2	0.04	1.23E-02
Z	o-molybdopterin cofactor biosynthetic process	14	1	0.03	1.46E-02
Re	sgulation of growth	387	3	0.89	1.48E-02
Ō	igopeptide transport	24	3	0.05	1.56E-02
P_0	dysaccharide metabolic process	695	4	1.59	1.60E-02
చ	ellular aldehyde metabolic process	96	2	0.22	1.62E-02
Isc	pprenoid metabolic process	168	3	0.38	1.68E-02
Re	egulation of cell growth	141	2	0.32	1.86E-02
SI	ngle-organism transport	4055	16	9.29	1.94E-02
Ľ	pid biosynthetic process	902	5	2.07	1.99E-02
Po	dysaccharide catabolic process	402	3	0.92	2.02E-02
ň	etection of endogenous stimulus	24	1	0.05	2.14E-02
T	oxin biosynthetic process	11	1	0.03	2.15E-02

Table 1B. Significantly enriched GO terms for Biological Process P < 0.01 with Negative Log2 fold change, indicating down-regulation in response to N depletion (See Supplemental Table 8 for complete list).

GO term	Description	Annotated	Significant	Expected	P-value
GO:0022900	Electron transport chain	162	∞	0.47	5.70E-08
GO:0015979	Photosynthesis	619	6	1.79	2.20E-05
GO:0009767	Photosynthetic electron transport chain	52	9	0.15	6.30E-05
GO:0018298	Protein-chromophore linkage	274	9	0.79	7.20E-05
GO:0006351	Transcription, DNA-templated	1394	00	4.04	1.10E-04
GO:0009636	Response to Toxic Substance	153	4	0.44	3.20E-04
GO:0044271	Cellular nitrogen compound biosynthetic process	2530	12	7.33	3.20E-04
GO:2000112	Regulation of Cellular Macromolecule Biosynthetic Process	1850	6	5.36	4.40E-04
GO:0006091	Generation of Precursor Metabolites And Energy	933	6	2.7	5.20E-04
GO:0055114	Oxidation-reduction process	902	10	2.61	5.60E-04
GO:0018130	Heterocycle biosynthetic process	2415	11	L	1.22E-03
GO:0019438	Aromatic compound biosynthetic process	2444	11	7.08	1.27E-03
GO:0009064	Glutamine family amino acid metabolic process	171	5	0.5	1.49E-03
GO:1901362	Organic cyclic compound biosynthetic process	2620	12	7.59	1.83E-03

GO:0032774	RNA biosynthetic process	1424	00	4.12	2.17E-03
GO:0010556	Regulation of Macromolecule Biosynthetic Process	1870	6	5.42	2.27E-03
GO:0006811	Ion transport	2297	17	6.65	2.32E-03
GO:0030509	BMP signaling pathway	20	2	0.06	2.47E-03
GO:0051340	Regulation of ligase activity	31	2	0.09	3.54E-03
GO:0015849	Organic acid transport	268	5	0.78	3.96E-03
GO:0071705	Nitrogen compound transport	591	7	1.71	4.08E-03
GO:0035335	Peptidyl-tyrosine dephosphorylation	17	2	0.05	4.90E-03
GO:0060255	Regulation of macromolecule metabolic process	2824	11	8.18	5.79E-03
GO:0000041	Transition metal ion transport	78	ю	0.23	6.09E-03
	Regulation of protein modification by small protein				
GO:1903320	conjugation or removal	139	ю	0.4	6.75E-03
GO:0031396	Regulation of protein ubiquitination	125	3	0.36	7.52E-03
GO:0051252	Regulation of RNA metabolic process	1393	~	4.03	7.88E-03

Table 2. Transcriptome gene hits to the saxitoxin biosynthesis gene cluster in *Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii* T3. Approximately 50% of the biosynthesis cluster had significant hits to *S. trochoidea* (17 of the 34).

			A	Averag	je AA
Gene Name in	Name	Count	Average	%	HSP
Cylindrospermopsis raciborskii 13			E-value	Similarity	Length
SxtA polyketide synthase-related	Swt A	10	1.005.07	400/	122 7
protein	SXIA	10	1.00E-06	4070	433.7
SxtB cytidine deaminase	SxtB	1	7.00E-36	55%	233.0
SxtD Sterol desaturase	SxtD	1	7.00E-08	46%	155.0
SxtF sodium-driven multidrug	Q4F	1	5 00E 04	410/	259.0
& toxic compound extrusion protein	SXIF	1	5.00E-04	41%	358.0
SxtG amidinotransferase	SxtG	4	5.00E-13	50%	291.8
SxtH phenylpropionate dioxygenase	SxtH	16	1.72E-06	44%	186.1
SxtI NodU/CmcH-related	G4I	2	2 225 07	500/	22777
carbamoyltransferase	Sxti	3	3.33E-07	50%	327.7
SxtN sulfotransferase	SxtN	1	6.00E-05	39%	285.0
SxtO adenylylsulfate kinase	SxtO	2	5.10E-45	66%	177.0
SxtS phytanoyl-CoA dioxygenase	SxtS	2	3.60E-04	43%	181.0
SxtT phenylpropionate dioxygenase	SxtT	14	2.79E-06	45%	187.0
SxtU short-chain alcohol	0 (II	50	0.145.05	400/	146.0
dehydrogenase	SxtU	55	2.14E-05	48%	146.9

SxtW ferredoxin	SxtW	5	1.85E-04	51%	64.8
SxtZ histidine kinase	SxtZ	11	3.69E-07	44%	278.7
HisA-related protein	HisA	1	5.00E-05	51%	73.0
Transcriptional regulator OmpR	ompR	10	6.92E-07	59%	128.3
family					
Unknown	-	1	4.00E-22	69%	94.0
Total Sxt gene pathway hits		136			
Number of Unique Contigs		112			

Chapter 3: Trophic Differences Reflected in the Elemental Stoichiometry from Transcriptomes and Proteomes of Eukaryotic Phytoplankton

Abstract

Marine protist communities include a diverse array of eukaryotic phyla that make large contributions to biogeochemical cycling of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and oxygen (O). The biochemistry and abundance of marine protists in marine environments has been shaped over millions of years by fluctuating nutrient conditions, changing redox conditions and climatic variability. This chapter aims to apply a stoichiogenomic framework to examine if N limitation has shaped the elemental composition of marine protist transcriptomes and proteomes, and if life history traits (i.e. autotrophy, mixotrophy, and heterotrophy) correlate with observed variability in stoichiometry. Data from the Marine Microeukaryote Transcriptome Sequencing Project (MMETSP) dataset has provided a snapshot of cellular physiology of 409 marine protists. An analysis of this data indicated that nitrogen and carbon stoichiometry of amino acid side-chain groups have strong phylogenetic signals. The hypothesis that N-limitation experienced by eukaryotic phytoplankton and protists is reflected in N-rich amino acids in autotrophs, lack of enrichment in heterotrophs, and intermediate enrichment in mixotrophs was investigated. Trophic strategy did not appear to significantly correlate with inferred N stoichiometry. Conversely carbon stoichiometry of predicted proteomes in mixotrophic protists was significantly different from heterotrophs (p=0.0108), and autotrophs has significantly different carbon stoichiometry as compared to heterotrophs (p=0.0108). These data reject the notion that

N-limitation of protists in marine systems in a dominant driving force in shaping proteome composition. Conversely, higher C-content of amino acid side chains in mixotrophic protists suggests a release from limitation of organic C.

Introduction

Autotrophic and heterotrophic plankton are responsible for large contributions to global fluxes in carbon, nitrogen, sulfur, and oxygen in ocean and freshwater ecosystems. First recognized by Redfield (1958), phytoplankton in the open sea have similar elemental ratios to those found in decomposing matter in the deep ocean (106:16:1 ratio of Carbon to Nitrogen to Phosphorus), leading to the notion that relatively stable elemental ratios exist in phytoplankton biomass regardless of taxonomy and geographical distribution. Stable elemental ratios are largely a consequence of the fact that these elements form the fundamental building blocks of lipids, nucleic acids, and amino acids, thereby linking stoichiometric utilization of these elements to biomass production, though notable deviations from Redfield's ratios have been recognized. For example, large scale patterns of cellular C:N:P ratios among bacterioplankton and phytoplankton have been found to correlate with latitude, irradiance, temperature, and regional impacts (Martiny et al. 2013a, Martiny et al. 2013b, Yvon-Durocher et al. 2015, Thrane et al. 2016). Elemental ratios of oceanic micrograms also appear to be phylogenetically constrained, and may reflect differences in growth rate, cellular investment in structural components, and functional differences (Tett et al. 2009, Hillebrand et al. 2013, Daines et al. 2014). Phytoplankton have been found to vary considerably in their ratios of C:N:P due to differential investments of N and P in cellular DNA and proteins. Their C:N:P stoichiometry can be drastically altered, depending whether cells are growing under nutrient replete or limited conditions (Leonardos and Geider 2004, Geider and Roche 2011). Further, it has been suggested that phytoplankton stoichiometry may be rooted in ancient evolutionary events, such as

the divergence that led to the red and green plastid lineages (Quigg et al. 2010). The same study reports that ratios of C:N and C:P differ among the plastid lineages, pointing to evolutionary events during which nutrients may have been scarce. Additional studies have suggested that a driver of the abundance and diversity of phytoplankton are the result of millions of years of changes in ocean conditions, such as changing redox conditions, fluctuating nutrient availability and climatic variability experienced by organisms over millions of years (Falkowski 1997, Falkowski et al. 2004, Falkowski and Oliver 2007).

Adaptation to nutrient availability has often been invoked as the selective mechanism that might explain observed differences in organismal elemental stoichiometry. In this context, the "growth-rate hypothesis" (GRH) has been articulated and states that slow or reduced organism growth rates may be linked to available phosphorus, and that consumers ingesting P-limited food items will experience slowed growth rates due to the lack of new P-atoms needed to make P-rich ribosomes (Elser et al. 2003, Elser et al. 2008, Giordano et al. 2015). The GRH has been supported in several studies. For example, when algal prey are grown under P-limiting conditions, feeding on these cells alters the elemental stoichiometry and growth rates of their predators (e.g. *Daphnia* or Cladocerans) (Boersma 2000, Acharya et al. 2004, Bullejos et al. 2014, Lind and Jeyasingh 2015). Others have argued that phytoplankton may not necessarily fit the GRH (Flynn et al. 2010).

The ratio of dissolved nitrogen to phosphorus has been shown to limit productivity in aquatic systems, limiting the energy flow in ecosystems (Moore et al. 2013). Conversely, when concentrations of inorganic nutrients are high, they can

promote extensive bloom events of algae (Howarth and Marino 2006). Especially N limitation may impart high physiological costs to phytoplankton, given that dried biomass of the average phytoplankton cells is approximately composed of 32% protein, 17% lipids, and 15% carbohydrates (Finkel et al. 2016). Protein thus accounts for as much as 85% of the cellular N budget (Geider and Roche 2011), but not all amino acids contain equal numbers of N atoms. Among the twenty commonly used amino acids, several contain N atoms in their R-group (arginine=3, histidine=2, asparagine=1, glutamine=1, lysine=1, tryptophan=1, and the rest have zero) (Elser et al. 2011). As a consequence, it therefore possible that the side chain chemistry of the proteome is under selective pressure to reflect the least number of the atoms of a limiting element. For example, it has been reported that C and S assimilating proteins in Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Escherichia coli genomes are depleted in these elements (Baudouin-Cornu et al. 2001). Notably it was observed that sulfur atoms were depleted in sulfur assimilatory enzymes but not in enzymes necessary for C assimilation and vice versa, i.e. C atoms were depleted only in C assimilation enzymes but not in those related to sulfur metabolism. This suggests that evolutionary adaptation at the subcellular level can minimize demand for those elements by reducing its utilization in enzymes responsible for their uptake. It has also been shown that a single amino acid change in S. cerevisiae can be subjected to strong selection against increasing protein material costs (Bragg and Wagner 2009).

The selection on the elemental composition of an organism's genomic complement is referred to as 'stoichiogenomics' (Elser et al. 2011). Stoichiogenomics, as a framework, aims to understand how organisms interact with their environment and

how their genomes are shaped by environmental interaction such as nutrient stress. A range of studies have observed that reductions in genome size appear to be correlated with environmental differences in nutrient availability, light, and depth distribution in cyanobacteria (García-Fernández et al. 2004, García-Fernández and Diez 2004, Johnson et al. 2006, Martiny et al. 2006, Tolonen et al. 2006, Lv et al. 2008, Martiny et al. 2009a, Martiny et al. 2009b, Martiny et al. 2009c, Partensky and Garczarek 2009, Paul et al. 2010, Bragg 2011, Gilbert and Fagan 2011), heterotrophic bacteria (Grzymski and Dussaq 2012, Batut et al. 2014, Luo et al. 2015), and microeukaryotes (Rodríguez et al. 2005, Derelle et al. 2006, Palenik et al. 2007). An example of genome streamlining related to environmental differences can be seen in the genomes of several *Prochlorococcus* strains, which represent different ecotypes (high-light vs. low-light) (Chisholm et al. 1988, Moore and Chisholm 1999), where high-light adapted strains have smaller genomes and low-light higher nutrient strains have larger genomes (Rocap et al. 2003). Others have suggested that genomic streamlining might not just be limited to N availability, and that that genome size may also be tied to phosphorus limitation (Hessen et al. 2010). Similarly, codon biases among bacteria have been shown to correlate with their external environmental conditions (Zeldovich et al. 2007, Bragg et al. 2012), and codon optimization may underlie lifestyle related adaptation in fungi (Badet et al. 2017). The study by (Acquisti et al. 2009a) suggests that N depletion in the amino acid side-chains of undomesticated terrestrial plants are the result of long-term adaption to naturally N-poor ecosystems. While cultivation or associations of N-fixing bacterial symbionts (e.g. legumes) release N thrift, and thus have higher levels of N in their proteomes. Plant proteomes also contain $\sim 7\%$ less N in amino acid side chains as

compared to metazoans, suggesting that metazoans do not experience N limitation as severely as plants (Acquisti et al. 2009a). Others suggested that the correlations by Acquisti et al. (2009a) are potentially spurious, and rather reflect other ecological and evolutionary factors (Günther et al. 2013).

On this backdrop, this study aims to investigate the impact of ecophysiology on the stoichiometry of marine protists, which have not previously been investigated in this context. Marine phytoplankton and protists are immensely diverse with respect to the phylogenetic breadth, range of ecological strategies (i.e. strict photoautotrophy, mixotrophy, and heterotrophy), cell sizes, and constituents of their differing cell walls (i.e. silica, calcite, carbon, cellulose). This physiological diversity intersects with strong geochemical nutrient gradients in marine systems, providing an opportunity for stoichiogenomic adaptations. Steady coastal nutrient input or upwelling, for example, may relax selection for N and P minimization in organisms adapted to such regimes. Many protists may also alter their trophic strategy from photoautotrophy to mixotrophy to bet-hedge nutrient limiting conditions (Stoecker 1998, Hansen 2011). How microbial eukaryotic plankton regulate their elemental stoichiometry, and what factors may dominate across the diversity of marine plankton lineages remains unexplored and are at the center of work presented here.

The aim of this chapter was to test the following hypotheses:

 H₀: The elemental N stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome does not differ among autotrophic, mixotrophic, and heterotrophic microeukaryotes.

H1: The N content of the stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome are lowest in autotrophs, intermediate in mixotrophs, and highest in heterotrophs.

 H₀: the %G+C content does not correlate with stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome N content.

H₁: stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome depleted in N are also low in %G+C.

 H₀: The stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome does not vary in C enrichment across lineages.

H1: The stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome varies in C content based on trophic strategy of protists.

 H₀: The stoichiometry of protein coding genes is unrelated to the environment from which protists were isolated.

H₁: Nutrient conditions of source waters are correlated with N depletion signals in the stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome.

To test these hypotheses, the Marine Microeukaryote Transcriptome Sequencing Project (MMETSP) (Keeling et al. 2014) dataset was used. The MMETSP dataset provide a unique opportunity to address these questions, as it represent the currently largest collection of transcriptome data constructed on oceanic microeukaryotes. It contains multiple representatives from all but a few of the major eukaryotic phyla. Most of these phyla do not yet have sequenced genomes and collectively these groups include the bulk of phytoplankton groups worldwide. Of the handful of microeukaryote genomes that are available, most represent laboratory weeds and do not fully represent the biochemical and physiological potential likely found in the diversity of marine free-living protists and phytoplankton. The MMETSP dataset therefore present an

unprecedented opportunity to identify stoichiogenomic and phylogenetic patterns among the highly diverse phytoplankton and protists found in marine systems. Given this, the analysis presented here demonstrates that N stoichiometry of the amino acid side-chains and nucleotide compositions of the transcriptome have strong phylogenetic signals. This indicates that marine protist species are more similar to each other if they share a more recent common ancestor compared to distantly related phylogenetic groups. It was also observed that a significant difference in the C stoichiometry exists among autotrophic, mixotrophic and heterotrophic organisms, while no indication that N limitation shapes the elemental composition of the stoichiotranscriptome and stoichioproteome was observed.

Methods and Materials

Data Collection

The Marine Microeukaryote Transcriptome Sequencing Project produced 719 single transcriptomes of 221 genera, 320 species, and comprising 409 individual strains. The MMETSP dataset represents the largest single collection of genetic information regarding marine microeukaryotes (Keeling et al. 2014). The National Center of Genome Research (NCGR) was responsible for sequencing all the libraries and generated provisional assemblies that were retrieved from iMicrobe (http://data.imicrobe.us/project/view/104). NCGR quality filtered and assembled all transcriptomes following their internal and publically available pipelines (version 1 and 2) as described in the supplemental methods of (Keeling et al. 2014). NCGR assembled each paired-end library separately into 719 individual assemblies, and combined libraries if they represented the same strain creating composite assemblies. These combined assemblies should represent a more comprehensive transcriptome of an organism than a transcriptome generated from a single treatment, and are typically as representing an estimate of the total expressed genome of the organism. One of the NCGR assemblies (Anophryoides haemophila AH6) was not combined due to typographical errors in the naming of the files. For the purpose of this study, these data were manually combined using CD-HIT-EST (Li and Godzik 2006) (-c 0.98 -word size 9) and then used alongside the other 408 combined assemblies. The metadata for the MMETSP project was downloaded from CAMERA

(http://marinemicroeukaryotes.org/resources), revealing that much of the metadata was incomplete. Although several species have multiple strains, the flux of protistian

taxonomy complicates further complicated metadata collection where strains are cryptic species or represent true strains of the same species, especially when strains can differ in their environmental and ecological optima (Lakeman et al. 2009, Balzano et al. 2011, Huertas et al. 2011).

Environmental Nutrient Availability

To investigate whether the transcriptome and *in silico* proteome assemblies correlate with the nutrient environment from where they were isolated, bioclimatic variables were collected corresponding to the GPS locations provided by the NCGR project investigators, or if absent were collected from the corresponding culture collections: Provasoli-Guillard National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (NCMA at Bigelow formerly CCMP), SAG (Sammlung von Algenkulturen der Universität Göttingen Culture Collection of Algae at Göttingen University), Roscoff Culture Collection (RCC), Microbial Culture Collection at the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), Canadian Center for the Culture of Microorganisms (CCCM), Culture Collection of Algae at Austin (UTEX), Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa (CCAP), The Marine Biological Association Culture collection (Plymouth Culture Collection), Council for Scientific & Industrial Research Organization, Australia (CSIRO) North East Pacific Culture Collection, Canada (NEPCC). In several cases, neither culture collections nor metadata from the NCGR contained appropriate GPS coordinates and several strains/species are not in public collections and also do not have publicly available GPS coordinates. In those cases, isolate names or newly described species were used to gather data from original publication describing an

organism's isolation, or other technical reports, and GPS Coordinates were estimated using Google Earth (Supplemental Table 1.)

Environmental layers were extracted using GPS coordinates from interpolated raster layers of the Bio-ORACLE dataset, which correspond to averaged global nutrient, temperature, light, and salinity measurements, derived from the 2009 World Ocean Atlas (Tyberghein et al. 2012). Interpolated ocean bathymetry and the distance to nearest coast were estimated from the MARSPEC (Sbrocco and Barber 2013) dataset using the 5 arc-sec maps that correspond to the resolution of the Bio-ORACLE raster layers. Bioclimatic variables were extracted using the Point Sampling tool within QGIS (Quantum GIS Development Team 2015) and the nitrate (μ M), phosphate (μ M), sea surface temperature (°C), depth (m), and distance to shore (km).

Estimates of Cell Size

Phytoplankton and protists cell sizes vary by as much as nine orders of magnitude and thus are referred to as a "master trait". Such master traits have been shown to influence nutrient uptake, sinking rates, as well as R- and K-selected growth rates (Litchman and Klausmeier 2008, Finkel et al. 2009). We approximated cell size of each species/strain by assuming that cell sizes were an equivalent spherical diameter, based on the lengths, as average cell sizes are often not reported beyond the length and widths of cells. Minimum and maximum lengths were used to calculate minimum and maximum cell sizes equivalent spherical diameters (ESD). Because we do not have average cell sizes, maximum and minimum ESDs were used separately. Of the 409 species/strains, only 215 isolates had information about the specific strain dimensions in the metadata. Additional literature searches were able to increase this number to 324

taxa with information. Measurements were taken on images from culture collection websites if provided a scale bar using Fiji (ImageJ) (Schindelin et al. 2012). Collected cell size measurements in Supplemental Table 1.

Species Tree of MMETSP

A phylogeny representing the entire MMETSP dataset was generated using the conserved 18S rRNA gene sequences deposited along with the samples in iMicrobe (data.imicrobe.us/project/view/104). However, many of the sequences appeared to be truncated or covered regions that did not align to the larger 1800 bp alignment. To remedy the missing data, phyloFlash (Gruber-Vodicka et al. 2016) was used to iteratively reconstruct 18S rRNA from the MMETSP raw paired-end reads. Briefly, untrimmed reads are mapped using bbmap (Bushnell 2016) against a masked version of the SILVA 123 16/18S full-length rRNA database, and assembled using SPAdes (Bankevich et al. 2012) to reconstruct the small subunit rRNAs by trimming, error correction, and assembly at several k-mers. Reads are then remapped and passed to EMIRGE (Miller et al. 2011), which uses the new rRNA targets and similar SILVA database hits along with a bait strategy to recruit additional reads. Where phyloFlash produced only partial 18S sequences, reads were additionally reconstructed via SEAVIEW, and a reference 18S sequence was used for scaffolding. Each reconstructed rRNA was then manually aligned and checked using SEAVIEW (Gouy et al. 2010), and verified with NBCI blastn to confirm the phylogenetic identity along with its deposited reference 18S rRNA sequence. For tree building, additional 18S rRNA sequences were obtained from the SILVA SINA dataset (https://www.arb-silva.de/). Care was taken to include sufficient reference sequences to break up known long-branch attraction issues

known to occur among Euglenozoa and Amoebozoa (Lahr et al. 2011, Grant and Katz 2014, Lahr et al. 2015). See Supplemental Tables 2 listing of all SILVA accessions.

Testing for phylogenetic signal requires an accurate tree reconstruction, and branch lengths proportional to the amount of time, as opposed to the inferred number of substitutions. A maximum likelihood tree of the 18S rRNAs was converted to an ultrametric tree where all branches are the same length and proportional to time using relative time divergence dating with the RelTime algorithm in MEGA7 (Tamura et al. 2012, Tamura et al. 2013). Relative time dating requires adding divergence times at internal nodes representing the most recent common ancestor relationships among taxa. Divergence dates for internal nodes were selected from published records and times from the TimeTree database (Hedges et al. 2015). Calibration time points between most recent common ancestors within the MMETSP dataset and added taxa are summarized in Supplemental Table 3.

Elemental Content of the Transcriptome and Proteome

The MMETSP dataset includes extensive taxonomic diversity and several eukaryotic groups (i.e. Ciliates and *Euplotes*) are known to utilize alternative genetic codons in both the nuclear and organelle genomes. Transdecoder v1.2 (Haas et al. 2013) was used to translate putative coding sequences from the *de novo* reconstructed mRNA in each NCGR assembly. Transdecoder estimates the hexamer frequency of likely coding transcripts, and peptide sequences were predicted using either the standard genetic code for most of all the assemblies, or specific genetic codes using the *Tetrahymena* code for Ciliates, and the *Euplotes* code for the genera identified as *Euplotes*. This revealed that proteomes predicted by NCGR underestimate the number

of proteins in Ciliates. To generate a more comprehensive proteome prediction for ciliates, the initial predictions output from Transdecoder were supplemented by blastp with an E-value of 1E-5 against a Eukaryotic subset of Uniprot-SwissProt and matches to the Pfam-A database using hmmscan from the HMMER package version 3.1b1 (hmmer.org). Predicted proteins were then parsed using the "retain_blastp_hits" and "retain_pfam_hits" flags to find support for the most likely open reading frame.

Proteomes generated by Transdecoder were then analyzed to determine the number of N Atoms per Residue Side-Chain (NARSC) following (Acquisti et al. 2009a) defined as NARSC = $\sum_i (N_i)/\sum_i (l_i)$, where N_i represents the number of N atoms in the amino acid side-chain and l_i represents the length of its protein open reading frame predicted by Transdecoder. The same formula was applied to calculate to N atoms in the coding sequences NatomCDS = $\sum_i (N_i)/\sum_i (l_i)$, where Ni represented the number of N atoms in the coding sequence nucleotides (5 N atoms for A and G, 3 N atoms for C, and 2 N atoms for T/U). Using the same principles for N, the C content of amino acid-side chain chemistry (CARSC) and corresponding transcript coding sequences CatomCDS. Following the Francois et al. (2016) the average N content of the 3rd codon position within the coding sequences were also calculated using the formula above but instead only accounting for the N atoms at the 3rd codon position (NAB3).

In order to weight the expression of the transcriptome toward a "control condition" we mapped paired-end reads from each assembly after trimming and used the corresponding transcripts per million (TPM) values to calculate weighted averages of NARSC, CARSC, NAB3, GC% and NatomsCDS and CatomsCDS for each assembly. Briefly, paired-end reads from each MMETSP sample representing replete or

control conditions (no treatment indicated in metadata) were retrieved from iMicrobe as a Metadata file. Each paired-end library was trimmed using bbduk.sh from the BBtools suite, version 35 (Bushnell 2016) package using the following settings: k=27, ktrim=rl, qtrim=rl, minlength=32, hdist=1, ghist=1. Reads were then mapped to the corresponding NCGR referenced assembly using Salmon version 0.7.2 (https://github.com/COMBINE-lab/salmon) at a k-mer of 31, (quant –libtype A, – seqbias, numbootstraps=100). Salmon uses a quasi-mapping of sequence reads that allow paired reads to map to multiple contigs, and then uses a maximum likelihood approach to estimate which contig the mapped reads likely belong to. This approach is useful because, as *de novo* reconstructed transcriptomes often are likely to have several to multiple copies of transcripts that may correspond to true divergent copies, represent single nucleotide polymorphisms among diploid taxa, or could be the result of sequencing errors and assembly using multiple k-mers. Salmon outputs reads as both counts and transcripts per million (TPM) where they have been normalized in expression to themselves.

Estimating Transcriptome Completeness and Determining Single Copy Orthologs

Determining the elemental stoichiometry of a transcriptome may require that most of the core genes have been reconstructed that represents its physiology. To determine to what degree *de novo* assemblies represent the genome content of requisite protists, predicted proteins for single copy orthologous were searched against the BUSCO database (Benchmarks of Single Copy Orthologs) as previously described (Simao et al. 2015). Briefly using BUSCO, protein sequences are queried against hidden-Markov-Model representations of highly conserved eukaryotic genes that are

found as single copies orthologs in eukaryotic genomes. Several assemblies were of poor quality (had high numbers of missing BUSCOs, or highly fragmented) and were removed from the analysis if they had more than 50% missing BUSCOs. This excluded 32 samples from the analysis, with most samples having fewer than 30% missing (n=310).

Homologs and Orthologs among MMETSP Transcriptomes

Due to the diversity of protists in the MMETSP dataset, and large differences in protein numbers, data analysis was focused on proteins conserved among species. To gather conserved proteins a previously described phylogenomic pipeline was used (Yang and Smith 2014). This pipeline has been used to show that high quality phylogenetic reconstructions are possible using a combination of transcriptome and reference proteome data. It was used here to construct orthologs among 410 transcriptomes and 47 reference proteomes obtained from Uniprot (Supplemental Table 2), from the Wellcome Sanger Trust, and several university groups linked to sequencing microeukaryotes (Supplemental Information and Supplemental Table 4).

Predicted proteins within each transcriptome assembly were then clustered at 100% similarity to remove potential spurious hits using the UCLUST algorithm from USEARCH (Edgar 2010) (E-value =1E-03, self-hits excluded, and custom fields according to Yang and Smith (2014)). Briefly, proteins were sorted by length to increase the likelihood a full-length protein as the centroid, and then clustered at 100% identity. This *in silico* fractional identity is more similar to the BLAST definition than to similar software CD-HIT (Li and Godzik 2006). Additionally proteins were soft masked using the default "fastamino" within UCLUST to mask simple repeats to reduce

false positives (Edgar 2010). All-by-all UBLAST (Edgar 2010) of clustered proteins against a database of all clustered MMETSP and Reference proteomes were queried (Evalue = 1E-04) and up to 1,500 non-self-hits were recovered. UBLAST hits with query coverage greater than 0.3 we used for homology. Homologous protein families were identified, clustered, and separated using the Markov Clustering Algorithm (MCL v. 14-137; (Enright et al. 2002)) and edges between UBLAST hits with an inflation value of 2.0 and an E-value cutoff of 1E-5, and clusters with fewer than 75 tips were discarded. Several inflation values were attempted but lower values generally created clusters that were too large to align. A higher inflation reduces the coarseness of the clusters and should be a more conservative measure of representative gene families. Sequences of each putative homolog family obtained from MCL were aligned with either MAFFT v. v7.222 (Katoh and Standley 2013) or PASTA (Mirarab et al. 2015). Clustered sequences less than 1,000 were aligned using MAFFT with the options "genafpair" and "maxiterate 1000", while clusters larger than 1,000 sequences were aligned using the iterative PASTA aligner (Mirarab et al. 2015). These clusters represent likely homologs with paralogs, orthologs, and xenologs. To remove spurious xenologs, misassembly, clustering errors, prediction errors, and poorly aligned sequences we performed two rounds of refinement. After the initial pruning of spurious hits, these sequences represent generally homologous families of proteins including orthologs, paralogs, duplications, and deletions.

In each round, homologs were aligned, trimmed to remove positions with more than 10% missing data for smaller (<1,000 members) or 1% for larger (>1,000 members) using Phyutility (Smith and Dunn 2008), and then each cleaned alignment

was used to infer an initial maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree with PROTCATWAG model of amino acid substitution via RAxML 8.2.8 (Stamatakis 2014). Terminal branch tips longer than ten times the sister branches and a relative length of > 0.3 or an absolute length > 0.9 were removed from each putative homolog tree. Paraphyletic and monophyletic tips may belong to isoforms of the same gene from the same taxon were also removed, keeping only the sequence with fewest ambiguities. Long internal branches were cut, if longer than 1.0 to separate deep paralogs, creating two or more subtrees, and had to have at least 250 species or more to be kept. The second round repeated the same relative and absolute trimming steps. Tips were masked again if paraphyletic and monophyletic tips belonged to the same taxon. Long internal branches were cut again if greater than 0.5 and had to have 250 species or more. After this, trees still contained may closely related members, requiring another round of trimming and masking of paraphyletic and monophyletic to be performed and then finally single copy orthologs were output using prune paralogs by maximum inclusion with the same trimming settings as before (relative 0.2, absolute 0.5, and 50 minimum tips). These output trees were converted to fasta files and in a final alignment step was performed using MAFFT. Examination of several trimming methods for eliminating spurious alignments was tried, and trimAL was used instead of Phyutility with the following settings "-resovlerlap 0.5 and -seqoverlap 50 -gappyout." These output orthologs were used as a way to filter assemblies in order to compare the NARSC values among taxa that differ in their proteome complexity. A final species tree based on these orthologs was attempted but did not succeed, even using supercomputing capacity. In an effort to reduce the dataset by genes that appear to display a tree-like

pattern, matrix reduction using MARE (MAtrix REduction) (http://mare.zfmk.de), was attempted, where taxa were weighted more heavily for larger taxonomic coverage. This resulted in 20 protein clusters and was heavily skewed toward Diatoms and Dinoflagellates, which made up a bulk of the MMETSP samples. A final tree was attempted on CIPRES (Miller et al. 2010) with the partitioned dataset, as on OSCER the tree could not complete.

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyzes were performed in R (R Core Team 2015), and statistical acceptance to reject null hypotheses was set of P < 0.05. Environmental parameters from the extrapolated oceanic layers were log-transformed prior to statistical analysis to reduce non-normality in the dataset. Phylogenetic signal was tested for each trait using fitContinuous function in "geiger" (Harmon et al. 2008), using Pagel's λ and Moran's I phylogenetic correlation index. Pagel's λ (Pagel 1999) uses a maximum likelihood optimized procedure to determine the estimate the degree of phylogenetic signal of a single trait modeled against Brownian Motion (BM). We also calculated Moran's I autocorrelation index using the R package "ape" (Paradis et al. 2004), to identify if the scale of the tree displayed differing amounts of phylogenetic signal. The Moran's I correlogram was calculated using R scripts from (Paquette et. al 2015). We tested whether NARSC, CARSC, the ratio of CARSC/NARSC, NAB3, GC content were predictors of trophic strategy, using Phy-ANOVA with post-hoc tests while controlling for multiple testing using the Holm-Bonferroni method with (nsim=10,000) from the "phytools" package (Revell 2012). A p Phylogenetic Generalized Least Squares Regression, using likelihood ratio tests between models containing explanatory

variables and the model with only an intercept. We then used likelihood ratio tests to compare the best model fit were used to test if environmental nitrate, the ratio of nitrate/phosphate corresponding to the geographic origin of the isolated strain were correlated to any of the calculated N stoichiogenomic measurements. Supplemental Table 4 contains the taxonomic information on the isolates. Supplement Table 5 categorizes the isolates as autotrophic, mixotrophic, heterotrophic, parasitic and symbiotic. Parasitic and symbiotic categories were not included in the analysis as they were represented few samples.

Results

Protist Phylogeny

The phylogeny of protists based on the 18S rRNA of the MMETSP samples and additional taxa was well resolved at all but the most ancient branches. This is consistent with previous studies, which have reported difficulties in resolving the divergence of the major eukaryotic clades (Lahr et al. 2011, Parfrey et al. 2011, Grant and Katz 2014, Katz and Grant 2015). The observed phylogeny, nonetheless, is in good agreement with the currently accepted eukaryotic tree of life rooted with Opisthokonta and Fungi (Unikont) as the out-group to the Bikont eukaryotes (Figure 1). Foraminifera, are not represented in our data because they were removed due to the presence of large introns and unreliable alignments, leading to significant long-branch attraction artifacts. Divergence time estimates appear to place the root of the tree at 2.3 billion years ago (bya), and the major clades diverging at similar times as reported in previous studies (Brown and Sorhannus 2010, Parfrey et al. 2011). The split of the major eukaryotic groups occurs with short branch lengths in deep time and is consistent with a pattern of rapid diversification around ~1.9 bya (Brown and Sorhannus 2010, Parfrey et al. 2011). Diatoms are the most recently evolved lineage, originating ca. 120-530 million years ago (mya), while the Amoebozoa appear to represent some of the oldest lineages, placing their ancestry around 1.8 bya. Many of the large clades that include marine phytoplankton appear to have undergone diversification at similar time horizons (1.5 and 1.3 bya). The tree appears to be well resolved except at deep branches, where substitutions in the 18S rRNA molecule may not offer sufficient resolution to separate very old lineages.

Identification of Orthologs among All MMETSP Datasets

To make direct comparisons among the diverse groups contained within the MMETSP dataset, a set of orthologs was necessary. Orthologs allow the testing of conserved protein signatures that are retained among diverse organisms and thus changes in amino acids are more likely to be similar between species and divergent between species. In all, 8,291 homologous protein families were identified in the MMETSP dataset. Several different values of the inflation parameter were attempted with the MCL software to refine the ability to resolve differences among putative protein clusters by applying weight to edges (log transformed E-values) between hits. However, at greater inflation values, smaller differences between hits are given more weight, increasing the possibility that homologous gene families are split into more than one protein cluster. Conversely, at low inflation values, large families of nonhomologous proteins are sometimes clustered. Given the conservative approach taken here, it is therefore likely that at least some large clusters may belong to several closely related families. It should be noted that some protein clusters became un-alignable after filtering by exceeding available computational capacity, and these were therefore excluded from further analysis. The results of the UBLASTP and MCL clustering resulted 8,291 clusters found among the reference proteomes and MMETSP in silico proteomes. After clustering, the putative gene families were restricted to contain at least 250 tips, 1,915 protein families were aligned and filtered. The second round of filtering and pruning reduced the number of protein families to 1,262, but only 1,258 could be aligned for the purpose of maximum likelihood tree construction. With respect to the aligned clusters, pruning by maximum inclusion and requiring 50 tips to be
present within each orthologous group resulted in 610 orthologous clusters among the 439 MMETSP and reference genomes species/strains (99%). The average number of orthologs recovered among all MMETSP samples was 112, with a minimum of 1 orthologous group, and a maximum of 350 (57.3%) orthologous groups found between species. The most orthologs were found primarily in the Bacillariophyta. Few species (23.1%) had greater than 132 orthologs. Due to difficulties in finding orthologs with high occupancy via the Yang and Smith methodology (Yang and Smith 2014) an alternative strategy was employed via the use of BUSCOs as a benchmark for transcriptome completeness, and using the output hits as putative markers for the presence of single copy orthologs among MMETSP taxa. The numbers of orthologs for each taxon is summarized in Supplemental Table 4.

The Stoichiotranscriptome and Cellular Trophic Strategy

MMETSP transcriptomes and proteomes were analyzed for enrichment of N atoms in the nucleotides or the amino acid side chains as a way to understand whether these traits in phytoplankton and protists are impacted by external nutrient conditions. No significant difference among median proteome values of NARSC were observed among autotrophic, mixotrophic or heterotrophic categories (Phy-ANOVA: df = 2, F = 2.95, *P* value = 0.7128), see Figure 2A. However, a significant signal was observed between the median proteome values of the CARSC values among the three categories (Phy-ANOVA: df = 2, F = 38.01, *P* value = 0.0249) with the most significant contrasts between autotrophic and heterotrophic (*P* value = 0.0108) and heterotrophic versus mixotrophic (*P* value = 0.0108) species (Figure 2B). Autotrophic versus mixotrophic were not found to be significantly different (*P* value = 0.9250) We found no significant

differences between N atoms among the transcriptome CDS, C atoms among CDS, GC%, or NAB3 of the CDS respectively (Phy-ANOVA: df = 2, F = 14.96, *P* value = 0.2122; df = 2, F = 12.35, *P* value = 0.2746; df = 2 F = 16.50, *P* value = 0.192; df = 2 F = 18.85, *P* value = 0.148). The average for each of the 20 amino acids was calculated and then grouped by trophic strategy. This analysis revealed that alanine was most frequently used across the data set, with slightly elevated usage in mixotrophs. Similarly, cysteine, glycine, histidine, leucine, proline, arginine, valine all appear at greater frequencies in mixotrophs as compared to autotrophs, while patters in heterotrophs were mixed in comparison with autotrophs and mixotrophs (Supplemental Figure 1).

G+C Content and N and C-Content

Calculated N and C content at the nucleotide and proteome level exhibit a strong phylogenetic signal as evidenced by Pagel's λ values close to 1 (Pagel's λ ranged 0.85 – 0.99) see Table 1 for comparison among all traits. The same trend was seen in both the global medians, global weighted averages, Yang homologs (medians and weighted averages), and BUSCO filtered (medians and weighted averages). All models favored the Brownian motion model over the $\lambda = 0$ model (meaning no phylogenetic signal). Positive delta AICc values were calculated as the likelihood ratio tests with (lnL BM – lnL0) model, and tested with the Chi-square distribution, setting degrees of freedom to one. Positive values indicate the model favoring estimated λ closer to 1, which represents the unaltered phylogenetic tree and negative delta AICc values indicate support for the lambda=0 model. Similar patterns of significant Pagel's λ were displayed using either Median transcriptome N-content or N-content weight averaged

by gene expression. Orthologous subsets, also displayed the same patterns as with values derived from Medians or weighted averages of all proteins (global analysis). We further only explored the data using the median values.

At the scale of the entire MMETPS dataset, there appear to be traits that follow the Brownian model with higher support than random phylogenetic independence using Moran's I autocorrelation index. Moran's I autocorrelation index is typically negative, and when positive indicates that species are more similar than they should be by chance. All traits (NARSC, CARSC, CDS, GC%, NatomCDS, CatomCDS, and NAB3) have positive Moran I values that are greater than the expected at short distances (Table 2), but then the values decrease in similarity with increasing phylogenetic distance (Figure 3). Interestingly, analysis of the Global set of all predicted proteins via Moran's I for NARSC was not significant, but every other variable was highly significant. With filtering of BUSCOs and Yang Homologs the NARSC values were then significant along with the other variables. Regardless of whether medians or weighted NARSC values by their respective TPM values, the results were similar in all but in two cases. BUSCO weighted NARSC and the Yang Homologs weighted NARSC, both were not significant. Other variables were highly significant for Moran's I, indicating correlations among closely related species P values < 0.0001 (Summarized in Table 2).

It was also tested if cell size was correlated to NARSC and CARSC, and the GC content of the transcriptome. NARSC was strongly predicted by the cell size to both minimum and maximum cell equal diameter cells, showing a negative correlation Figure 4. This pattern was found using the larger collection of cell size data that included culture collection information, MMETSP metadata, and literature values (N =

258), and the same pattern was seen for the reduced data only using culture collection and MMETSP metadata (N = 179) summarized in Table 3. Among the larger dataset, the OU model was significantly different from the Brownian model, and a significant correlation of NARSC and minimum cell size (P < 0.0028), maximum cell size (P < 0.0001). Additionally our results show that NARSC of the proteome and high G+C content of the transcriptome have a high and strong positive correlation when phylogenetic signal is removed.

The Stoichiotranscriptome vs. Isolation Habitat

Nitrogen atoms in the residue side chain (NARSC) were analyzed against the environmental nutrient characteristics of the isolate's geographic origin to understand if the NARSC is correlated to the average abundance of inorganic N in that habitat. This may be a proxy for habitats limited in nitrogen (open-ocean) versus habitats rich in nitrogen (coastal-ocean), without having to designate distances or depths from coasts as a measure of nutrient influence. It was also tested if NARSC was correlated to the GC content of the transcriptome as a possible explanation to explain differences. Similarly, the Nitrate: Phosphate ratio was investigated. ANOVA model fitting was used to fit each variable (N, or P) using the Brownian Motion model, the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck (OU model) single additional rate parameter model, and Pagel's lambda transformation. PLGS regression indicated that the OU model supported both (Table 4), and a marginal correlation was found among NARSC proteome values and log transformed oceanic nitrate (df = 256, F = 112531.9, P value = 0.1093) was present. NARSC was found to correlated with G+C content of the transcriptome (df = 256, F = 132521.58, P value <0.0001). In this way, a significant correlation of NARSC to log transformed oceanic

phosphorus was also observed (df = 256, F = 132521.58, *P* value = 0.0452), but not the log Nitrate: Phosphate ratio (df = 256, F = 67305.46, *P* value = 0.2189. This suggests that the N content in the amino acid side chain has a correlation with oceanic phosphate. However, values nitrate and phosphate averages obtained from the Bio-Oracle raster layers were also highly correlated (Pearson correlation = 0.7).

Discussion

Overall Relationship of Stoichiometry to Trophic Strategy

The observed subcellular stoichiometry among the diverse collection of MMETSP transcriptomes, suggests that there are significant differences among trophic strategies with respect to proteomic C. In addition, only the estimated C enrichment per residue side-chain (CARSC) of the proteome but not transcriptome differed significantly among autotrophic, mixotrophic, and heterotrophic strains. Measures of N enrichment per reside side-chain (NARSC) and %G+C content were not significantly different from one another among these groups. This is despite estimates of Pagel's λ , which suggests that NARSC does contain a phylogenetic signal that appears similar to random genetic drift under the Brownian Motion model of trait evolution but is not related to trophic strategy. NARSC appears to be autocorrelated among more closely related species than those distantly related. The possibility that quantitative traits do not match the Brownian model expectation was also tested using the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model that adds an α parameter that represents the pull of the trait toward some optima (Butler and King 2004). Often, the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model is suggested to represent the movement of a random Brownian trait back toward an optimal value, such that it may represent an adaptive peak. The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model can also be thought of as a Brownian Motion model with several lineages moving at different rates. It was observed that the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model had higher statistical support than the purely Brownian Model based on phylogenetic least squares regression. These results suggest that N stoichiometry of the transcriptome/proteome is a random genetic drift process, but may vary within lineages at different rates. It further suggests that it is

evolving in response to some selective pressures. Autocorrelation tests with the Moran's I suggests that N enriched amino acids are similar over short periods of time, meaning species that are more closely related share similar N enrichment scores. This effect was greater at the coding sequence level, where values are high (similar) and become dissimilar with increasing phylogenetic distance. Surprisingly, at great phylogenetic distances, the traits were more similar among species but were not significant except for the N content of the coding sequences. This correlation in deep time may be evidence of differences among the algae groups that acquired either the red and green plastid via endosymbiosis. These difference may be related to the elemental frequency of C, N, P, and trace metals in the biomass of 14 phytoplankton species which Quigg et al. (2010) found grouped by evolutionary inheritance of either the red or green plastid. They found specifically that C:N ratio of Viridiplantae, Chlorophyta, Chlorarachniophyta, and Euglenozoa were higher than other groups, and the N:P ratios were highest in the secondary endosymbiosis of green plastid lineages versus red plastid lineages (Cryptophyta, Haptophyta, Heterokonts, Bacillariophyta, Chrysophyta and Dinophyta). While the C:P chemistry was highest in the Viridiplantae and Chlorophyta. Perhaps the C enrichment of mixotrophs seen in this study of the transcriptomes and proteomes may be the product of similar patterns in C and N elemental composition between the red and green lineages. It is unclear what the stoichiometric pattern of mixotrophs would be in the same analysis, and the kleptoplastidic dinoflagellate in Quigg et al. (2010) study did not group with other red algae plastids that typify dinoflagellates, but grouped near the green algae plastid that it steals.

Mixotrophy is known to have evolved many times, encompassing several different kinds of nutrient acquisition, and is not restricted to any particular microeukaryote phyla (Jones 2000). Mixotrophy can be defined as organisms that strictly obtain dissolved organic compounds (DON, DOP) from the environment, or organisms that phagocytize particles, or organisms that can accomplish both forms (Stoecker 1998, Jones 2000, Burkholder et al. 2008, Hansen 2011, Ward et al. 2011, Glibert et al. 2012, Barton et al. 2013, Wilken et al. 2014). The ecological trade off of acquiring external nutrients and maintaining the photosynthetic apparatus may relate to slower growth rates, low affinity for inorganic nutrients, and slower grazing rates than heterotrophs seen among mixotrophs (Barton et al. 2013). However, these traits are advantageous when inorganic nutrients are low, competition may be reduced among species that depend on higher nutrient concentrations and may be able to maximize their growth under nutrient limiting or light limited conditions. How these traits manifest within the elemental stoichiometry of mixotrophs are largely unknown, and are an active area of research, because they appear to be critical components of C and N cycling in oceanic systems (Hammer and Pitchford 2005).

Perhaps the differences among the red and green plastid clades observed by Quigg et al. (2010) may explain the observed elevated C enriched amino acids in the mixotrophs (Figure 2B), but not why there was not a signal of N content (Figure 2A). This suggests that groups do not differ significantly in their N content, rejecting our first hypothesis. Yet, heterotrophic taxa had a higher enrichment of N in amino acids, and autotrophic and mixotrophic did have lower, matching similar findings of Acquisti et al. (2009a). The enrichment of C atoms in the amino-acid side chains by mixotrophs can be

interpreted in several ways. For example, it might represent a cellular adaptation to unknown selective forces that results in higher C:N rations. Conversely, selective pressures in heterotrophs and autotrophs might result in lower C:N ratios in these groups. The median C-content of the mixotrophic proteomes was higher than the other trophic strategies suggesting mixotrophs have a relaxed selection against incorporating C into amino acids. Another alternative, are differences in codon or amino acid usage. Codon usage among Bacteria and Archaea have been linked to associations to niche breadth, pathogenic or non-pathogenic, and cellular fitness (Botzman and Margalit 2011; Grzymski and Marsh 2014). These studies suggest at least in Bacteria and Archaea that codon usage may be related to their lifestyles as free-living or pathogenic. In one study they found that free-living microorganisms had more repetitive usage of codons than in pathogen species (Grzymski and Marsh 2014). In addition that codon and amino acid usage are akin to similar dialetcs of language among microorganisms. Within eukaryotes, codon bias might also be a function of translation efficiency and protein abundance (Hudson et al. 2011). Additionally bias may arise due to translation efficiency favoring codons that corrrespond to abundant tRNA molecules favoring selective usage (Sharp et al. 1986, Stenico et al. 1994, Moriyama et al. 1997, Musto et al. 2001, Wille and Majewski, 2004). Differences in codons may also arise via nonadapative processes as summarized by Lynch and Conery (2003) or could be the result of selective or neutral processes (Duret 2002). Its thought that large effective population sizes of microorganisms may prevent the evolution of genomic changes because rare allele variants are uncommon. However, many studies of phytoplankton taxa show evidence of reduced population connectivity, in which small populations could

accumulate genetic differences (Rynearson and Armbrust 2004, Casteleyn et al. 2010, Koester et al. 2010, Degerlund et al. 2012, Whittaker et al. 2012, Sjöqvist et al. 2015, Whittaker et al. 2017). Further studies into microeukaryotes may uncover differences associated with codon utilization and may explain the observed differences among the diverse species in the MMETSP dataset.

To examine whether amino acid usage differed with respect to trophic behavior, we examined the average amino acid content of each assembly and grouped by trophic strategy (Supplemental Figure 1). These data did not suggest any obvious trend in this regard. Most of the heterotrophic organisms in the MMETSP are Ciliates (N=25) and Dinoflagellates (N=8) that are currently not known to utilize alternative genetic codons for translation. It has been noted that C content of amino acid side chains in bacteria varied the most, and that N among bacterial proteomes was largely similar (Baudoin-Cornu 2004). The same study suggests large differences among proteomes appear to be correlated with G+C content of the genome even across Domains. The carbon content of the proteome was negatively correlated with high G+C content, suggesting high G+C genomes have low protein carbon. In addition, it is unknown how *de novo in silico* prediction software could influence the codon pattern among samples. Transdecoder uses hexamer frequencies among the transcripts to identify the most likely open reading frame, but itself could be biased in its outputs (Haas et al. 2013).

Ecological Factors Related to NARSC

Previous studies have noted the mismatch or weak signal between ecological parameters of species and their elemental stoichiometry within multicellular organisms (Francois et al. 2016). However, others have found a correlation between the

environmental conditions and the stoichiometry, such as (Grzymski and Dussaq 2012) who found the average number of N atoms per residue side chain was reduced in openocean compared to coastal-ocean microorganisms. The same study reports that N thrift among predicted proteins in metagenome data has a nonlinear relationship with distance from the coast. Nutrient enrichment and variability near the coastal margins are not always enriched due to anthropogenic sources, because coastal upwelling, and natural terrigenous inputs can provide key limiting nutrients promoting phytoplankton growth (Sweeney and Kaplan 1980, Walsh 1991, Galloway et al. 1996, Nixon et al. 1996). Perhaps explaining why the pattern is not always strongly associated with a single chemical component, necessary for growth.

G+C content was positively correlated with measures of N content of the amino acid side chain (NARSC). We expected to find a correlation between the %GC content and the NARSC as shown in a previous study (Elser et al. 2011). Correlations of environmental nitrate and phosphate to NARSC were both negative and significant, and revealed an unexpected correlation to phosphorus (Table 4). The correlation of NARSC to phosphorus may be an effect of the fact that nitrate and phosphate concentrations covary in natural systems (Pearson correlation = 0.7) (Downing, 1997; Tyrrell, 1999). The fact that the N:P ratio was not significantly correlated to NARSC, which is often referenced as a measurement of N or P limitation, would suggest, that higher NARSC values (enriched) would be found in more nutrient poor waters. Taken together with the cell size data, this supports the hypothesis that NARSC of the proteome have an environmental correlation albeit negative one. Larger cells, are favored in coastal, nutrient rich regions that allow potentially fast growth rates, while small-celled

phytoplankton are typical of open-ocean nutrient poor waters where their small size and high surface to area-to-volume ratio favor in reducing physiological costs, high nutrient absorption and a survivalist strategy (Arrigo, 2005). These data suggest that NARSC provides a measurement similar to physiological predictions of Arrigo (2005) who divided plankton into "survivalist", "bloomer" and the "generalist". The survivalists have the highest N:P ratios, the bloomer the lowest, and the generalist have a near balanced Redfield Ratio. The same study proposes that this may be due to physiological differences in how plankton allocates cellular resources (i.e. growth machinery, enzymes, and pigment/proteins), which have different C:N:P ratios.

A limitation of correlating microbes to large-scale environmental data layers is the quality of metadata. Much of the public metadata was incomplete in the MMETSP project with respect to isolation location, depth, and how long strains have been maintained in culture. Depth, for example, can be an important factor as is illustrated by the light-dependent distribution of different ecotypes of *Prochlorococcus* and *Ostreococcus* (Chisholm et al. 1988, Moore and Chisholm 1999, Rocap et al. 2003, García-Fernández et al. 2004, Rodríguez et al. 2005, Martiny et al. 2009). We also note that the Bio-Oracle data layers used here are only interpolated at the surface representing 0-10 meters. Yet, many of the Prasinophytes from the RCC culture collection, for example, were collected at various depths in the Indian Ocean, where they likely experienced a range of nutrient conditions due to the depth dependent abundance of N and P in the water column. How quickly the stoichiometry of cultivated phytoplankton responds to cultivation conditions is unknown. Evidence from domesticated plants suggests removal of the selective pressure of N-limiting conditions,

thereby allowing for an enrichment of amino acids in comparison to non-crop plants (Acquisti et al. 2009a).

Potential Strategies to Conserve Nitrogen

Data presented here does not support the notion that N-limitation plays a role in shaping the proteomes or transcriptome of marine protists and phytoplankton, but did indicate that the N-content of proteome appear to correlate with environmental nutrient concentrations. Nitrogen, carbon and G+C content among the MMETSP species were found to by phylogenetically conserved among similar species. Our study did find that a significant negative correlation of the nutrient environment and N content of the isolates in the MMETSP dataset. We hypothesized that autotrophic organisms should be depleted in N-containing bases and amino acids relative to heterotrophs, and mixotrophs. We found that autotrophs and mixotrophs had lower N-stoichiometry than heterotrophs but did not differ significantly from autotrophs. The finding of significant differences in C stoichiometry among the MMETPS trophic strategies may indicate differences in codon usage, and thus fundamental differences in phytoplankton physiology. Previous studies have also found that phytoplankton members differ in the macromolecular composition and abundance of proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, ash, RNA, chlorophyll-a and DNA (Finkel et al. 2016). They found strong support of statistical differences among C and N that seem to correspond to previous records. The potential mismatch between our results and Finkel et al (2016) may be rooted in the balance of rRNA and protein synthesis, which might impact the ratio of N:P of the major cellular constituents growing in balance at maximal growth rates (Loladze and Elser 2011).

Relation to Stoichiogenomics and Future Directions

This study rejects the hypothesis that variability exists in N enrichment of amino acid side-chain residues. This contradicts the foundational papers in stoichiogenomics (Acquisti et al. 2009a, Acquisti et al. 2009b, Elser et al. 2011) and suggests that the evolutionary forces driving stoichiogenomics are not yet sufficiently understood. An investigation of subterranean and surface-dwelling isopod species found no evidence that environmental N availability corresponded to the elemental composition of the proteome or transcriptome (Francois et al. 2016). Among species pairs they investigated, there were no significant effects of habitat or N availability in prey. We also did not find evidence that N-limitation shapes the evolution of phytoplankton and protist proteomes, but that they did differ in the C content akin to the findings of (Baudouin-Cornu et al. 2004) who studied genomes among the three domains of life. How the C content of the amino acid side chains compares among isopods to this study of C differences among phytoplankton is unknown (Francois et al. 2016). This contradicts the predictions of the stoichiogenomic framework, that biases may arise in amino acids and nucleic acids because they differ in number of key macroelements (C, N, S, P, O, H) and that through selection due to resource limitation should reduce or deplete its' abundance in the organism to maximize fitness. Evolution of proteins could instead be due to non-adaptive mechanisms such as found Günther et al. (2013), where genetic drift was the primary driver and not nutrient limitation. Future studies should also seek to identify physiological differences among phytoplankton in terms of their proportion of growth machinery (i.e. ribosomes), and the proportion of resource acquisition machinery. This may be achieved by annotation of common or

phylogenetically conserved metabolic pathways, but will require additional sequenced genomes to aid in protein finding. Also because transcriptomes represent all possible transcripts under a specific set of growth conditions, it may not be truly representative of genomic potential. Although we see stoichiogenomics as an additional way to look at the biology of marine protists in order to dissect their complex biology, we are cautious in our interpretations of such a young field of study with few experimental manipulations to rule out other causes of amino acid enrichment. Experimental manipulation and side-by-side comparison to elemental stoichiometry of phytoplankton may uncover the reasoning behind the observed stoichiometric differences.

Acknowledgements

Funding for this project was in part provided by the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation as part of the Marine Micro-Eukaryote Transcriptome Project (MMETSP), and in part via grants from the National Science Foundation (OCE 0961900 & OCE 1634630). We would also like to thank Henry Neeman at the OU Supercomputing Center for Education & Research for informatics support.

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FIGURES:

Figure 1. Resolved and time calibrated phylogeny of MMETSP samples based on nearly complete 18S rRNA sequences. Red and Green plastid lineages are colored in red and green respectively. Time in represented in millions of years and dates represent major geologic periods.



Figure 2. (A) This figure shows boxplots of the overall NARSC values among the Trophic strategies, the red line behind the boxplot identifies the median among all NARSC values. (B) This shows a boxplot with overall CARSC values among all Trophic strategies. The red line behind both figures represents the median of the values within NARSC and CARSC.





Figure 3. Moran's I correlogram showing median values of all MMETSP transcriptome and proteomes. Phylogenetic distance is represented in time (mya). Filled circles represent significant Moran's I, while unfilled are non-significant. NARSC shows trend upward indicating more similarity at shorter branches/time. The other measurements show gradual phylogenetic dissimilarity with time. Only CARSC is significant over long distances. Measurements of N and C stoichiometry show a trend of nonsignificance with larger phylogenetic distances.



Moran's I Phylogenetic Correlogram

Phylogenetic Distance

Figure 4. PGLS regression of cell size data with complete literature cases and limited to values obtained from cell culture facilities with the OU model favored. A and B represent the maximum and minimum cell diameter of culture collection, metadata and literature values (N= 258). C and D illustrate the reduced dataset only using culture collection and provided metadata N=179). Significance of the regression plotted on corner of each.



Figure 5: PGLS regression of natural log transformed nitrate and phosphate concentrations to median NARSC, of the MMETSP proteomes and untransformed G+C content of the transcriptome (OU model). (A) Correlation of NARSC and environmental nitrate, (B) Correlation of NARSC and G+C content of the transcriptome. (C) Correlation of NARSC and environmental phosphate, and (D) Correlation of NARSC and Nitrate:Phosphate ratio. Significance of the regression plotted on corner of each.


TABLES

Table 1. A Median calculated values of transcriptome and proteome traits. B. Weighted average values by gene expression (TPM). Phylogenetic signal between traits assessed on the global MMETSP dataset and using Pagel's λ . Values of $\lambda = 1$ suggest the trait has phylogenetic signal and the positive Δ AICc describes the model difference between the BM (Brownian Model) and a Star phylogeny representing no signal. Positive Δ AICc are indicating that $\lambda \neq 0$ and the more complex (BM) model is preferred. NARSC: Number of Nitrogen atoms in the amino acid residue side-chain, while CARSC Number of carbon atoms in the amino acid residue side-chain, GC: guanine+cytosine percent, NAB3: nitrogen content of the 3rd codon position in the open reading frame.

A					B				
	Global All	Predicted	Proteins	(n=341)		Global All	Predicted	Proteins	(n=341)
	Traits	λ	P value	ΔAICc		Traits	λ	P value	ΔAICc
	NARSC	0.92	< 0.0001	145.25		NARSC	0.85	< 0.0001	184.62
	CARSC	0.99	< 0.0001	184.13		CARSC	0.96	< 0.0001	299.36
	GC	0.99	< 0.0001	239.35		GC	0.99	< 0.0001	343.18
	NatomCDS	0.95	< 0.0001	191.95		NatomCDS	0.86	< 0.0001	188.55
	CatomCDS	1	< 0.0001	222.64		CatomCDS	0.99	< 0.0001	282.03
	NAB3	0.98	< 0.0001	221.47		NAB3	0.93	< 0.0001	284.35
	BUSC	41)		BUSC	CO Homol	ogs (n=3	41)		
	Traits	λ	P value	ΔAICc		Traits	λ	P value	ΔAICc
	NARSC	0.85	< 0.0001	177.24		NARSC	0.81	< 0.0001	75.29
	CARSC	0.97	< 0.0001	455.43		CARSC	0.92	< 0.0001	308.45
	GC	1	< 0.0001	312.21		GC	0.99	< 0.0001	294.59
	NatomCDS	0.94	< 0.0001	237.62		NatomCDS	0.93	< 0.0001	199.41
	CatomCDS	1	< 0.0001	310.25		CatomCDS	0.99	< 0.0001	252.17
	NAB3	0.97	< 0.0001	248.85		NAB3	0.92	< 0.0001	249.44
	Yan	g Homolo	gs (n=34)	1)		Yan	g Homolo	gs (n=34)	1)
	Traits	λ	P value	ΔAICc		Traits	λ	P value	ΔAICc
	NARSC	0.94	< 0.0001	286.99		NARSC	0.9	< 0.0001	212.92
	CARSC	0.97	< 0.0001	431.28		CARSC	0.95	< 0.0001	339.41
	GC	1	< 0.0001	310.73		GC	0.99	< 0.0001	296.77
	NatomCDS	0.96	< 0.0001	256.12		NatomCDS	0.96	< 0.0001	263.01
	CatomCDS	1	< 0.0001	304.08		CatomCDS	0.99	< 0.0001	249.79
	NAB3	0.98	< 0.0001	272.16		NAB3	0.96	< 0.0001	288.94

Table 2. Values of Moran's I among Medians and Weighted Averages (SD = standard deviation). Values in gray boxes were not significant. Positive observed values indicate the tips of the phylogeny more similar in value than by chance. Top boxes show all proteins, then filtered to contain BUSCO homologs. The last row represents the all proteins filtered to include Yang and Smith homologs

Moran's I	Phylogene	etic Autoco	orrelation	Medians	Moran's I Phylogenetic Autocorrelation Weighted by Average TPM							
Globa	al All Pred	licted Prot	eins (n=3	41)	Global All Predicted Proteins (n=341)							
Traits	Observed	Expected	SD	P value	Traits	Observed	Expected	SD	P value			
NARSC	0.043	-0.003	0.03	0.1306	NARSC	0.059	-0.003	0.03	0.039			
CARSC	0.116	-0.003	0.03	0.0001	CARSC	0.118	-0.003	0.03	0.0001			
GC	0.1	-0.003	0.03	0.0007	GC	0.104	-0.003	0.03	0.0004			
NatomCDS	0.153	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001	NatomCDS	0.131	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001			
CatomCDS	0.094	-0.003	0.03	0.0014	CatomCDS	0.088	-0.003	0.03	0.0027			
NAB3	0.121	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001	NAB3	0.108	-0.003	0.03	0.0003			
	BUSCO H	Iomologs	(n=341)		BUSCO Homologs (n=341)							
Traits	Observed	Expected	SD	P value	Traits	Observed	Expected	SD	P value			
NARSC	0.059	-0.003	0.03	0.0408	NARSC	0.038	-0.003	0.03	0.1643			
CARSC	0.118	-0.003	0.03	0.0001	CARSC	0.102	-0.003	0.03	0.0005			
GC	0.088	-0.003	0.03	0.0027	GC	0.081	-0.003	0.03	0.0056			
NatomCDS	0.141	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001	NatomCDS	0.145	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001			
CatomCDS	0.084	-0.003	0.03	0.0044	CatomCDS	0.072	-0.003	0.03	0.0136			
NAB3	0.117	-0.003	0.03	0.0001	NAB3	0.13	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001			
	Yang Ho	omologs (r	n=341)			Yang Ho	omologs (n	=341)				
Traits	Observed	Expected	SD	P value	Traits	Observed	Expected	SD	P value			
NARSC	0.079	-0.003	0.03	0.0068	NARSC	0.026	-0.003	0.03	0.3305			
CARSC	0.126	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001	CARSC	0.114	-0.003	0.03	0.0001			
GC	0.09	-0.003	0.03	0.0023	GC	0.089	-0.003	0.03	0.0025			
NatomCDS	0.175	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001	NatomCDS	0.168	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001			
CatomCDS	0.084	-0.003	0.03	0.0043	CatomCDS	0.075	-0.003	0.03	0.0099			
NAB3	0.131	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001	NAB3	0.143	-0.003	0.03	< 0.0001			

Table 3. PGLS correlations among the different evolutionary models tested, and NARSC. A.) Includes all available cell size data from culture collections, MMETSP metadata, and literature. B.) Data filtered to include only data from culture collections and deposited MMETSP metadata. All models favored the OU model. The Phy-ANOVA testing of the OU model is below each correlation along with its *P*-value.

	a 11	<i>a</i> ·	-
AII	Cell	Size	Data

NARSC correlated to log(MaxLength)

A		Model df		AIC	BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
	Brownian Motion	1	3	2110.956	2121.615	-1052.4782			
	Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2	4	-1440.645	-1426.433	724.3225	1vs 2	3553.601	<.0001
	Pagel's Lambda	3	4	-1409.234	-1395.022	708.617			

Ornstein Uhlenbeck model ANOVA df=256, F-value 112531.9, P value < 0.0028

NARSC correlated log(MinLength)

	Model df		AIC	BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
Brownian Motion	1	3	2113.989	2124.648	-1053.9946			
Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2	4	-1443.431	-1429.219	725.7156		3559.42	<.0001
Pagel's Lambda	3	4	-1409.509	-1395.298	708.7547			

Ornstein Uhlenbeck model ANOVA df=256, F-value 114256.51, P value < 0.0006

Culture Collection and Metadata only

B

NARSC correlated to log(MaxLength)

	Model df	AIC	BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
Brownian Motion	1	3 1512.4288	1521.9909	-753.2144			
Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2	4 -973.3645	-960.6149	490.6822		2487.793	<.0001
Pagel's Lambda	3	4 -954.1756	-941.4261	481.0878			

Ornstein Uhlenbeck model ANOVA df=256, F-value 69188.24, P value <0.0079

NARSC correlated log(MinLength)

	Model	df	1	AIC	BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
Brownian Motion	1		3	1509.4261	1518.9882	-751.713			
Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2		4	-979.7756	-967.0261	493.8878		2491.202	<.0001
Pagel's Lambda	3		4	-957.433	-944.6835	482.7165			

Ornstein Uhlenbeck model ANOVA df=256, F-value 71900.8, P value < 0.0003

Table 4. A. PGLS correlation of NARSC as the dependent variable on the independent log (nitrate) of the ocean of its original isolation, extracted from GIS layers. B. PGLS correlation of NARSC as the dependent variable on the independent log (phosphate) of the ocean of its original isolation extracted from GIS layers.

Prote	ome Median									
	NARSC correlated to log	g Nitrate								
Α		Model	df	AIC		BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
	Brownian Motion	1		3 241	8.611	2429.662	-1206.3054			
	Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2	4	4 -163	9.671	-1624.937	823.8356	1vs 2	4060.282	< 0.0001
	Pagel's Lambda	3	4	4 -1612	2.842	-1598.107	810.4209			
	Ornstein Uhlenbeck mod NARSC correlated to G+	lel ANOV	A df=256, F	value 1	12531.	.9, P value <	0.0001			
B		Model	df	AIC		BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
	Brownian Motion	1		3 211	4.271	2124.929	-1054.1352			
	Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2	4	4 -14	475.9	-1461.688	741.9499	1vs 2	3592.17	<.0001
	Pagel's Lambda	3	4	4 -147	0.545	-1456.333	739.2726			

Ornstein Uhlenbeck model ANOVA df=256, F-value 132521.58, P value <0.0001

NARSC correlated to log Phosphate

С		Model df		AIC	BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
	Brownian Motion	1	3	2109.573	2120.232	-1051.7867			
	Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2	4	-1439.106	-1424.894	723.553	1vs 2	3550.679	<.0001
	Pagel's Lambda	3	4	-1409.784	-1395.572	708.8919			

Ornstein Uhlenbeck model ANOVA df=256, F-value 111951.33, P value 0.0065

NARSC correlated to log Nitrate: Phosphate

D		Model df		AIC	BIC	logLik	Test	L.Ratio	p-value
	Brownian Motion	1	3	1519.0959	1528.6581	-756.548			
	Ornstein Uhlenbeck	2	4	-967.734	-954.9845	487.867	1vs 2	2488.83	<.0001
	Pagel's Lambda	3	4	-953.7003	-940.9508	480.8501			

Ornstein Uhlenbeck model ANOVA df=256, F-value 67305.46, P value 0.2189

Chapter 4: A Case Study Approach To Teaching Introductory Biology Undergraduates The Application Of Genomic Data Analysis In Ecological Studies.

Preface

Case studies are an effective way to introduce students to material and engage them in exploration of that material in an active learning environment (Herreid, 2007). A long-time component of medical and legal education, the case study teaching method has recently become a growing force in STEM education. Case studies have been developed and demonstrated to be effective platforms to teach core introductory biology concepts ranging from pedigrees to ecosystem change (NCCSTS 2017; Herreid, 2007; Herreid et al., 2014). Interrupted case studies in particular are an excellent format that creates a dynamic educational environment that requires student/audience participation and peer learning (Udovic et al., 2002; Herreid, 2006; Herreid, 2007). Students may unknowingly be familiar to this type of teaching through the case study approach often used in serial medical and legal television programs whose format mimics the progressive approach to discovery and learning inherent in interrupted case studies. The audience and students are presented with a story, (i.e., problem) and are taken on a journey to figure out the answer and reach a logical conclusion from collected data. Application of this approach take a process-oriented approaches to understanding instead of relying on simple, lower order learning (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 2002).

One topic that this approach can be applied to is students' understanding of molecular biology and correcting misconceptions about the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology. This is particularly problematic because the growing use of

bioinformatics and "big data" approaches to solve complex biological problems requires a thorough understanding of the fundamental principles described by the Central Dogma. The importance of this topic has been highlighted in the Vision and Change guidelines (AAAS, 2011) which state that all undergraduates should be able to understand the "Information Flow, Exchange and Storage" core concepts as they relate to the growth and behavior of an organism based on gene expression, how scientists analyze large datasets, and the "Living systems are interconnected and interacting" core concept (AAAS, 2011).

This case study is a dilemma-based case that uses the harmful bloom-forming and toxin producing dinoflagellate *Karenia brevis* a.k.a. "Florida red tide" to teach and probe students' understanding of different aspects of the Central Dogma of Genomics (Pevsner, 2015), an extension of the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology (Crick, 1958) representing the bioinformatic and sequencing tools that undergraduates need to understand to tackle 21st Century questions in molecular biology (Figure 1.).

We developed a case study that uses a systems biology approach to explore how the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology and Dogma of Genomics can be used to understand a common event that occurs on an almost yearly cycle. Cases with real world examples provide effective constructs to help students understand abstract concepts like the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology through application to a tangible modern example (Herreid, 2007). This case also addresses specific deficiencies identified in the Vision and Change Call to Action (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 2011) outlining essential content and competencies relating to the canonical Central Dogma of Molecular Biology.

This case study and teaching notes have been formatted for submission to the National Center for Case Study Teaching and Education. The PowerPoint slides that will be submitted with the case are provided in the Appendix.

Case Teaching Notes

For

Transcriptome of the Toxic Tide: How can biology and computer science lead toward a deeper understanding of systems biology?

By

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Keyword: Algae, Bioinformatics, Transcriptome, gene expression, ecology, harmful algae, ecophysiology

Education Level: Undergraduate Biology, Upper Division, Ecology and Environmental Science,

Format: PowerPoint

Type/Method: Clicker, Interrupted

Language: English

Subject Headings: Biology, Bioinformatics, Ecology

Introduction

Bioinformatics is a growing field that requires knowledge of biology, computer programming and statistics in an effort to solve complex biological problems and analyze large datasets. Introducing undergraduate biology majors to the rapidly advancing field of bioinformatics and "big data" are important to demonstrate research and career possibilities to them that merge biology, math and computer science. This case helps students become familiar with terminology such as genome, transcriptome, proteome, and metabolome that are common in bioinformatics research (Pevsner, 2015).

This case study is a "clicker case" that combines the use of personal student response systems (e.g., iClicker) with an interrupted case format to allow students to be interactive with the material. A PowerPoint slide show is used to combine brief amounts of lecture material to establish and guide the case's direction with interspersed questions. The case is delivered in short interrupted blocks, with time for students to respond to "clicker questions" and then allowed to see all respondent results. This allows a brief discussion of any misconceptions identified by the questions to aide students. This case is based on real data from an experiment (Cooper, unpublished) investigating the transcriptome response to nitrogen or phosphorus limitation in *Karenia brevis*, a toxic dinoflagellate. The case asks students to think about how organisms respond to their environments at the cellular level using RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) transcriptome profiling. Transcriptome profiling is a powerful tool for studying global gene expression and gene content (genomic potential) of any organism. Previously most gene expression studies were limited to model organisms that have sequenced genomes

such as (*Drosophila melanogaster*, *Homo sapiens*, *Mus musculus*, and *Arabidopsis thaliana*) and because they were well studied, with annotated proteins. But now, because any organism's transcriptome can be sequenced, scientists can investigate how non-model organisms respond to stress.

Objectives

Upon completing of this case, students should have improved understanding how the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology applies to bioinformatic tools, and how it can be used to understand an organism's physiology. Specifically, should:

- Identify the correct sequence of the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology
- Describe what genomic technologies are used to study each kind of biomolecule (DNA, RNA, Protein, Metabolites).
- Understand that expressed genome via the transcribed transcriptome and translated proteome represent an organism's complex phenotype.
- Recognize that cellular pathways are not unidirectional, and that components can end up in multiple cellular pools.
- Discuss how nutrient stress is associated with *Karenia* life cycle and how an organism's gene expression may give clues to when the bloom has run out of growth supporting nutrients by expressing stress related messages.
- Compose a simplified newsletter, white paper or news article about the Town Hall meeting covering the major points that residents would like to know.

Outcome

Stress influences gene expression above/beyond/lower than normal.

All organisms do not respond in the same way.

All genes are not expressed/over-expressed

Competency

Correctly interpreting transcriptome data, and knowing the limitations.

Misconceptions Addressed

Public perception of Florida red tide events gleaned from newspapers (1987-2012) are often framed as environmental risk stories but do not highlight the impacts to public health or economic loss either regionally or locally (Li *et al.*, 2015). Thus local newspapers can amplify risks when they act as creditable information sources regarding perceived fear of red tides. Also, another study found that knowledge gaps exist in local populations affected by red tide events, where locals and tourists can have similar misperceptions (Nierenberg *et al.*, 2010). Using these references we identified misconceptions that could be highlighted, including misconceptions in the core concept standards of information flow and cells as systems identified by AAAS (2011).

- Red tides are Harmful Algal Blooms (HABs) and are not always red (General Misconception to all red tides and HABs.
- Anthropogenic nutrient loading through increased nitrogen or phosphorus does not explain all HAB events.
- The Florida red tide is caused by a microscopic photosynthetic toxin-producing dinoflagellate native to the Gulf of Mexico and is not a bacterium like *Vibrio*, that may cause similar shellfish poisonings.
- Transcription of genes does not mean they will be translated.

• Not all of the genome is expressed at the same time and not all of the genome is expressed under the same conditions.

Background

This case study is centered on the *Karenia brevis* a dinoflagellate alga native to the Gulf of Mexico, where it can form dense aggregations also referred to as "blooms" under certain conditions (Vargo *et al.*, 2008, Steidinger, 2009, Vargo, 2009). Here we describe that unlike other toxic algae such as *Karenia brevis*, is actually a native species to the Gulf of Mexico and has been there since at least the 1500's based on early Spanish sailor accounts of fish kills presumed to be *Karenia* near Floridian waters. This is a good example to show students that not all problematic algae blooms are caused by invasive species.

The case explores how researchers can use genomic "big data" and the ecology of an organism to study how it's cells and pathways function together and how those internal cellular pathways scale up to ecosystem level processes like nitrate assimilation. The systems biology approach to studying the smallest component of a system to understand how its put together with others in larger systems.

This story is built around the instructor acting as the organizer of a town hall meeting among residents in a hypothetical coastal town in Florida where red tide events have been occurring. The dilemma is that red tide events seem to be happening every year now, and their duration from start and finish is getting longer. *Karenia brevis* has been studied for 50+ years in Florida after the first bloom and fish kill was reported in the late 1940s (Brand and Compton 2007, Steidinger 2009, Brand et al. 2012). Over time, researchers have discovered the ecology of this one species is very complex, and

that no direct relationship of its abundance can be tied directly to any single anthropogenic cause. This case is effective because it contains human and societal issues that can engage students beyond just memorizing facts. *Karenia* can produce several similar neurotoxins that can impair or be lethal to some marine life and can cause serve respiratory effects in humans (Kirkpatrick *et al.*, 2004; Backer, 2009; Landsberg *et al.*, 2009; Brand *et al.*, 2012; Fauquier *et al.*, 2013; Sipler *et al.*, 2014). The town hall setting helps to get students to participate as if they were a member of that community, rather it be a seasonal resident, homeowner, concerned citizen or even as a reporter for the local newspaper.

The story starts with an ecologist, Dr. Sally Harris from, the Florida Fish and Wildlife Commission (FFWC) who serves as our ecological expert in all things relate to *Karenia brevis*. In the second half of the story, Dr. Harris introduces Dr. Mateo Edwards who is the lead researcher at a fictional biotechnology company working closely with FFWC to develop ways to predict and track the "health" or physiological status of bloom events with new molecular tools. Dr. Edwards then explains the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology and how it relates to bioinformatic approaches being used to investigate these types of ecological phenomena. The part of the case with Dr. Edwards helps students explore how transcriptomes can be used to study organism's adaptations and how information is transferred in cells. Understanding their response to environmental stressors can help us understand how they survive and persist, how and when they make the toxins, and predict when they might terminate or dissipate.

Classroom Management/Blocks of Analysis

This case study has been used in large introductory-level biology classes of 150-350 students. Students work together in self-assembled groups of 4-6 people sitting in their immediate areas. Each student has their own clicker to respond to questions but students are encouraged to talk with neighbors about the correct choice. This case can be taught in a 50-minute period. Prior to teaching this case, students should have familiarity with fundamental concepts related to ecosystems and trophic relations among the abiotic pools as a source of energy to higher trophic levels.

Teaching the Case

The case presentation contains photographs, graphs, illustrations and text slides. The case is appropriate for use in units on ecology, pollution, and cell biology. The instructor will help guide the case, beginning as a moderator of the meeting to establish the dialog of two guest speakers who are presenting information about *Karenia* to the public.

Questions

There are additional resources after the case. The end of the case allows for the instructor to task students with finding more information about connecting the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology together in a diagram. Also you ask them to think when you would you want to use different types of 'Omics technologies? And lastly, to incorporate another level of systems biology thinking, you can have them look up the nitrate assimilation pathway and ask them why do organisms need nitrogen and phosphorus? The short answer is to make new DNA, RNA, amino acids and proteins.

And the assimilation pathway will be connected to the TCA cycle through 2oxoglutarate and Glutamine/Glutamate synthetase. The phosphorus cell needed are used for activating proteins phosphorylate proteins to become active, but also to make new ATP.

Slides

Prologue: The instructor should start by describing the scenario as a public meeting between home owners, vacation home renters and tourists interested in the red tide events occurring outside. The instructor can play the role of the meeting organizer, and tell the students that an ecologist "Sally" or "Dr. Sally" from the Department of Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation is there to tell them about the frequency red tides residents have seen lately. The instructor can also foreshadow that Dr. Sally has invited a colleague she has been working with at BioMarkerX a biotechnology company to describe his new approaches to try and monitor *Karenia* blooms.

Slide 1: Title slide

Slide 2: Acting as the meeting organizer the slide establishes the case as a town hall meeting with local residents in a hypothetical coastal town that has experienced a number of red tides events this year and are concerned about how it affects their communities and what is being done about it.

Slide 3: This slide introduces the meeting agenda as an outline to the case study and introduces two guests that will be presenting information about *Karenia* to the meeting. Slide 4: Tell students that these questions were submitted by residents beforehand. Ask students to discuss questions they might have in their groups.

Slide 5: These slides outline case study with questions submitted by residents prior to the meeting.

Slide 6: Use this slide to transition to the first clicker questions

Slide 7-9: Survey clicker questions allow students to work in groups and discuss as they answer. These questions help to identify misconceptions students may have prior to the case study, if they have ever heard of red tides before. It also makes them think about what concern they would have about what they might affect.

Slide 10: Picture of red tide on slide 10 used as a background for brief discussions to take place. This is a general picture of a red tide event; however additional photographs may be included of the "Florida red tide" to make it more specific. Use this slide to show them that bloom events are large, and can affect many areas simultaneously. Slide 11 to 23: These slides are for Dr. Harris to discuss the ecology information and answers to the FAQs by the residents about the red tide and HABs in general. Dr. Sally Harris works for the Florida Wildlife Conservation Commission (FWCC) where she is a wildlife management ecologist that is an expert in the ecology of *Karenia brevis*. And the FWCC has been developing new strategies to determine the "health" of blooms, in hopes of predicting when they might disappear.

Slide 12: This slide emphasizes that although algae form the base of aquatic food webs, too many algae can actually be disastrous. Not all algae are the same, so highlight that these pictures show a diversity of different types of microscopic algae imaged with scanning electron microscopy.

Slide 13: Use this slide to show students that the term red tide is out dated and that not all red tides are actually red! Instead Sally calls them Harmful Algal Blooms (HABs).

Slide 14: Additional information regarding HABs in general. Most HAB events are typically linked to enhanced nutrient loading in aquatic ecosystems, which are usually reported in the news. This is a set up to make them think that *Karenia* is linked to nutrients like most HABs. However, they will find out that it is not. Slide 15: Use this slide to show how large HAB events can large spatial scale, thereby affecting thousands of residents. This is a freshwater example of Lake Erie and the green swirls south of Canada on left is the algal bloom of the cyanobacteria *Microcystis aeruginosa*..

Slide 16: Here Sally describes that not all HABs make toxins, but they can use up so much oxygen in the nighttime that they can deplete water of oxygen killing fish. Here we are introducing algae "resting cells" that can go dormant, waiting for better conditions. Some algae have a bet-hedging strategy to survive when conditions become unfavorable by creating resting cells or spores. These spores or cells can be rejuvenated or awakened when favorable conditions return. This will be brought up again in a few slides, when talking about *Karenia's* life cycle.

Slide 17: This slide illustrates the factors that can influence algae growth, and the animated boxes will show them biotic factors that can limit their growth by herbivory, but fish waste, and zooplankton excretion can promote. But, focus on the abiotic factors that promote their growth and that cycles of dissolved nutrients and trophic interactions are not always linear. Many come back to the same pool of recycled nitrogen that can again promote algae (phytoplankton).

Slide 18: Introduce the organism *Karenia brevis*, a small unicellular photosynthetic alga. *Karenia* makes several toxins of which the major two are illustrated on the left.

Tell them, these toxins are some of the most complex toxins we know. The toxins are polyether neurotoxins that bind to voltage-sensitive sodium channels in cellular membranes found in muscle and neural tissues. The toxin binds the sodium channel in the membrane resulting persistent activation of the neuron, skeletal or cardiac cells (http://www.nmfs.noaa.gov/pr/pdfs/health/brevetoxin.pdf).

Slide 19: Use this slide to illustrate that *Karenia* is a native and not an invasive species. Also those red tides in Florida have been around for a long time. Early records of Spanish explorers noted fish kills off the west coast of present day Florida and the appearance of "saw dust" on the waters surface. The "saw dust" is thought to represent the N-fixing cyanobacteria *Trichodesmium* that co-occurs with *Karenia*, and the fish kills potentially caused by *Karenia*. This slide sets up the students to think *Karenia* blooms mostly near two large cities on the west coast. They might think blooms could be linked to runoff or pollution from cities.

Slide 20: This slide describes the general life cycle of *Karenia* brevis. Highlight that the question marks represent a possible resting cell stage, which has not been seen before, but many think it makes resting cells when conditions become unfavorable. These may be prevalent when the blooms disappear, and could be why they may reappear suddenly if conditions for growth improve awakening them from "dormancy". Key elements of its life cycle include haploid adult cells go through mitotic division to grow (asexual reproduction). Cells that are reproductive form gamete like cells that can fuse to form a diploid zygote cell, which may become a resting spore. When conditions become favorable again for growth, resting cells hatch, go through meiosis to form four daughter haploid cells, returning to haploid mitotic growth.

Slide 21: Describe the toxin effects on human and marine life. This is a transition to the set up the next slide, where Dr. Harris will show them how nutrient stress may increase toxicity. Also highlight that local shellfish's can be contaminated by eating the algae cells, so they are not safe to eat if locally caught during a bloom event; however shellfish from grocery stores are not contaminated. This can be a way to address a misconception and perceived fear about *Karenia* blooms reported in the media. Slide 22: This slide is used to show students that with a single species, some individuals produce more toxin than others, and that nutrient limitation, in particular P-limitation seems to simulate higher toxin production. Use this slide to get the students to buy in to the reasoning for investigating the toxic tide.

Slide 23: Ask students to summarize Sally's main points of the ecology of Karenia. This slide is used to get students to engage in part of the case story.

Slide 24: These are Dr. Harris' major points to emphasize. These will be important for students to be thinking about when they are planning and designing the transcriptome experiment. Here the idea that abiotic factors that limit growth can be used to stress algae and determine their physiological response.

Slide 25: Introduce Dr. Mateo Edwards, who is a lead researcher at a hypothetical company called BioMarkerX. He will be telling them about the transcriptome of *Karenia*.

Slide 26: Mateo uses this slide to talk about nitrogen cycling in marine systems, focusing on the nutrient state and support of phytoplankton communities, which *Karenia* is a member of. Highlight that microorganisms control the conversions among forms of nitrogen into forms that can fuel phytoplankton communities, and that those

nutrients from dying phytoplankton get recycled and returned. Mateo should say, "So by understanding the microbes that convert the different forms of nitrogen we can understand how the system works."

Slide 27: This slide summarizes 50+ years of research on *Karenia brevis*. Dr. Edwards will be presenting this stepped animation that Sally worked on with him. Use this slide to highlight that HAB are complex and not one single factor is responsible for causing and maintaining blooms.

- Blooms start 10-50 off shore in nutrient depleted waters, where Saharan Dust rich in iron particles blows across into the eastern Gulf of Mexico where it fuels blooms of the Nitrogen fixing cyanobacteria *Trichodesmium* (Tricho)
- When "Tricho" is actively fixing atmospheric Nitrogen, it leaks dissolved ammonium, other dissolved organic nitrogen sources, that phytoplankton like *Karenia* can feed on. *Karenia* can also eat the cyanobacteria as well.
- 3. At the same time, deep upwelling of dissolved nitrates from the bottom rise up and also fuel *Karenia*'s growth, albeit slow.
- 4. Wind and ocean currents blow *Karenia* toward the coasts where the waters become shallower and cyanobacteria die off, releasing again more dissolved nutrients and concentrates their populations, forming a dense bloom.
- 5. On the coast, *Karenia* cells may get crushed on the beaches or break releasing e exposing toxins to marine life and humans.
- 6. Toxins may lead to fish kills, which promote more growth of *Karenia* as the decay fish release sources of dissolved nitrogen and phosphorus.

- If people eat local shellfish they too can become poisoned with Amnesic shellfish poisoning
- 8. Local outflow from agriculture and natural sources of phosphate from rivers may help the bloom to continue to persist.
- This slide shows that HABs can be complex interactions of environmental and biological factors with many inputs and not a single direct cause.

Slide 28: This slide is used to introduce the cell as a system, akin to the nitrogen cycle. Emphasize and reinforce the cell as a system, within inputs (nutrients) and outputs, except that constituents of metabolism can go in many directions and are not always linear. Highlight for the students to see that the building blocks (N and P) are input into the cell across membranes to be transformed into new products, and that cellular pathways are not unidirectional or linear. Also show outputs, because the cells release components just as they uptake them.

Slide 29: At this point, the presentation steps outside the case study and transitions to a discussion some key points about gene expression

Slide 30: Clicker Question.

Slide 31: This slide describes eukaryotic genes and how they are fundamental to understanding what an organism is doing at the cellular level. Information about cellular activity can be seen in transcription and translation.

Slide 32: This slide asks students to sort these 5 boxes into the correct sequence. The next three slides explore the Central Dogma.

Slide 33: Clicker Question.

Slide 34: This slide describes the sequence that forms the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology and the corresponding concepts that form the Central Dogma of Genomics on the right.

Slide 35: Transition back to the case study

Slide 36. This slide is used to ask the students to generate ideas about what they would do for a genomics experiment. Give the students time to discuss as a class or small groups on the design and different aspects of the experiment including determining the control and treatments. They should also make predictions about the outcome of the experiment and what it could tell them.

Slide 37: This slide is used for Dr. Edwards to explain why this company is using the transcriptome of *Karenia brevis* to understand its biology in relation to nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorus). This should reflect some of the ideas generated during the discussion.

Slide 38: In this slide Dr. Edwards is explaining that transcription is dynamic and expressions of genes are not always on or off like a light switch. Instead, gene expression is more like a light dimmer in that lights (genes) are at least always on but at very low levels and can be up-regulated or down-regulated to give variable levels of expression. Also like the string of lights, each gene might each have its own dimmer switch or could be connected to other genes sharing the same switch. Slide 39: In this slide, Dr. Edwards predicts what genes might be affected by nutrient

Slide 40: This slide explains the nutrient stress experiment Dr. Edwards conducted. They grew *Karenia* under 3 different conditions, with a control and an N-limited and P-

limitation in *Karenia* based on previous research in other algae.

limited condition in 1 liter of seawater. These pictures show the starting concentrations of nitrate (N) and phosphate (P) added to each culture flask at the beginning of the experiment. The stepped animation shows how the ratio of N:P is different between each flask. Previous experiments of Karenia suggest it uses small amounts of P over time. The N-limited ratio is 4:1, meaning that the culture will run out of N before exhausting P. The P-limited ratio is 40:1 meaning the culture will exhaust its amount of P before it runs out of N. Measurements of dissolved nutrients were taken over the time course and once each treatment exhausted its supply of N or P, they were incubated for 24 more hours to insure a stress response. These were all grown for 2 weeks, and at the end were harvested at the same time.

Slide 41: This slide explains "Big Data Collection" in a stepped animation from cultured cells to computer-summed measurements of expression. This slide illustrates the process of generating these large data collections in pictures to show that millions of bytes of information are collected and need to be analyzed.

- First, Karenia is grown in flasks with seawater containing Control levels of nutrients. The stressed conditions are grown simultaneously starting at the same time, but with conditions that will stress the cells are they grow. In the case of *Karenia*, the N-limited treatment, nitrogen in the form of nitrate is added at low concentrations. The P-limited treatment has phosphate added at a low concentration and the cultures are grown in a light incubator until they run out of either nutrient by tracking the concentrations of loss in the media.
- Samples are taken from the culture flasks, and RNA (total) is extracted from each sample separately. Then messenger RNA (only a fraction of Total RNA) is

extracted and fragmented into tiny pieces so they can be sequenced by the millions.

- 3. Then, the millions of fragments representing all the fragmented messages are sequenced.
- 4. Next, a supercomputer or high-powered desktop computer is used to reconstruct the transcriptome using all treatments and all the generated message fragments together.
- 5. These reconstructed messenger RNA "transcripts" represent all the possible messenger RNAs made when growing under normal conditions, and both nutrient stressed conditions. In this way, the transcriptome is library of all the cellular messages made by the cells and can be used to determine what their molecular functions are by matching to annotated protein databases. Matches in the databases are used to infer the function of the messenger and what it might be used for in the organism, based on its sequence similarity to known proteins with known functions.
- 6. The sequenced fragments generated from each sample are compared to known mapped the fragments in a transcriptome reference library. Mapped fragments are then counted and used to quantify the number of messenger RNAs that were made for that specific reconstructed gene.
- 7. The counts of the reconstructed genes, seen in the image as Blue fragments, are then compared among treatments. When gene expression is high, we expect there will be many copies of that message being made resulting in a high count.

Conversely, when gene expression is down-regulated, a low number of messages are made.

8. Computer algorithms are used to reconstruct what the transcripts looked like before being fragmented, using all conditions to make a reference library. Then sequenced fragments used for the assembly are mapped to the reference library as a condition.

Slide 42: Clicker Question.

Slide 45: Clicker Question

Slide 43: This slide explains how expression of large numbers of genes are analyzed all at the same time and visualized with a "heatmap" diagram such as this. Colors correspond to gene expression being up (Blue) or (Red) down. Columns represent the same gene and rows represent the different treatments. These data show that the Nlimited condition looks the most different when looking at these genes found to be significantly different between the Control and N-limited treatment. Once we find statistically different genes, we can identify what they are by comparing the sequence to a database like NCBI.

Slide 44: This slide asks students to interpret the results of an experiment comparing Nlimited and P-limited conditions. This graph shows the number of differentially expressed genes between the Control and N-limited treatment and the Control versus the P-limited Treatment. In this example, the P-limited treatment results in only a few differential expressed genes but there is a large difference in the number of genes expressed between control and N-limited treatments. This suggests that P-limitation does not create a large transcriptome signal of phosphorus stress.

Slide 46: Clicker Question.

Slide 46: This slide is used to summarize Dr. Edwards' work on what he has learned from the transcriptome of *Karenia*. Included is a pathway model of genes related to the uptake and assimilation of nitrogen (organic and inorganic) that were differentially expressed.

Slide 47: This slide can be used to summarize the main points of the case study, and includes a small graphic of the N physiology of *Karenia* based on the transcriptome. The genes depicted in the figure were differentially expressed and show evidence of nitrogen cycling within the cell.

Slide 48: Case conclusion. Ask the students what would they do next? What experiment could they test? Do they think they want to know something else?

Slide 49: Students can be given this follow up activity to do outside of class or at the very end. This slide can be used to have students seek out more information on Karenia, or perhaps another organism. Students could be asked to develop a brief summary article that would be published in a fictional local paper or newsletter about what they learned.

Answer Key to the Clicker Questions

CQ1: B. The red tide is created by a dinoflagellate alga. Often the public thinks that it is caused by a bacterium, resulting in food poisoning (toxin production) of shellfish. Cyanobacteria blooms are the cause of HAB events in Lake Eerie and are not dinoflagellate blooms. CQ2: A. This question serves to determine their knowledge about algae blooms in general. Most HABs are stimulated by nutrient pollution, which they might choose. However, *Karenia* is not one of those species that can be directly tied to nutrient pollution.

CQ3: General Survey Question to determine what the students might be interested or concerned about regarding the effects of red tides. This slide should aid in getting some initial thought behind why the residents might care about red tide events.

CQ4: B. This question allows students to think about what a gene is made of, and why are they important. The Central Dogma is reinforced with the idea of DNA to RNA (messenger RNA).

CQ5: B. This slide is used to demonstrate the principles of the Central Dogma of Molecular Biology, and to determine if students have misconceptions about the flow of information.

CQ6: D. This question is used to check the students understanding of how to interpret gene expression data. In this example, Gene B has roughly the same expression, and Gene C is up regulated (has more messenger RNA transcripts). The other two are not correct, because all genes are not up regulated relative to the control treatment, and all genes are not down regulated relative to the control treatment.

CQ7: A. This question is used to demonstrate that not all treatments have the same effects, when comparing the treatment over the control (Replete). Notice in the Replete versus N-limited there are several genes both up and down regulated, while the P-limited produced very few differences. This could be because the P-limited treatment

was not truly depleted of internal storage (vacuole) within the cells, or it is not transcriptionally responsive to P-limitation.

CQ8: C. This question is used to conclude the overall results of the transcriptome data collected by BioMarkerX. The correct answer is C, because we can only say that some genes appear to be responsive to N-limitation and not P-limitation.

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Description: A single cell of the freshwater algae species *Synura petersenii*. False color image created using SEM.

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Slide 15

Image credit:

Description: The green scum shown in this image is the worst algae bloom Lake Erie has experienced in decades. Vibrant green filaments extend out from the northern shore. Image captured by the Landsat-5 satellite. Data provided courtesy of the United States Geological Survey.

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Slide 16

Top Inset

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Description: View of runoff, transporting nonpoint source pollution, from a farm field in Iowa during a rainstorm.

Caption: "Topsoil as well as farm fertilizers and other potential pollutants run off unprotected farm fields when heavy rains occur."

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Slide 18

Left Top

Image credit:

Description: A, a group of neurotoxins isolated from the marine dinoflagellate *Karenia* brevis (formerly *Gymnodinium breve*)

- Brevetoxin-1 (PbTx-1) R = -CH2C(=CH2)CHO
- Brevetoxin-7 (PbTx-7) R = -CH2C(=CH2)CH2OH
- Brevetoxin-10 (PbTx-10) R = -CH2CH(-CH3)CH2OH

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Left Bottom

Image credit:

Description: B, a group of neurotoxins isolated from the marine dinoflagellate *Karenia* brevis (formerly *Gymnodinium breve*)

• Brevetoxin-2 (PbTx-2) R = -CH2C(=CH2)CHO

- Brevetoxin-3 (PbTx-3) R = -CH2C(=CH2)CH2OH
- Brevetoxin-8 (PbTx-8) R = -CH2COCH2C1
- Brevetoxin-9 (PbTx-9) R = -CH2CH(CH3)CH2OH
- Other B-type Brevetoxins:
- Brevetoxin-5 (PbTx-5) R = -CH2C(=CH2)CH2OH, OH in position 37 is acetylated
- Brevetoxin-6 (PbTx-6) like PbTx-2, epoxide in position 27-28

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Description: *Karenia brevis* (C.C.Davis) Gert Hansen & Ø.Moestrup, 2000Checked: verified by a taxonomic editorchecked Hansen, Gert 2010-10-12 Source: WoRMS Photogallery,

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Image credit: Based on illustration in "RED TIDES ON WEST FLORIDA SHELF" Description: Brochure, added red circles to include additional data of Karenia presences on the west Florida shelf.

Source: http://myfwc.com/media/2687915/brochure.pdf

Author: Brianne Walsh, modified by Joshua Cooper

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Appendices and Supplemental Information

Chapter 1: Urea Uptake and Carbon Fixation by Marine Pelagic Bacteria and Archaea During the Arctic Summer and Winter Seasons.

SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES

Figure S1.

0.75 µm beads



Figure S1. Flow cytometric analysis of DAPI stained seawater collected at our sampling site during the arctic winter sampling. The x-axis shows forward scatter, while the y-axis indicates side scatter of particles. Included in the analysis were 0.75 μ m standard beads to assess the average size of particles in seawater. Filters used for rate measurements (GF/F) retained cells larger than 0.7 μ m. Flow cytomtery indicates that most bacterial and archaeal cells were smaller than the 0.7 μ m size cutoff of GF/F filters. The bulk of requisite cells would however be captured by 0.22 μ m filters used for SIP analysis.

Chapter 2: Transcriptome Analysis of *Scrippsiella trochoidea* CCMP 3099 Reveals Physiological Changes Related to Nitrate Depletion

Supplementary	Table 1	l. Nutrient	concentrations	at time	of sampling.
11 /					1 0

	Replete	Nitrogen-Limited	Phosphorus-Limited
$NO_x[\mu M]$	1759.6 (-4.5)	BD	1020.3 (-8.4)
PO ₄ [µM]	11.3 (2.0)	18.7 (0.5)	4.4 (1.9)

Mean + sd, BD (Below detection)

Supplementary Table 2. Overall Result of the Illumina Transcriptome Sequencing

Raw Data		Library	Data (Bp)	GC%	Mb
	MMETSP0270	Replete	36,147,274	58	36.15
	MMETSP0271	Nitrogen-limited	36,131,119	58	36.13
	MMETSP0272	Phosphorus-limited	30,815,547	58	30.82
Trimmed		Library	Data (Bp)	GC%	Mb
	MMETSP0270	Replete	35,788,801	58	35.79
	MMETSP0271	Nitrogen-limited	35,770,337	58	35.77
	MMETSP0272	Phosphorus-limited	30,507,209	58	30.51

Supplementary Table **3.** Summary of the transcriptome reduction procedure using CAP3 and CD-HIT-EST of *Scrippsiella trochoidea*, to collapse potential assembly artifacts using the Multi-*k*-mer assembly approach.

		Assembl	y Name
	M-k Assembly	M-k Assembly + CAP3	M-k Assembly + CAP3 + CDHIT-EST
Total Length (bp)	201,998,239	132,039,060	125,022,445
Total Contigs > 200	205,934	118,132	107,473
Median Contig size	686	821	884
Mean Contig size	980	1,117	1,163
Maximum Contig size	25,590	26,110	26,110
N50 Contig	43,657	25,143	23,394
N50 Length	1,440	1,678	1,714
N90 Length	443	516	555

Annotation Pipeline	# Annotated Contigs	% Annotated Contigs					
NCBI-NR database	44,055	41.00%					
Uniprot-SwissProt+TREMBL	43,796	40.80%					
Gene-Ontology Hits	34,480	40.40%					
GO:Cellular Component	23,159	21.60%					
GO:Biological Component	30,453	28.40%					
GO:Molecular Component	24,415	22.70%					
KEGG Matches	29,489	27.50%					
KEGG:GO	16,148	15.00%					
KOG Matches	23,462	21.80%					
Pfam-A matches	36,749	34.20%					
TIGRFAM matches	3,098	2.90%					
Total Descriptions after filtering	43,785	40.70%					
Total Transcriptome	107,417						

Supplementary Table. 4 Annotation Results of the S. trochoidea transcriptome

Chapter 3: Trophic Differences Reflected in the Elemental Stoichiometry From Transcriptomes and Proteomes of Eukaryotic Phytoplankton

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

Additional proteomes were collected from the following public resources:

- Wellcome-Sanger Trust Institute (*Bodo saltans*) Bathycoccus parinos RCC1105 (http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/genomes/view/Bathycoccus-prasinos; accessed 07/26/15)
- 2. *Bigelowiella natans* GCA 000320545-1-27 from Join Genome Institute (Curtis et al. 2012)
- 3. *Cyanophora paradoxa* MAKER gene predictions-022111 (http://cyanophora.rutgers.edu/cyanophora/; accessed 07/26/15)
- Nannochloropsis oceanica CCMP1779 Michigan (https://bmb.natsci.msu.edu/faculty/christoph-benning/nannochloropsisoceanica-ccmp1779/; accessed 07/26/15)
- Pyropia yezoensis (http://nrifs.fra.affrc.go.jp/ResearchCenter/5_AG/genomes/nori/; (Nakamura et al. 2013)
- Symbiodinium mintum symbB-v1 2 (http://marinegenomics.oist.jp/symb/viewer/download?project_id=21; (Shoguchi et al. 2013).

Supplemental Table 1. Collected cell size data from the MMETSP dataset, primary sources as listed or from the Culture Collections. Provasoli-Guillard National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (NCMA at Bigelow formerly CCMP), SAG (Sammlung von Algenkulturen der Universität Göttingen -Culture Collection of Algae at Göttingen University), Roscoff Culture Collection (RCC), Microbial Culture Collection at the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), Canadian Center for the Culture of Microorganisms (CCCM), Culture Collection of Algae at Austin (UTEX), Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa (CCAP), The Marine Biological Association Culture collection (Plymouth Culture Collection), Council for Scientific & Industrial Research Organization, Australia (CSIRO) North East Pacific Culture Collection, Canada (NEPCC).

dth Source	[26]	[26]	[7]	[5]	[NA]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[NA]	[5]	[NA]	[NA]	[5]	2	[5]	[5] [NA]	[5] [A] [NA]	[5] [NA] [NA] [5]	[5] [A] [NA] [A] [5] [5]	[5] [NA] [NA] [5] [5] [5]	[5] [5] [5] [5] [5] [7] [7]	[5] [5] [5] [5] [5] [7] [5] [7] [7] [7]	[5] [5] [7] [5] [5] [5] [5] [7] [5] [5] [5] [5] [5] [5]	[5] [5] [7] [5] [5] [7] [5] [7] [7] [5] [7] [5] [7] [7] [7] [7] [7] [7] [7] [7] [7] [7
th Max Wi	17.9	17.9	1	20	1	40	40	40	•	28	•	•	07	40	40	46	46	40 46 13 13	40 46 13 13	40 46 - 46 13 13 13	40 46 13 13 13	400 46 113 13 13 13 9	40 46 13 14 15 15 16 17 18 19 19 113 113 123 13 14 15 15 16 17 17 18 19 19 113 113 125	40 46 - - 113 113 113 14 15 15 16 17 18 19 19 10 10 113 113 13 14 15 15 16 17 18 19 <
n Min Widt	17.9	17.9	I	16	•	30	30	30	•	20	•	•	o c	ر	% 4	8 ⁰ 4 -	8 4 1 1	⁵ 4 6	80 4 9 9	8 ⁰ 4 9 6 6	8 ⁰ 4	80 4 · · 9 9 · · 5	⁵ 6 1 1 1 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	8 ⁰ 4 · · 9 9 · · 5 ¹ 4
Max Length	17.9	17.9	I	24	1	40	40	40	I	32	I	I	UV	4U	40	40 - 46	46	40 46 18 18	40 46 18 18	40 46 18 18 18	40 18 18 40	40 46 18 18 21 - 21	40 46 	40 46 18 18 18 18 21 22 22
Min Length	17.9	17.9	I	20	ı	30	30	30	I	24	I	I	ųc	CC	6 6 4	cc 4 -	c 4	cc + <u>1</u>	66 4 1 12 12	66 4 1 12 12 12	66 4 · · 21 12 12 -	6 6 6 6 6	55 4 4 12 12 9 85	⁵ 4 4 12 12 9 35 12 12 12 12 15 12 12 12 12
Strain	1 Otr	1 Otr	CCCM885	CCMP2222	OF101	CCMP1719	CCMP1719	CCMP1719	AMGDE01CS-322	CCMP113	CCMP3105	CCMP3105		CUMP1//I	CCMP3155	CCMP11/11 CCMP3155 Ammonia	CCMP3155 Amnonia Ameob2	CCMP3155 CCMP3155 Ammonia Ameob2 CCMP1314	CCMP3155 CCMP3155 Amnonia Ameob2 CCMP1314 CCMP1314	CCMP3155 Ammonia Ammonia Ameob2 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314	CCMP3155 Amnonia Amnonia Ameob2 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314	CCMP1//1 CCMP3155 Ammonia Ammonia Ameob2 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP125	CCMP3155 Ammonia Ammonia Ameob2 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP1314 CCMP125 CCMP125 CCMP125	CCMP1//1 CCMP3155 Ammonia Ammo
Species	sp.	sp.	sanguinea	andersonii	catenella	fundyense	fundyense	fundyense	margalefi	minutum	monilatum	monilatum	tamaronso	Caro mana	sp.	sp. sp.	sp. sp.	sp. sp. sp. carterae	sp. sp. sp. carterae carterae	sp. sp. sp. carterae carterae carterae	sp. sp. sp. carterae carterae carterae massartii	sp. sp. sp. sp. carterae carterae massartii paludosa	sp. sp. sp. carterae carterae massartii paludosa sp.	sp. sp. sp. carterae carterae massartii paludosa sp. coffeaeformis
Genus	Acanthoeca-like	Acanthoeca-like	Akashiwo	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alexandrium	Alevandrium	They array with	Alveolata	Alveolata Ammonia	Alveolata Ammonia Amoebophrya	Alveolata Ammonia Amoebophrya Amphidinium	Alveolata Ammonia Amoebophrya Amphidinium Amphidinium	Ammonia Ammonia Amoebophrya Amphidinium Amphidinium	Alveolata Ammonia Amoebophrya Amphidinium Amphidinium Amphidinium	Ammonia Ammonia Amoebophrya Amphidinium Amphidinium Amphidinium Amphidinium	Alveolata Ammonia Amoebophrya Amphidinium Amphidinium Amphiprora Amphiprora	Ambonia Ammonia Amoebophrya Amphidinium Amphidinium Amphiprora Amphiprora
MMETSPID	MMETSP0105	MMETSP0106	MMETSP0223	MMETSP1436	MMETSP0790	MMETSP0196	MMETSP0197	MMETSP0347	MMETSP0661	MMETSP0328	MMETSP0093	MMETSP0095	MARTSP0378		MMETSP0288	MMETSP0288	MMETSP0288 /	MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0795 / MMETSP0795 /	MMETSP0288 / MMETSP1384 / MMETSP0795 / MMETSP0258 / MMETSP0398 /	MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0795 / MMETSP0258 / MMETSP0398 / MMETSP0399 /	MMETSP0288 MMETSP0288 MMETSP0795 MMETSP0795 MMETSP0399 MMETSP0399 MMETSP0399	MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0795 / MMETSP0258 / MMETSP0398 / MMETSP0399 / MMETSP0689 /	MMETSP0288 MMETSP0288 MMETSP0795 MMETSP0795 MMETSP0399 MMETSP0399 MMETSP0689 MMETSP1065	MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0288 / MMETSP0795 / MMETSP0258 / MMETSP0399 / MMETSP0399 / MMETSP0689 / MMETSP1065 / MMETSP1065 / MMETSP0316 /

5 [27]	4 [40]	11 [47]	12 [5]	8 [5]	12 [57]	7 [4]	7 [5]	-	20 [3]	4 [5]	7 [5]	- [NA]	2 [5]	1 [53]	- [NA]	20 [5]	8 [5]	7 [5]	8 [5]	6 [5]	1	5 [5]	5 [5] 96 [14]	5 [5] 96 [14] 3 [5]
1	1	4	9	6	8	5	4	1	4	2	4	1	2	1	ı	8	4	5	4	4		4	4 76	4 76 2
5	4	23	22	24	150	63	14	I	20	4	7	I	2	1	I	20	8	7	8	9		5	5 315	5 315 3
1	1	6	16	20	30	30	9	1	4	2	4	ı	2	1	I	8	4	5	4	4		4	4 293	4 293 2
PBS07	GSBS06	ATCC50986	CCMP134	CCMP1581	no strain	13vi08-1A	CCMP2084	CCAP 1002/5	ATCCMYA-1381	CCMP1850	CCMP1510	3D9	CCMP1898	RCC716	ms1	CCMP242	CCMP1242	CCMP1258.1	CCMP1259	CCMP2755		CCIMP023	Stock R1072	CCMP1866 CCMP1866
sp.	stocchinoi	sp.	glacialis	glacialis	glacialis	radiata	septentrionalis	subarctica	limacinum	anophagefferens	lagunensis	spinosum	prasinos	prasinos	sp.	longifila	natans	natans	natans	natans	natanc	cilminii	japonicum	japonicum pacifica
Aplanochytrium	Aplanochytrium	Aristerostoma	Asterionellopsis	Asterionellopsis	Asterionellopsis	Astrosyne	Attheya	Aulacoseira	Aurantiochytrium	Aureococcus	Aureoumbra	Azadinium	Bathycoccus	Bathycoccus	Bicosoecid	Bigelowiella	Bigelowiella	Bigelowiella	Bigelowiella	Bigelowiella	Bioelowiella		Blepharisma	Blepharisma Bolidomonas
MMETSP0954	MMETSP1346	MMETSP0125	MMETSP0705	MMETSP1394	MMETSP0713	MMETSP0418	MMETSP1449	MMETSP1064	MMETSP0958	MMETSP0914	MMETSP0890	MMETSP1036	MMETSP1399	MMETSP1460	MMETSP0115	MMETSP1359	MMETSP1358	MMETSP1055	MMETSP1054	MMETSP0045	MMETSP1052		MMETSP1395	MMETSP1395

	4 2 4 2	RCC1657 2 2 RCC2347 4 4	p. RCC1657 2 2 p. RCC2347 4 4	Bolidomonassp.RCC165722Bolidomonassp.RCC234744
10	10	RCC3387 10	utriculum RCC3387 10	Brandtodinium nutriculum RCC3387 10
5	5	E4-10 5	oenbergensis E4-10 5	Cafeteria roenbergensis E4-10 5
5	5	Caron Lab Isolate 5	<i>p</i> . Caron Lab Isolate 5	Cafeteria sp. Caron Lab Isolate 5
14	8	RCC1130 8	ptoporus RCC1130 8	Calcidiscus leptoporus RCC1130 8
230	150	PA161109 150	usus PA161109 150	Ceratium fusus PA161109 150
25	19	CCMP159 19	ffinis CCMP159 19	Chaetoceros affinis CCMP159 19
0	0	CCMP164 0	revis CCMP164 0	Chaetoceros brevis CCMP164 0
10	10	RCC1993 10	f. neogracile RCC1993 10	Chaetoceros cf. neogracile RCC1993 10
30	7	no strain 7	urvisetus no strain 7	Chaetoceros curvisetus no strain 7
30	7	no strain 7	<i>urvisetus</i> no strain 7	Chaetoceros curvisetus no strain 7
40	8	MM31A-1 8	ebilis MM31A-1 8	Chaetoceros debilis MM31A-1 8
40	8	MM31A-1 8	ebilis MM31A-1 8	Chaetoceros debilis MM31A-1 8
50	45	CCMP1751 45	ichaeta CCMP1751 45	Chaetoceros dichaeta CCMP1751 45
11	8	CCMP1317 8	eogracile CCMP1317 8	Chaetoceros neogracile CCMP1317 8
ı	ı	GSL56 -	<i>o</i> . GSL56 -	Chaetoceros sp. GSL56 -
ı	ı	UNC1202 -	o. UNC1202 -	Chaetoceros sp. UNC1202 -
48	36	CCMP2191 36	ubsalsa CCMP2191 36	Chattonella subsalsa CCMP2191 36
12	11	CCMP681 11	<i>f sp.</i> CCMP681 11	Chlamydomonas cf sp. CCMP681 11
ı	I	SAG 11-48b -	hlamydogama SAG 11-48b -	Chlamydomonas chlamydogama SAG 11-48b -
9	5	CCMP219 5	uryale CCMP219 5	Chlamydomonas euryale CCMP219 5
8	7	SAG 11-49 7	siostraca SAG 11-49 7	Chlamydomonas leiostraca SAG 11-49 7
10	8	CCCM449 8	eptans CCCM449 8	Chlorarachnion reptans CCCM449 8
8	4	CCMP2878 4	elia CCMP2878 4	Chromera velia CCMP2878 4

MMETSP1095	Chromulina	nebulosa	UTEXLB2642		I	ı	I	[NA]
MMETSP0047	Chroomonas	cf. mesostigmatica	CCMP1168	8	10	4	5	[5]
MMETSP1094	Chrysochromulina	brevifilum	UTEX LB 985	4	6	4	6	[9]
MMETSP1096	Chrysochromulina	ericina	CCMP281	5	9	5	9	[5]
MMETSP0143	Chrysochromulina	polylepis	CCMP1757	6	8	4	7	[5]
MMETSP0286	Chrysochromulina	polylepis	UI0037	6	8	4	7	[43]
MMETSP0287	Chrysochromulina	rotalis	UI0044	4	9	4	9	[44]
MMETSP1335	Chrysoculter	rhomboideus	RCC1486	6	12	4	8	[53]
MMETSP1165	Chrysocystis	fragilis	CCMP3189	8	14	8	14	[29]
MMETSP1164	Chrysoreinhardia	sp.	CCMP2950	0	0	0	0	[5]
MMETSP1166	Chrysoreinhardia	sp.	CCMP3193	10	10	10	10	[5]
MMETSP1397	Climacostomum	virens	Stock W-24	53	138	53	138	[52]
MMETSP0164	Coccolithus	pelagicus ssp braarudi	PLY182g	16	22	16	22	[50]
MMETSP0312	Compsopogon	coeruleus	SAG 36.94	12.49	17.2	6	15	[10]
MMETSP0210	Condylostoma	magnum	COL2	450	800	80	120	[12]
MMETSP0010	Corethron	hystrix	308	20	150	20	40	[24]
MMETSP0169	Corethron	pennatum	L29A3	ı	·	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP1066	Coscinodiscus	wailesii	CCMP2513	100	220	100	220	[5]
MMETSP1442	Craspedostauros	australis	CCMP3328	28	70	8	12	[5]
MMETSP0803	Crustomastix	stigmata	CCMP3273	б	5	2	4	[5]
MMETSP0323	Crypthecodinium	cohnii	Seligo	ı	ı	·	·	[NA]
MMETSP1050	Cryptomonas	curvata	CCAP979/52	20	20	15	15	[6]
MMETSP0038	Cryptomonas	paramecium	CCAP977/2a	ı	ı	ı		[6]
MMETSP1086	Cyanoptyche	gloeocystis	SAG4.97	2	4	2	4	[21]
MMETSP0397	Cyclophora	tenuis	ECT3854	44	76	Г	11	[4]

MMETSP1057	Cyclotella	meneghiniana	CCMP338	9	11	9	L	[5]
MMETSP0017	Cylindrotheca	closterium	KMMCC:B-181	11	33	2.5	5.5	[NA]
MMETSP0580	Dactyliosolen	fragilissimus	no strain	42	300	8	70	[57]
MMETSP0232	Debaryomyces	hansenii	J26	3.22	4.44	3.22	4.44	[41]
MMETSP1058	Detonula	confervacea	CCMP353	7	20	8	10	[5]
MMETSP1174	Dictyocha	speculum	CCMP1381	16	72	16	56	[5]
MMETSP0019	Dinobryon	sp.	UTEXLB2267	ı	I	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0797	Dinophysis	acuminata	DAEP01	30	35	38	58	[49]
MMETSP1002	Ditylum	brightwellii	GSO103	80	130	25	100	[57]
MMETSP1010	Ditylum	brightwellii	GSO104	80	130	25	100	[57]
MMETSP0998	Ditylum	brightwellii	GSO105	80	130	25	100	[57]
MMETSP1062	Ditylum	brightwellii	Pop1 (SS4)	80	130	25	100	[57]
MMETSP1063	Ditylum	brightwellii	Pop2 (SS10)	80	130	25	100	[57]
MMETSP0033	Dolichomastix	tenuilepis	CCMP3274	С	5	З	5	[5]
MMETSP0439	Dracoamoeba	jormungandri	Chinc5	19	25	19	25	[56]
MMETSP1126	Dunaliella	tertiolecta	CCMP1320	9	6	0	0	[5]
MMETSP0116	Durinskia	baltica	CSIRO CS-38	ı	I	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP1385	Elphidium	margaritaceum	no strain	ı	I	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP1154	Emiliania	huxleyi	CCMP370	7	5	2	5	[5]
MMETSP1006	Emiliania	huxleyi	CCMP374	4	8	4	9	[5]
MMETSP0994	Emiliania	huxleyi	CCMP379	ω	5	Э	5	[5]
MMETSP1150	Emiliania	huxleyi	PLY M219	2.9	3.4	2.9	3.4	[50]
MMETSP1443	Entomoneis	sp.	CCMP2396	24	30	20	24	[5]
MMETSP1353	Erythrolobus	australicus	CCMP3124	10	22	8	17	[5]
MMETSP1354	Erythrolobus	madagascarensis	CCMP3276	5	8	5	8	[5]

CCMP1452 60 CT5 65
INI
FSP1.4
NIES-381
-like CCMP1594
RCC1523
CCMP396
no strain
Fehren 1
s Fe Narragansett B
CCMP1661
NC-AS-23-1
CCMP2471
RCC1693
RCC1007
RCC1587
is I.26-C5
is L2-C3
CAWD 149
CCMP2564
Caron Lab Isol
RCC1024
RCC2288
. RCC2335

[53]	[53]	[53]	[42]	[6]	[10]	[5]	[28]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[NA]	[NA]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[25]	[5]	[25]	[5]	[NA]
2	2	2.5	10	26.5	12	9	9	50	24	9	12	ı	ı	15	38	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	15	ı
2	2	2.5	9	26.5	9	4	4	50	16	4	8	I	I	6	25	3	4	3	2	2	С	2	10	ı
2	2	2.5	10	33.5	12	6	6	50	32	11	12	I	I	15	69	6	8	7	8	8	6	8	37.5	I
2	2	2.5	9	33.5	9	9	9	50	24	8	8	I	I	6	30	4	4	4	4	4	ς	4	22.5	ı
RCC2339	RCC856	RCC998	RCC1303	CCAP 1116/3	SAG 46.84	CCMP1869	ш	CCMP409	CCMP410	CCMP2712	CCMP2014	GC744	SPMC 103	CCMP325	CCMP826	CCMP1180	CCMP439	CCMP441	CCMP644	PCC563	CCMP443	PCC157	CCMP445	SCCAP K-0483
species nov.	species nov.	species nov.	oceanica	foliaceum	witrockiana	Pacifica	sp.	spinifera	oceanica	theta	sp.	catenatum	dominans	phi	tamensis	andersenii	andersenii	andersenii	andersenii	rufescens	tepida	viresens	arctica	rotundata
Genus nov.	Genus nov.	Genus nov.	Gephyrocapsa	Glenodinium	Gloeochaete	Goniomonas	Goniomonas	Gonyaulax	Grammatophora	Guillardia	Gymnochlora	Gymnodinium	Gyrodinium	Hanusia	Helicotheca	Hemiselmis	Heterocapsa	Heterocapsa						
MMETSP1310	MMETSP1311	MMETSP1309	MMETSP1363	MMETSP0118	MMETSP0308	MMETSP0107	MMETSP0114	MMETSP1439	MMETSP0009	MMETSP0046	MMETSP0110	MMETSP0784	MMETSP1148	MMETSP1048	MMETSP1171	MMETSP1042	MMETSP1041	MMETSP1043	MMETSP0043	MMETSP1357	MMETSP1355	MMETSP1356	MMETSP1441	MMETSP0503

MMETSP0448	Heterocapsa	triquetra	CCMP448	20	28	14	18	[5]
MMETSP0292	Heterosigma	akashiwo	CCMP2393	12	24	10	16	[5]
MMETSP0409	Heterosigma	akashiwo	CCMP3107	18	34	18	34	[5]
MMETSP0894	Heterosigma	akashiwo	CCMP452	10	15	10	14	[5]
MMETSP0414	Heterosigma	akashiwo	NB	ı	ı	ı	·	[NA]
MMETSP1474	Imantonia	sp.	RCC918	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	[53]
MMETSP0595	Isochrysis	galbana	CCMP1323	4	6	2	4	[5]
MMETSP1090	Isochrysis	sp.	CCMP1244	3	5	3	5	[5]
MMETSP1129	Isochrysis	sp.	CCMP1324	4	8	0	0	[5]
MMETSP0027	Karenia	brevis	CCMP2229	20	28	20	24	[5]
MMETSP0573	Karenia	brevis	SP1	20	28	20	24	[3]
MMETSP0527	Karenia	brevis	SP3	20	28	20	24	[3]
MMETSP0201	Karenia	brevis	Wilson	20	28	20	24	[3]
MMETSP1015	Karlodinium	micrum	CCMP2283	12	14	8	10	[5]
MMETSP0120	Kryptoperidinium	foliaceum	CCMP1326	24	40	22	34	[5]
MMETSP0372	Lankesteria	abbottii	Grappler Inlet BC	ı	I	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP1362	Leptocylindrus	danicus	CCMP1856	54	81	12	18	[5]
MMETSP0322	Leptocylindrus	danicus var. apora	B651	ı	I	ı	ı	[57]
MMETSP0321	Leptocylindrus	danicus var. danicus	B650	5	16	5	16	[57]
MMETSP1147	Lessardia	elongata	SPMC 104	ı	ı	ı		[NA]
MMETSP1360	Licmophora	paradoxa	CCMP2313	18	33	12	16	[5]
MMETSP1032	Lingulodinium	polyedra	CCMP1738	38	40	35	40	[5]
MMETSP0209	Litonotus	pictus	P1	175	600	20	90	[23]
MMETSP0042	Lotharella	amoebiformis	CCMP2058	10	14	10	14	[5]
MMETSP0111	Lotharella	globosa	CCCM811	5	10	5	10	[7]

MMETSP0041	Lotharella	globosa	LEX01	7.5	10.2	7.5	10.2	[18]
MMETSP0040	Lotharella	oceanica	CCMP622	4	7	4	9	[5]
MMETSP1450	Madagascaria	erythrocladiodes	CCMP3234	6.1	12.4	4.9	9	[5]
MMETSP1167	Mallomonas	sp.	CCMP3275	20	28	10	14	[5]
MMETSP1106	Mantoniella	antarctica	SL-175	2.8	5	2.8	5	[31]
MMETSP1468	Mantoniella	sp.	CCMP1436	0	0	0	0	[5]
MMETSP0417	Mayorella	sp.	BSH-02190019	40	142	40	142	[35]
MMETSP0467	Mesodinium	pulex	SPMC105	25	35	10	15	[1]
MMETSP1401	Micromonas	pusilla	CCAC1681	2	3	2	3	[32]
MMETSP1403	Micromonas	pusilla	CCMP1723	2	3	2	3	[5]
MMETSP1404	Micromonas	pusilla	CCMP494	1	2	1	2	[5]
MMETSP1402	Micromonas	pusilla	RCC1614	2	3	2	3	[3]
MMETSP1327	Micromonas	pusilla	RCC2306	2	2	2	2	[53]
MMETSP1080	Micromonas	sp.	CCMP1646	2	3	2	3	[5]
MMETSP0802	Micromonas	sp.	CCMP2099	1	3	2	3	[5]
MMETSP1393	Micromonas	sp.	CS-222	2	3	2	3	[3]
MMETSP1082	Micromonas	sp.	NEPCC29	2	3	2	3	[3]
MMETSP1400	Micromonas	sp.	RCC451	2	2	2	2	[53]
MMETSP1084	Micromonas	sp.	RCC472	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	[53]
MMETSP0186	Minchinia	chitonis	no strain	I	ı	I	ı	[NA]
MMETSP1434	Minutocellus	polymorphus	CCMP3303	5	8	3	4	[5]
MMETSP1070	Minutocellus	polymorphus	NH13	ı	ı	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP1322	Minutocellus	polymorphus	RCC2270	4	4	4	4	[53]
MMETSP0798	Myrionecta	rubra	CCMP2563	32	40	32	40	[5]
MMETSP1114	Neobodo	designis	CCAP 1951/1	I	ı	I	I	[6]

MMETSP0161	Neoparamoeba	aestuarina	SoJaBio B1-5/56/2	45	100	45	100	[36]
MMETSP0034	Nephroselmis	pyriformis	CCMP717	Э	5	3	5	[5]
MMETSP0744	Nitzschia	punctata	CCMP561	5	6	5	9	[5]
MMETSP0014	Nitzschia	sp.	RCC80	10	10	2.5	2.5	[53]
MMETSP0253	Noctiluca	scintillans	Noctiluca scintillans	2000	2000	200	200	[NA]
MMETSP0974	non described	non described	CCMP2097	9	12	9	12	[5]
MMETSP0990	non described	non described	CCMP2098	8	10	9	7	[5]
MMETSP0986	non described	non described	CCMP2293	8	10	4	5	[5]
MMETSP1141	non described	non described	CCMP2298	7	16	7	16	[5]
MMETSP0982	non described	non described	CCMP2436	5	10	8	12	[5]
MMETSP0113	Norrisiella	sphaerica	BC52	5	9	5	6	[46]
MMETSP1105	Ochromonas	sp.	BG-1	ı	I	ı		[NA]
METSP0004	Ochromonas	sp.	CCMP1393	4	9	4	9	[5]
MMETSP1177	Ochromonas	sp.	CCMP1899	9	9	9	6	[5]
MMETSP0015	Odontella	aurita	isolate 1302-5	10	97	8	11	[57]
MMETSP0160	Odontella	sinensis	Grunow 1884	90	260	16	18	[57]
MMETSP0939	Ostreococcus	lucimarinus	clade-A-BCC118000	1	1	1	1	[53]
MMETSP0938	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus	clade-D-RCC1107	1	1	1	1	[53]
MMETSP0930	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus	clade-D-RCC1621	1	1	1	1	[53]
MMETSP0929	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus	clade-D-RCC2572	1	1	1	1	[53]
MMETSP0936	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus	clade-D-RCC2573	1	1	1	1	[53]
MMETSP0937	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus	clade-D-RCC2593	1	1	1	1	[53]
MMETSP0932	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus	clade-D-RCC2596	1	1	1	1	[53]
MMETSP0933	Ostreococcus	prasinos	BCC99000	1	1	1	1	[NA]
MMETSP0044	Oxyrrhis	marina	CCMP1788	30	35	4	9	[5]

MMETSP0451	Oxyrrhis	marina	CCMP1795	30	35	4	9	[5]
MMETSP1424	Oxyrrhis	marina	LB1974	30	35	4	9	[3]
MMETSP0468	Oxyrrhis	marina	no strain	30	35	4	9	[3]
MMETSP0780	Palpitomonas	bilix	NIES-2562		I	ı		[NA]
MMETSP0151	Paramoeba	atlantica	621/1 / CCAP 1560/9	45	100	45	100	[36]
MMETSP1103	Paraphysomonas	bandaiensis	Caron Lab Isolate	ı	I	I	I	[NA]
MMETSP0103	Paraphysomonas	Imperforata	PA2	•	ı	ı	I	[NA]
MMETSP1107	Paraphysomonas	vestita	GFlagA	•	ı	ı	I	[NA]
MMETSP1318	Partenskyella	glossopodia	RCC365	3	3	3	3	[53]
MMETSP1466	Pavlova	gyrans	CCMP608	5	8	2	4	[5]
MMETSP1463	Pavlova	lutheri	RCC1537	ю	9	ю	9	[53]
MMETSP1139	Pavlova	sp.	CCMP459	4	8	4	5	[5]
MMETSP0882	Pelagococcus	subviridis	CCMP1429	2	4	2	4	[5]
MMETSP1338	Pelagodinium	beii	RCC1491	•	ı	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0886	Pelagomonas	calceolata	CCMP1756	2	4	1	3	[5]
MMETSP1328	Pelagomonas	calceolata	RCC969	2	2	2	2	[53]
MMETSP0758	Percolomonas	cosmopolitus	AE-1 (ATCC50343)	ı	I	I	I	[NA]
MMETSP0759	Percolomonas	cosmopolitus	WS	ı	ı	I	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0370	Peridinium	aciculiferum	PAER-2	•	ı	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0924	Perkinsus	chesapeaki	ATCCPRA-65		ı	I	I	[NA]
MMETSP0922	Perkinsus	marinus	ATCC50439	9	8	9	8	[11]
MMETSP0420	Pessonella	sp.	Pessonella sp. PRA-29	ı	I	I	I	[NA]
MMETSP1100	Phaeocystis	antarctica	Caron Lab Isolate	3	6	З	9	[3]
MMETSP1444	Phaeocystis	antarctica	CCMP1374	3	6	Э	6	[54]
MMETSP1465	Phaeocystis	cordata	RCC1383	3	4	з	4	[53]

MMETSP1162	Phaeocystis	sp.	CCMP2710	4	8	4	8	[5]
MMETSP1163	Phaeomonas	parva	CCMP2877	2	4	2	4	[5]
MMETSP1161	Picochlorum	oklahomensis	CCMP2329	7	ŝ	2	ŝ	[5]
MMETSP1330	Picochlorum	sp.	RCC944	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	[53]
MMETSP0807	Picocystis	salinarum	CCMP1897	2	5	2	5	[5]
MMETSP1160	Pinguiococcus	pyrenoidosus	CCMP2078	3	10	3	8	[5]
MMETSP0127	Platyophrya	macrostoma	HM	1	1	ı	ı	[NA]
MMETSP1136	Pleurochrysis	carterae	CCMP645	8	12	8	12	[5]
MMETSP0227	Polarella	glacialis	CCMP1383	10	15	4	8	[5]
MMETSP1440	Polarella	glacialis	CCMP2088	14	18	8	10	[5]
MMETSP0052	Polytomella	parva	SAG 63-3	10	14.3	10	14.3	[30]
MMETSP0313	Porphyridium	aerugineum	SAG 1380-2	5.6	7	5.6	7	[10]
MMETSP0941	Prasinococcus	capsulatus	CCMP1194	ε	5	3	5	[5]
MMETSP0806	Prasinoderma	coloniale	CCMP1413	2	ю	2	3	[5]
MMETSP1315	Prasinoderma	singularis	RCC927	ю	б	3	3	[53]
MMETSP0174	Proboscia	alata	PI-D3	1000	1000	7	18	[24]
MMETSP0816	Proboscia	inermis	CCAP1064/1	100	148	10	13	[6]
MMETSP0252	Prorocentrum	lima	CCMP684	42	47	30	32	[5]
MMETSP0251	Prorocentrum	micans	CCCM845	X	ı	ı		[7]
MMETSP0053	Prorocentrum	minimum	CCMP1329	7	16	9	16	[5]
MMETSP0267	Prorocentrum	minimum	CCMP2233	18	20	16	18	[5]
MMETSP1049	Proteomonas	sulcata	CCMP704	12	14	5	7	[5]
MMETSP0228	Protoceratium	reticulatum	CCCM535	33	33	30	30	[7]
			(=CCMP1889)					
MMETSP0216	Protocruzia	adherens	Boccale	ı	I	ı	,	[NA]
MMETSP0006	Prymnesium	parvum	Texoma1	8	11	4	9	[15]

[NA]	[17]	[51]	[57]	[57]	[57]	[57]	[57]	[19]	[57]	[5]	[NA]	[5]	[53]	[53]	[53]	[53]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[7]	[NA]	[5]
I	225	2.5	8	2	2	6.5	9	3.9	4.5	10	ı	9	3	2	2.5	1.7	3	12	8	10	8	I	I	8
ı	50	1.6	6.5	2	2	4.5	4	3.9	3	6	ı	4	3	2	2.5	1.7	1	8	9	6	9	ı	·	4
ı	225	59	144	76	76	111	120	120.4	142	10	ı	8	ю	2	2.5	1.7	ю	20	8	14	14	ı	ı	8
I	50	22	74	40	40	64	67	120.4	74	6	I	6	3	2	2.5	1.7	1	10	6	11	10	Х	I	4
Brazil	OXSARD2	B593	10249 10 AB	B596	UNC1205	WWA7	UNC1101	cf. cingulata	cf. pungens	CCMP716	PT	CCMP1384	RCC2336	RCC251	RCC733	RCC931	CCMP1998	CCMP720	CCMP722	CCMP726	CCMP2087	CCCM517	pbaha01	CCMP1243
sp.	sp.	arenysensis	australis	delicatissima	delicatissima	fraudulenta	heimii	bungens	bungens	elastica	danica	sp.	provasolii	provasolii	provasolii	provasolii	sp.	amylifera	obovata	parkeae	sp.	lunula	bahamense	marina cf
Pseudokeronopsis	Pseudokeronopsis	Pseudo-nitzschia	Pseudopedinella	Pteridomonas	Pterosperma	Pycnococcus	Pycnococcus	Pycnococcus	Pycnococcus	Pycnococcus	Pyramimonas	Pyramimonas	Pyramimonas	Pyramimonas	Pyrocystis	Pyrodinium	Rhizochromulina							
MMETSP1396	MMETSP0211	MMETSP0329	MMETSP0139	MMETSP0327	MMETSP1432	MMETSP0850	MMETSP1423	MMETSP1060	MMETSP1061	MMETSP1068	MMETSP0101	MMETSP1438	MMETSP1316	MMETSP1472	MMETSP1471	MMETSP1459	MMETSP1085	MMETSP1081	MMETSP1169	MMETSP0058	MMETSP1445	MMETSP0229	MMETSP0796	MMETSP1173

MMETSP0789	Rhizosolenia	setigera	CCMP1694	130	440	з	12	[5]
MMETSP0167	Rhodella	maculata	CCMP736	7	16	7	16	[5]
MMETSP1101	Rhodomonas	abbreviata	Caron Lab Isolate	ı	1	I	I	[NA]
MMETSP0484	Rhodomonas	lens	RHODO	ı	1	I	I	[NA]
MMETSP1047	Rhodomonas	salina	CCMP1319	5	13	9	8	[5]
MMETSP1091	Rhodomonas	sp.	CCMP768	10	25	9	13	[5]
MMETSP0011	Rhodosorus	marinus	CCMP769	5	8	5	8	[5]
MMETSP0315	Rhodosorus	marinus	UTEX LB 2760	ı	1	I	I	[NA]
MMETSP0190	Rosalina	sp.	no strain	ı	1	I	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0437	Sapocribrum	chincoteaguense	ATCC50979	ю	5	С	5	[37]
MMETSP1170	Sarcinochrysis	sp.	CCMP770	4	8	4	8	[5]
MMETSP0962	Schizochytrium	aggregatum	ATCC28209	3	6	3	9	[20]
MMETSP0359	Scrippsiella	hangoei	SHTV-5	I	I	I	·	[NA]
MMETSP0367	Scrippsiella	hangoei-like	SHHI-4	I	I	I	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0270	Scrippsiella	trochoidea	CCMP3099	28	36	22	28	[5]
MMETSP1333	Scyphosphaera	apsteinii	RCC1455	I	I	ı	I	[NA]
MMETSP0013	Skeletonema	costatum	RCC1716	5	5	5	5	[53]
MMETSP0562	Skeletonema	dohrnii	SkelB	4	12	4	12	[55]
MMETSP0578	Skeletonema	grethea	CCMP1804	4	6	9	8	[5]
MMETSP0593	Skeletonema	japonicum	CCMP2506	5	16	5	8	[5]
MMETSP1040	Skeletonema	marinoi	FE60	12	12	2	2	[NA]
MMETSP1039	Skeletonema	marinoi	FE7	12	12	2	2	[55]
MMETSP0918	Skeletonema	marinoi	skelA	12	12	2	2	[55]
MMETSP0320	Skeletonema	marinoi	SM1012Den-03	12	12	2	2	[55]
MMETSP0319	Skeletonema	marinoi	SM1012Hels-07	12	12	2	7	[55]

MMETSP1428	Skeletonema	marinoi	UNC1201	12	12	2	2	[55]
MMETSP0603	Skeletonema	menzelii	CCMP793	3	8	4	8	[5]
MMETSP0191	Sorites	sp.	Sorites sp.	•	ı	I		[NA]
MMETSP1098	Spumella	elongata	CCAP 955/1	ı	1	I	ı	[6]
MMETSP1352	Stauroneis	constricta	CCMP1120	20	40	9	14	[5]
MMETSP1361	Staurosira	complex sp.	CCMP2646	8	10	9	7	[5]
MMETSP0794	Stephanopyxis	turris	CCMP815	56	66	28	31	[5]
MMETSP1473	Stichococcus	sp.	RCC1054	4	10	С	4	[53]
MMETSP0800	Striatella	unipunctata	CCMP2910	35	125	9	20	[57]
MMETSP0126	Strombidinopsis	acuminatum	SPMC142	ı	I	I	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0463	Strombidinopsis	sp.	SopsisLIS2011	ı	I	I	·	[NA]
MMETSP0208	Strombidium	inclinatum	S3	ı	I	I	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0449	Strombidium	rassoulzadegani	ras09	ı	I	I		[NA]
MMETSP0447	Stygamoeba	regulata	BSH-02190019	ı	I	I	ı	[NA]
MMETSP0132	Symbiodinium	kawagutii	CCMP2468	7	10	7	10	[5]
MMETSP0133	Symbiodinium	kawagutii	CCMP2468	٢	10	7	10	[5]
MMETSP1367	Symbiodinium	sp.	C1	9	12	6	12	[3]
MMETSP1370	Symbiodinium	sp.	C15	9	12	6	12	[3]
MMETSP1115	Symbiodinium	sp.	CCMP2430	9	12	9	12	[5]
MMETSP1110	Symbiodinium	sp.	CCMP421	10	14	10	14	[5]
MMETSP1374	Symbiodinium	sp.	cladeA	9	12	9	12	[3]
MMETSP1377	Symbiodinium	sp.	Dla	9	12	6	12	[3]
MMETSP1122	Symbiodinium	sp.	Mp	6	12	6	12	[3]
MMETSP1452	Synchroma	pusillum	CCMP3072	٢	12	7	8	[5]
MMETSP1176	Synedropsis	cf. recta	CCMP1620	13	96	2.5	4	[57]

MMETSP0804	Tetraselmis	astigmatica	CCMP880	5	10	5	15	[5]
MMETSP0491	Tetraselmis	chuii	PLY429	8	14	7	10	[50]
MMETSP0419	Tetraselmis	sp.	GSL018	ı	I	ı		[NA]
MMETSP0817	Tetraselmis	striata	LANL1001	11	12	7	8	[NA]
MMETSP0786	Thalassionema	frauenfeldii	CCMP1798	56	60	4	9	[5]
MMETSP0158	Thalassionema	nitzschioides	L26-B	10	110	2	4	[57]
MMETSP0693	Thalassionema	nitzschioides	no strain	10	110	2	4	[57]
MMETSP0902	Thalassiosira	antarctica	CCMP982	14	26	10	12	[5]
MMETSP0492	Thalassiosira	gravida	GMp14c1	62	62	17	17	[57]
MMETSP0737	Thalassiosira	miniscula	CCMP1093	10	20	10	14	[5]
MMETSP0970	Thalassiosira	oceanica	CCMP1005	4	12	9	10	[5]
MMETSP1067	Thalassiosira	punctigera	Tpunct2005C2	40	186	10	23	[57]
MMETSP0403	Thalassiosira	rotula	CCMP3096	12	25	15	20	[5]
MMETSP0910	Thalassiosira	rotula	GSO102	8	55	18	24	[57]
MMETSP1059	Thalassiosira	sp.	FW	ı	I	·		[NA]
MMETSP1071	Thalassiosira	sp.	NH16	ı	I	ı	·	[NA]
MMETSP0898	Thalassiosira	weissflogii	CCMP1010	13	18	10	12	[5]
MMETSP0878	Thalassiosira	weissflogii	CCMP1336	12	22	10	12	[5]
MMETSP0152	Thalassiothrix	antarctica	L6-D1	420	5680	1.5	9	[2]
MMETSP0225	Thoracosphaera	heimii	CCCM670	8	12	8	12	[7]
			(=CCMP1069)					
MMETSP0198	Thraustochytrium	sp.	LLF1b	4	20	4	20	[3]
MMETSP0472	Tiarina	fusus	LIS	74	74	24	24	[45]
MMETSP1172	Timspurckia	oligopyrenoides	CCMP3278	7	11	7	11	[5]
MMETSP0224	Togula	jolla	CCCM725	25	43	19	35	[7]
MMETSP1175	Triceratium	dubium	CCMP147	20	40	10	20	[5]

	[NA]	[NA]	[NA]	[3]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[53]	[53]	[NA]	[NA]	[38]	[38]	[5]	[2]	ر د ا
	1	•		5	10	12	9	14	4	4	5	2	1	1	54	54	50	50	
	ı	ı	•	e	9	8	7	8	7	7	7	7	ı	1	38	38	40	40	
		I		5	12	12	9	14	4	4	5	2	1	1	54	54	50	50	
	ı			ŝ	8	8	2	8	2	2	2	2	ı	ı	38	38	40	40	
1	Am-I-7/ wt	NY0313808BC1	NY07348D	Undescribed	CCMP2000	CCMP2135	CCMP1205	CCMP1999	CCMP2111	CCMP2175	RCC1871	RCC701	DI	Bbcil	DIVA3 518/3/11/1/6	DIVA3 517/6/12	CCMP2940	CCMP2940	
	sp	Undescribed	Undescribed	Undescribed	sp.	sp.	sp.	sp.	sp.	sp.	sp.	sp.	Unknown	sp.	robusta	sp.	litorea	litorea	
	Trichosphaerium	Undescribed	Undescribed	Undescribed	unid	unid.	Unidentified	Unidentified	Unidentified	Unidentified	Unidentified	Unidentified	Unknown	Uronema	Vannella	Vannella	Vaucheria	Vaucheria	
	MME1SP0405	MMETSP0098	MMETSP1433	MMETSP1317	MMETSP1178	MMETSP1467	MMETSP1469	MMETSP1475	MMETSP1446	MMETSP1470	MMETSP1456	MMETSP1453	MMETSP0086	MMETSP0018	MMETSP0166	MMETSP0168	MMETSP0945	MMETSP0946	

References Cited in Supplemental Table 1, appear as numbers in the left most column.

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Species Names and SILVA Identifiers	
Acanthamoeba healyi CDFA01025657.77.1694	Monoraphidium neglectum AJ300526.1.1766
Acanthamoeba castellanii ATCC30010 EF554328.1	Monosiga ovata AF084230.1.1765
Acanthogorgia sp AF052907.1.1852	Monosiga brevicollis AF174375.1
Agaricus bisporus var. bisporus H97 AEOK01000180.16575.18364	Montastraea franksi AY026382.1.1838
Albugo candida KF853245.1.1786	Nannochloropsis gaditana AZIL01002195.4319.6114
Alexandrium affine AY775286.1.1789	Nematostella vectensis ABAV01023297.1433.3227
Alexandrium andersonii KF925334.1.1640	Neochloris aquatica M62861.1.1794
Alexandrium australiense KF908802.1.1672	Neospora caninum U16159.1.1793
Amphimedon compressa EU702409.1.1808	Nephroselmis anterostigmatica AB158373.1.1755
Angomonas deanei EU079129.1.2137	Nephroselmis rotunda FR865651.2.1776
Anolis carolinensis GADN01012067.648.2457	Ornithorhynchus anatinus AJ311679.1.1850
Aplysia californica AASC03160597.930.2770	Oryza sativa Japonica Group cultivar Nipponbare
Arabidopsis thaliana Columbia NR141642.1	Ostreococcus lucimarinus CCE9901 CP000588.494341.496100
Arcuseries petzi KC896648.1.1822	Ostreococcus tauri CAID01000012.112153.113912
Ardissonea formosa HQ912653.1.1618	Oswaldella grandis KT722417.1.1843
Aspergillus nidulans AB008403.1.1733	Oxyrrhis sp WHOI LI1 5 6 AF330215.1.1759
Asterionella formosa AM712617.1.1812	Oxytricha trifallax AMCR01021323.1776.3536
Aulacoseira baicalensis AY121821.1.1802	Pan troglodytes AACZ04068423.75350.77214
Auxenochlorella protothecoides KM020039.1.1775	Paralia longispina KJ577865.1.1677
Auxenochlorella protothecoides APJO01001325.1293.3115	Paramecium tetraurelia AB252008.1.1745
Babesia divergens AJ439713.1.1728	Parastrombidinopsis shimi AJ786648.1.1805
Babesia gibsoni AB478322.1.1663	Pediastrum duplex M62997.1.1800
Bathycoccus prasinos RCC1105 FO082268.37864.40071	Perkinsus chesapeaki AF102171.1575.3382
Bigelowiella natans CCMP2755 ADNK01002499.9459.11245	Perkinsus marinus AF497479.1251.3059

Supplemental Table 2 A. Accession Numbers from SILVA database representing 18S rRNA sequences that corresponded to reference genomes (n=48) along with additional taxa (n=140) from SILVA

Blastocystis hominis Incertae U51151.1.1770	Perkinsus mediterraneus AY487833.1.1772
Bodo saltans Kontsanz AF208889.1.2134	Petromyzon marinus GQ215662.8338.10120
Botryococcus braunii JQ315502.1.1798	Phaeodactylum tricornutum CCAP1055 ABQD01000052.43555.45336/1
Branchiostoma lanceolatum AY428817.1.1721	Physcomitrella patens ABEU01010493.4882.6690
Chaetoceros muellerii KC594685.1.1804	Picochlorum eukaryotum X06425.1.1796
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii ABCN01009239.1.1424	Plagiomonas amylosa AF143944.1.1738
Chlorella vulgaris KJ756823.1.1801	Plagioselmis nannoplanctica FM876311.1.1770
Chromera v elia CCMP2878 CDMZ01005019.70962.72740	Poecilia reticulata KJ774732.1.1825
Chroomonas vectensis HM126534.1.1744	Polysphondylium pallidum AM168104.1.1940
Chrysochromulina parva AM491019.1.1792	Porosira pseudodenticulata DQ436461.1.1805
Chrysotila lamellosa KC888129.1.1731	Prasinopapilla vacuolata AB183649.1.1758
Ciona intestinalis GBKV01014989.349.2148	Prorocentrum shikokuense AB781324.1.1745
Coccomyxa viridis AJ302939.1.1798	Prototheca wickerhamii X74003.1.1802
Coccomyxa subellipsoidea C 169 AGSI01000004.2976164.2978397	Pseudochattonella verruculosa AM075625.1.1816
Coelastrum microporum JQ315527.1.1793	Pseudohaptolina arctica AM491016.1.1802
Coscinodiscus radiatus X77705.1.1811	Pseudoisochrysis paradoxa AM490999.1.1721
Crassostrea gigas AB064942.1.1820	Pseudoscourfieldia marina X75565.22.1770
Crocodylus niloticus AJ311672.1.1776	Pterosperma cristatum AB017127.1.1753
Cyanophora paradoxa AY823716.1.1717	Pycnococcus provasolii AF122889.1.1755
Cyclotella choctawhatcheeana AM712618.1.1803	Pyramimonas gelidicola EU141942.1.1806
Cymbomonas tetramitiformis FN562438.1.1785	Pyramimonas olivacea FN562442.1.1786
Cystoisospora ohioensis GU292304.1.1731	Pyramimonas propulsa AB017123.1.1758
Debaryomyces hansenii var hansenii AB013590.1.1784	Pyramimonas tetrarhynchus FN562441.1.1784
Dicrateria sp ALGO HAP49 AM490997.1.1721	Pyrenomonas salina X54276.1.1762
Dimeregramma minor var nanum AB430598.1.1862	Pythium ultimum DAOM BR144 ADOS01001233.4029.5837

Dinophysis infundibulum AB366002.1.1740	Reticulomyxa filosa isolate 613 AJ132367.1
Dinophysis norvegica AJ506974.1.1802	Rhabdonema arcuatum JN975251.1.1625
Diophrys apoligothrix EU189068.1.1784	Rhinomonas pauca U53132.1.1770
Durinskia agilis JF514515.1.1780	Rhizosolenia formosa JX413557.1.1644
Ectocarpus siliculosus CABU01003659.782.2081	Saccharomyces cerevisiae KR028986.1.1729
Eimeria alabamensis AB769547.1.1781	Scrippsiella sweeneyae HQ845331.1.1756
Emiliania huxleyi CCMP1516 AHAL01000301.1474.3265	Selaginella moellendorffii ADFJ01002373.6706.8505
Eudorina elegans LC086351.1.1744	Sicyoidochytrium minutum AB355412.1.1733
Falcomonas daucoides AF143943.1.1734	Skeletonema grevillei DQ396512.1.1798
Gallus gallus AADN04002033.13735.15546	Skeletonema tropicum DQ396513.1.1809
Gephyrocapsa muellerae KP282839.1.1755	Sordaria fimicola X69851.1.1796
Gonium pectorale FR865741.2.1763	Spironucleus salmonicida ATCC50380 DQ812526.1
Gorilla gorilla gorilla CABD030100652.45.1761	Stephanopyxis nipponica M87330.1.1805
Guillardia theta CCMP2712 AEIE01002671.389.2153	Storeatula major U53130.1.1768
Guinardia delicatula HQ912651.1.1660	Strigomonas culicis U05679.1.2101
Gymnodinium instriatum DQ847433.1.1790	Stylonychia lemnae AF164124.1.1770
Hammondia hammondi AF096498.1.1747	Symbiodinium sp clade A KC848879.1.1510
Haptolina brevifila AB058358.1.1749	Symbiodinium sp clade B KC848880.1.1512
Haptolina ericina AM491030.1.1787	Symbiodinium sp clade C KC848882.1.1512
Haptolina fragaria AM491013.1.1789	Symbiodinium sp clade D EF419282.1.1694
Haptolina hirta AJ246272.1.1787	Symbiodinium sp clade E AF238262.1.1693
Helicospordium sp ATCC50920 SRR1019732.SRR1019731	Symbiodinium minutum Mf1 BASF01015284.22116.24113.05b.01
Helobdella fusca AY962414.1.1799	Tabularia sp NY059 LC054953.1.1856
Hemiselmis brunnescens AJ007282.1.1761	Teleaulax amphioxeia AJ007287.1.1750
Holosticha heterofoissneri KP717082.1.1785	Tetrahymena thermophila M10932.164.1916

Homo sapiens AADB02002333.14402.16240	Tetraselmis apiculata KJ756817.1.1785
Hypotrichidium paraconicum JQ918371.1.1798	Tetraselmis carteriiformis FJ559384.1.1641
Ichthyophthirius multifiliis AEDN01002274.4420.6159	Tetraselmis cordiformis HE610130.1.1777
Imantonia rotunda AM491014.1.1723	Tetraselmis inconspicua KJ756818.1.1795
Isochrysis galbana AJ246266.1.1800	Tetraselmis marina HE610131.1.1771
Isochrysis litoralis AM490996.1.1721	Thalassiosira aestivalis DQ093369.1.1806
Isochrysis nuda KC888117.1.1721	Thalassiosira anguste-lineata AJ810854.1.1810
Isospora sp Tokyo AB757860.1.1676	Thalassiosira curviseriata AJ810859.1.1809
Jasus tristani AF498664.1.1718	Thalassiosira punctigera HM991699.1.1812
Karenia mikimotoi AF022195.1.1803	Thalassiosira oceanica AGNL01025219.4749.6540
Karenia papilionacea HM067005.1.1741	Thalassiosira pseudonana CCMP1335 AAFD02000029.651044.652838
Komma caudata U53122.1.1774	Thecamonas trahens ATCC50062 XR001290156.1
Latimeria chalumnae L11288.1.1779	Theileria equi AB515311.1.1509
Lepisosteus osseus X98837.1.1767	Tisochrysis lutea KC888125.1.1723
Leptomonas pyrrhocoris LGTL01000034.290912.293116	Toxoplasma gondii ME49 ABPA02001045.1910.3693
Licmophora flucticulata HQ997923.1.1620	Tribolium castaneum HM156711.1.1831
Limnatis nilotica AY425470.1.1901	Trichoplax adhaerens L10828.1.1787
Lithodesmium undulatum Y10569.1.1806	Ustilago maydis KP322952.1.1609
Lumbricus rubellus Z83753.1.1816	Vaucheria bursata U41646.1.1831
Macaca mulatta AEHK01400485.183.2026	Vaucheria terrestris AM490830.1.1771
Micractinium reisseri AB437244.1.2123	Vitrella brassicaformis CCMP3155 CDMY01000449.33029.34795
Micromonas commoda RCC299 KU612123.1	Volvox carteri fnagariensis ACJH01008033.984.2764
Micromonas pusilla CCMP1545 ACCP01000012.989.2759	Xenopus laevis X02995.1030.2854
Monodelphis domestica AAFR03071841.2424.4306	Zea mays AC150267.44640.46440

Supplemental Table 2 B. Short Read Archive numbers and Run IDs corresponding to species that were missing 18S rRNA genes in the SILVA database. PhyloFlash was used with the raw Illumina data to reconstruct the 18S rRNA from these samples to add to the MMETSP phylogenetic tree.

SRA Archives	SRA Run ID	Species
SRX1045719	SRR2047475	Nannochloropsis oceanica CCMP1779
SRX236551	SRR715315	Saprolegnia diclina
SRX208010	SRR627744	Pyropia yezoensis U51

in	_	5	0	0		0	1	4	4	×				6	6	~		~		0		7				1	4	
Max	un	203	163	147	'	122	103	84	58	89	1	ı	'	63	32	42	'	4	'	21		32	·	93	1	20	119	35
Minim	um	1502	1160	799	992	916	637	603	481	416	416	400	397	333	291	248	240	228	196	170	133.9	120	91	90	80	99	41.3	10
Constrainted Node		Monosiga brevicollis AF174375.1 Skeletonema costatum 1716 MMETSP0013	Skeletonema marinoi skelA MMETSP0918, Erythrolobus australicus CCMP3124 MMETSP1353	Skeletonema marinoi skelA MMETSP0918, Alexandrium australiense KF908802.1.1672	Minchinia chitonis MMETSP0186, Bigelowiella natans CCMP1259 MMETSP1054	Rhodosorus marinus CCMP769 MMETSP0011, Erythrolobus australicus CCMP3124 MMETSP1353	Pavlova lutheri RCC1537 JF714236.1 MMETSP1463, Tisochrysis lutea KC888125.1.1723	Agaricus bisporus var bisporus H97 AEOK01000180.16575.18364, Debaryomyces hansenii vur homeonii AB013590.1.1784	Zea mays AC150267.44640.46440, Physcomitrella-patens ABEU01010493.4882.6690	Skeletonema marinoi skelA MMETSP0918, Schizochytrium aggregatum ATCC28209 AB022106 MMETSP0962	Heterosigma akashiwo CCMP3107 MMETSP0409, Chrysophyceae sp CCMP2298 MMETSP1141	Sordaria fimicola X69851.1.1796, Debaryomyces hansenii var hansenii AB013590.1.1784	Pelagomonas calceolata RCC969 MMETSP1328, Florenciella sp RCC1587 MMETSP1324	Micromonas pusilla CCMP1723 MMETSP1403, Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC2573 MMETSP0936	Scyphosphaera apsteinii RCC1455 MMETSP1333, Tisochrysis lutea KC888125.1.1723	Phaeocystis antarctica CaronLablsolate MMETSP1100, Phaeocystis cordata RCC1383 MMETSP1465	Karenia brevis CCMP2229 MMETSP0027, Alexandrium australiense KF908802.1.1672	Mallomonas sp CCMP3275 MMETSP1167, Chromulina nebulosa UTEXLB2642 MMETSP1095	Gonyaulax spinifera CCMP409 MMETSP1439, Alexandrium australiense KF908802.1.1672	Volvox carteri f nagariensis ACJH01008033.984.2764, Gonium pectorale FR865741.2.1763	Zea mays AC150267.44640.46440, Arabidopsis thaliana Columbia NR141642.1	Skeletonema marinoi skelA MMETSP0918, Stephanopyxis nipponica M87330.1.1805	Chaetoceros affinis CCMP159 MMETSP0088, Chaetoceros sp GSL56 MMETSP0200	Rhizosolenia setigera CCMP1694 MMETSP0789, Corethron hystrix 308 MMETSP0010	Skeletonema marinoi skelA MMETSP0918, Ardissonea formosa HQ912653.1.1618	Emiliania huxleyi CCMP1516 AHAL01000301.1474.3265, Tisochrysis lutea KC888125.1.1723	Calcidiscus leptoporus RCC1130 MMETSP1334, Coccolithus braarudi PLY182g	MIMEL ISPO164 Fragilariopsis kerguelensis L26 C5 MMETSP0733, Pseudo-nitzschia pungens cf cingulata MMETSP1060
Name		Eukarya	Red Algae - Green Algae Snlit	Diatom - Dinoflagellate Split	Cercozoa	Rhodophyceae	Appearance of Haptophytes	Origin of Fungi	Viridiplantae	Stramenopiles	Chrysophyceae appearance	Ascomycete	Pelagmonas - Florenciella	Micromonas-Ostreococcus split	Origin of Calcification in Hantophytes	Phaeocyeae	Karenia-Alexandrium split	Mallomonas - Chromulina split	Gonyaulax-Alexandrium Split	Split of Volvox-Gonium	Angiosperms	Appearance of Diatoms	Chaetoceros genus	Rise of Rhizosolenia	Bacillariophyceae	Emiliania - Tisochrysis	MRCA Calcidiscus -	<i>Coccolithus</i> Bacillariophyceae Family

Supplemental Table 3. Divergence time estimates between species. Data gathe Website from TimeTree.org for representative groups indicated with(Hedges et al. 2015) [1], taken (Liu et al. 2010) [2], taken from (Herron et al. 2009)[3], (Damsté et al. 2004) [4]
Supplementary Table 4.

Taxonomy of the MMETSP dataset, including the number of proteins recovered, the number of BUSCOs for each proteome, and the number of surviving orthologs from the Yang and Smith pipeline prior to orthologs filtering (Yang Homologs) and then after filtering for single copy orthologs (Yang Orthologs).

				# Predicted		l	Yang Smith	Yang Smith
Phylum	Genus	Species	Strain	MMETSP ID	Proteins	# of BUSCOs	Homologs	Orthologs
Alveolata								
Apicomplexa								
Conoidasida	Lankesteria	abbottii	GrapplerInletBC	MMETSP0372	6682	128	133	1
Chromerida								
Chromera	Chromera	velia	CCMP2878	MMETSP0290	16343	257	519	25
Vitrella	Vitrella	brassicaformis	CCMP3155	MMETSP0288	15802	243	616	37
Vitrella	Vitrella	brassicaformis	CCMP3346	MMETSP1451	16576	223	571	36
Ciliophora								
Intramacronucleata	Anophryoides	haemophila	AH6	MMETSP1018	8091	-	-	17
Intramacronucleata	Aristerostoma	sp.	ATCC50986	MMETSP0125	20764	174	400	13
Intramacronucleata	Euplotes	crassus	CT5	MMETSP1380	12393	220	611	29
Intramacronucleata	Euplotes	focardii	TN1	MMETSP0205	14951	158	1044	26
Intramacronucleata	Euplotes	harpa	FSP1-4	MMETSP0213	17120	208	545	27
Intramacronucleata	Favella	ehrenbergii	Fehrenl	MMETSP0123	17206	215	650	28
Intramacronucleata	Litonotus	pictus	P1	MMETSP0209	13922	237	57	1
Intramacronucleata	Mesodinium	pulex	SPMC105	MMETSP0467	50621	183	1220	51
Intramacronucleata	Myrionecta	rubra	CCMP2563	MMETSP0798	27318	190	889	24
Intramacronucleata	Platyophrya	macrostoma	WH	MMETSP0127	28507	294	909	38
Intramacronucleata	Protocruzia	adherens	Boccale	MMETSP0216	35390	286	277	10
Intramacronucleata	Pseudokeronopsis	sp.	Brazil	MMETSP1396	14294	207	1144	48
Intramacronucleata	Pseudokeronopsis	sp.	OXSARD2	MMETSP0211	16437	207	767	32
Intramacronucleata	Schmidingerella	taraikaensis	FeNarragansettBay	MMETSP0434	10801	78	802	20
Intramacronucleata	Strombidinopsis	acuminatum	SPMC142	MMETSP0126	34625	262	2024	65
Intramacronucleata	Strombidinopsis	SD.	SopsisLIS2011	MMETSP0463	20690	238	1050	38
Intramacronucleata	Strombidium	inclinatum	\$3	MMETSP0208	17497	240	611	30
Intramacronucleata	Strombidium	rassoulzadegani	ras09	MMETSP0449	10628	211	673	29
Intramacronucleata	Tiarina	fusus	LIS	MMETSP0472	43727	302	3158	265
Intramacronucleata	Uronema	SD.	Bbcil	MMETSP0018	9532	59	410	22
Postciliodesmatophora	Blepharisma	iaponicum	StockR1072	MMETSP1395	12414	200	616	22
Postciliodesmatophora	Climacostomum	virens	StockW-24	MMETSP1397	11204	247	411	16
Postciliodesmatophora	Condvlostoma	magnum	COL2	MMETSP0210	17726	109	329	12
Postciliodesmatophora	Fabrea	salina		MMETSP1345	8248	222	449	22
Postciliodesmatophora	Parduczia	like-sp. Undescribed		MMETSP1317	6092	35	105	-
Dinophyceae								
Dinophysiales	Dinophysis	acuminata	DAEP01	MMETSP0797	62052	240	1087	52
Gonyaulacales	Akashiwo	sanguinea	CCCM885	MMETSP0223	14	-	-	29
Gonvaulacales	Alexandrium	andersonii	CCMP2222	MMETSP1436	18455	90	791	_
Gonvaulacales	Alexandrium	catenella	OF101	MMETSP0790	49675	224	1451	58
Gonyaulacales	Alexandrium	fundvense	CCMP1719	MMETSP0196	1827	-	-	-
Gonyaulacales	Alexandrium	margalefi	AMGDE01CS-322	MMETSP0661	35485	193	1218	58
Gonyaulacales	Alexandrium	minutum	CCMP113	MMETSP0328	6720	-	-	-
Gonvaulacales	Alexandrium	monilatum	CCMP3105	MMETSP0095	66660	272	1468	66
Gonvaulacales	Alexandrium	tamarense	CCMP1771	MMETSP0378	84980	290	3506	129
Gonvaulacales	Azadinium	spinosum	3D9	MMETSP1036	52823	296	1713	56
Gonvaulacales	Ceratium	fusus	PA161109	MMETSP1075	52729	299	1426	52
Gonvaulacales	Crvpthecodinium	cohnii	Seligo	MMETSP0323	36058	305	1069	47
Gonvaulacales	Gambierdiscus	australes	CAWD149	MMETSP0766	33677	235	1259	46
Gonvaulacales	Gonvaulax	spinifera	CCMP409	MMETSP1439	22973	181	1017	44
Gonyaulacales	Lingulodinium	polyedra	CCMP1738	MMETSP1032	72637	252	1509	58

	Gonyaulacales	Protoceratium	reticulatum	CCMP1889	MMETSP0228	54591	248	1342	52
	Gonyaulacales	Pyrodinium	bahamense	pbaha01	MMETSP0796	75013	274	1573	58
	Gymnodiniales	Amphidinium	carterae	CCMP1314	MMETSP0259	31621	318	1308	54
	Gymnodiniales	Amphidinium	massartii	CS-259	MMETSP0689	44505	313	1288	57
	Gymnodiniales	Gymnodinium	catenatum	GC744	MMETSP0784	67787	318	1885	73
	Gymnodiniales	Gvrodinium	dominans	SPMC103	MMETSP1148	21	-	-	-
H	Gymnodiniales	Karenia	brevis	CCMP2229	MMETSP0027	60640	307	2102	55
H	Gymnodiniales	Karenia	brevis	SP1	MMETSP0573	68739	306	2287	58
H	Gymnodiniales	Karania	bravis	SP3	MMETSP0527	54101	287	2007	51
Н	Cummodiniales	Vanonia	humin	Wiken	MMETSP0202	72800	210	2007	57
Н	Commo diniales	Kurenia Kaula dinimu	UTEVIS	CCMD2282	MINETSD1015	12800	205	1270	40
Н	Gynnodinales	T	venejicum	CCMF2285	MINETSF1013	49411	303	1270	49
Н	Gymnodiniales	Togula	jolla	CCCM/25	MMETSP0224	35511	295	1214	52
Н	Noctilucales	Noctiluca	scintillans		MMETSP0253	31549	321	1051	42
Н	Oxyrrhinales	Oxyrrhis	marina	0.00 00 1 500	MMETSP0468	29597	298	1200	-
Ц	Oxyrrhinales	Oxyrrhis	marina	CCMP1788	MMETSP0044	29	-	-	-
Ц	Oxyrrhinales	Oxyrrhis	marina	CCMP1795	MMETSP0451	432	-	-	31
Ц	Oxyrrhinales	Oxyrrhis	marina	LB1974	MMETSP1424	24776	282	745	41
	Peridiniales	Brandtodinium	nutriculum	RCC3387	MMETSP1462	41272	227	1233	50
	Peridiniales	Durinskia	baltica	CSIROCS-38	MMETSP0117	59279	327	2977	271
	Peridiniales	Heterocapsa	arctica	CCMP445	MMETSP1441	25337	203	1038	54
	Peridiniales	Heterocapsa	rotundata	SCCAPK-483	MMETSP0503	34402	229	1080	49
	Peridiniales	Heterocapsa	triquetra	CCMP448	MMETSP0448	31973	215	1207	50
	Peridiniales	Kryptoperidinium	foliaceum	CCAP1116/3	MMETSP0118	66829	227	2771	296
H	Peridiniales	Krvntoperidinium	foliaceum	CCMP1326	MMETSP0120	104506	295	3660	330
H	Peridiniales	Lessardia	elongata		MMETSP1147	64	-	_	_
H	Peridiniales	Peridinium	aciculiferum	PAFR_2	MMETSP0370	37506	283	1701	65
H	Peridiniales	Scrinnsialla	hangogi	like-SHHI-4	MMETSP0367	54730	203	1906	67
Н	Paridinialas	Scrippsiella	hangoai	SUTV 5	MMETSP0250	56284	202	1900	67
Н	Daridinialas	Scrippsiella	tuashaidaa	CCMD2000	MMETSP0270	74202	205	1512	54
Н	Devidiniales	Thereseena	h simii	CCMP10(0	MINETSP0270	10	293	1313	54
Н	Periorinales	1 noracospnaera	neimii	CCMP1009	MMETSP0225	142	-	-	-
Н	Prorocentrales	Prorocentrum	uma	CCMP684	MMETSP0252	142	-	-	-
Н	Prorocentrales	Prorocentrum	micans	CCCM845	MMETSP0251	201	-	-	-
Ц	Prorocentrales	Prorocentrum	minimum	CCMP1329	MMETSP0053	54018	252	1587	60
Ц	Prorocentrales	Prorocentrum	minimum	CCMP2233	MMETSP0267	53968	252	1567	56
	Pyrocystales	Pyrocystis	lunula	CCCM517	MMETSP0229	31	-	-	-
	Suessiales	Pelagodinium	beii	RCC1491	MMETSP1338	36311	267	1423	46
	Suessiales	Polarella	glacialis	CCMP1383	MMETSP0227	42550	281	1498	46
	Suessiales	Polarella	glacialis	CCMP2088	MMETSP1440	18595	246	1290	52
	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	kawagutii	CCMP2468	MMETSP0132	1393	-	-	-
	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	sp.	C1	MMETSP1367	36921	310	1993	49
	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	sp.	C15	MMETSP1370	29068	249	1549	72
	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	sp.	CCMP2430	MMETSP1115	35890	270	1489	56
	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	SD.	CCMP421	MMETSP1110	60730	254	2288	41
H	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	sn.	cladeA	MMETSP1374	29653	227	1347	48
H	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	sp.	Dla	MMETSP1377	29487	149	2452	48
H	Suessiales	Symbiodinium	sp.	Mn	MMETSP1122	35661	296	1405	52
Н	Syndiniales	Amoebonhina	sp.	Ameob?	MMETSP0705	12427	63	90	1
Н	Perkinsea	yu	sp.	1116002		12421			1
H	Parkinsidaa	Darkingus	ohasanaaki	ATCCDDA 65	MMETSP0024	661			
Н	Perkinsidae	Perkinsus	marinus	ATCC50/30	MMETSP0022	1042	-	-	-
	masharaa	1 станзиз	marmus	AICCS0457	WIWIE131 0722	1042	_	-	-
A	Certanana								
Н	Cutosea	p //		DD 4, 20	NO (ETCD0 420	12702	224	257	(
Н	r essonella	ressonella	sp.	PKA-29	MIME I SP0420	13/93	234	357	0
Н	Unclassified	Sapocribrum	chincoteaguense	ATCC509/9	MME1SP0437	13091	222	153	I
Ц	Discosea								
Ц	Flabellinia	Paramoeba	aestuarina	SoJaBioB1-5-56-2	MMETSP0161	16687	278	893	26
Ц	Flabellinia	Paramoeba	atlantica	621-1-CCAP1560/9	MMETSP0151	13934	261	885	25
Ц	Flabellinia	Vannella	robusta	DIVA3518-3-11-1-6	MMETSP0166	14750	306	802	22
Ц	Flabellinia	Vannella	sp.	DIVA3517-6-12	MMETSP0168	15677	276	555	20
	Flabellinia	Vexillifera	sp.	DIVA3564-2	MMETSP0173	8747	289	313	7
	Longamoebia	Cunea	sp.	BSH-02190019	MMETSP0417	8755	304	341	12
	Stygamoebida	Stygamoeba	regulata	BSH-02190019	MMETSP0447	26744	315	694	15
	Stereomyxa		_						
Π	Stereomyxa ramosa	Dracoamoeba	jomungandri	Chine5	MMETSP0439	14588	325	447	10
Π	Tubulinea								
Π	Euamoebida	Filamoeba	nolandi	NC-AS-23-1	MMETSP0413	18369	305	527	15
H	Trichosphaerium	Trichosphaerium	sn	Am-I-7wt	MMETSP0405	16915	213	264	4
		- nonospitaci talli				10/10	-15	201	

Cryptophyta								
Cryptophyceae								
Cryptomonadaceae	Cryptomonas	curvata	CCAP979/52	MMETSP1050	24882	172	1029	37
Cryptomonadaceae	Cryptomonas	paramecium	CCAP977/2a	MMETSP0038	26159	206	1082	40
Cryptomonadaceae	Goniomonas	pacifica	CCMP1869	MMETSP0107	34181	252	820	30
Cryptomonadaceae	Goniomonas	sp.	m	MMETSP0114	15097	191	686	26
Hemiselmidaceae	Hemiselmis	andersenii	CCMP1180	MMETSP1042	23365	207	1336	52
Hemiselmidaceae	Hemiselmis	andersenii	CCMP439	MMETSP1041	18983	191	1323	54
Hemiselmidaceae	Hemiselmis	andersenii	CCMP441	MMETSP1043	18511	175	1187	41
Hemiselmidaceae	Hemiselmis	andersenii	CCMP644	MMETSP0043	25992	220	1412	54
Hemiselmidaceae	Hemiselmis	rufescens	PCC563	MMETSP1357	19350	208	1355	56
Hemiselmidaceae	Hemiselmis	tepida	CCMP443	MMETSP1355	12808	143	934	31
Hemiselmidaceae	Hemiselmis	virescens	PCC157	MMETSP1356	14074	210	1353	49
unclassified	Palnitomonas	hilix	NIES-2562	MMETSP0780	21710	254	245	2
unclassified Cryptophyta	Cryntonhyceae	sn	CCMP2293	MMETSP0986	27794	306	1244	56
Pyrenomonadales	cijpiopilječač	sp.	000002200		2////	500	12.11	20
Chroomonadaceae	Chroomonas	c f mesostigmatica	CCMP1168	MMETSP0047	27140	263	1320	58
Caminigaração	Caminigara	amonhila	CCMP2564	MMETSP0700	20260	203	1420	58
Geminigeraceae	Geminigera	cryopnua	CCMF2304	MMETSP1102	22172	292	1429	50
Gerninigeraceae	Geminigera	sp.	CaronLabisolate	MMETSP1102	331/3	273	1385	55
Geminigeraceae	Guillardia	theta	CCMP2/12	MMETSP0046	18869	273	1199	58
Geminigeraceae	Hanusia	phi	CCMP325	MMETSP1048	18729	196	963	41
Geminigeraceae	Proteomonas	sulcata	CCMP704	MMETSP1049	16700	125	951	42
Pyrenomonadaceae	Rhodomonas	abbreviata	CaronLabIsolate	MMETSP1101	24640	221	1511	58
Pyrenomonadaceae	Rhodomonas	lens	RHODO	MMETSP0484	24414	280	1393	60
Pyrenomonadaceae	Rhodomonas	salina	CCMP1319	MMETSP1047	23428	258	1269	52
Pyrenomonadaceae	Rhodomonas	sp.	CCMP768	MMETSP1091	15116	179	1165	52
Euglenozoa								
Euglenophyceae								
Eutreptiales	Eutreptiella	gymnastica-like	CCMP1594	MMETSP0809	15603	215	547	17
Eutreptiales	Eutrentiella	gymnastica	NIES-381	MMETSP0039	14022	220	582	17
Kinetoplastida		~~~~~~						- /
Bodonidae	Neobodo	designis	CCAP1951/1	MMETSP1114	18500	197	282	12
Clauconhyta	11000000	ucsignis	0011175171	MMETOTTT	10500	177	202	12
Clausophysa								
Classshastalas	Cusmontucho	ala an avatia	SAC4 07	MATTER 1094	6276	190	500	10
Gloeochaetales	Cyanopiyene	gioeocystis	SAG4-97	MINETSF1080	17005	160	390	19
Gioeocnaetaies	Gioeocnaete	wiitrockiana	SAG40-84	MINE ISP1089	1/995	338	1110	30
Haptophyta								
Coccolithales								
Calcidiscaceae	Calcidiscus	leptoporus	RCC1130	MMETSP1334	16430	262	1299	62
Coccolithaceae	Coccolithus	pelagicus ssp. braarudi	PLY182g	MMETSP0164	15883	259	1536	71
Pleurochrysidaceae	Pleurochrysis	carterae	CCMP645	MMETSP1136	20441	272	1315	64
Pontosphaeraceae	Scyphosphaera	apsteinii	RCC1455	MMETSP1333	21173	285	1384	56
Isochrysidales								
Isochrysidaceae	Isochrysis	galbana	CCMP1323	MMETSP0944	30689	336	1875	75
Isochrysidaceae	Isochrysis	sp.	CCMP1244	MMETSP1090	24844	219	1262	76
Isochrysidaceae	Isochrysis	sp.	CCMP1324	MMETSP1129	14319	251	1207	53
Noelaerhabdaceae	Emiliania	huxlevi	374	MMETSP1006	12616	174	1030	50
Noelaerhabdaceae	Emiliania	hurlevi	379	MMETSP0994	16566	178	1123	61
Noelaerhabdaceae	Emiliania	huxlevi	CCMP370	MMETSP1154	27531	224	1289	75
Noeherbabdaceae	Emiliania	hurleyi	PI VM210	MMETSP1150	26155	245	1330	76
Noeherbabdaceae	Canhyroganga	occarica	PCC1202	MMETSP1262	20133	245	1211	70
Pavlavalas	Gephyrocupsu	oceanica	KCC1505	IVIIVIE131 1303	24232	247	1511	12
Pavlovales	E		DCC1522	MAGTEDIACA	114((100	000	40
Paviovaceae	Exaninemacnrysis	gayrallae	RCC1525	MINETSP1404	11400	188	900	49
Paviovaceae	Pavlova	gyrans	CCMP608	MME1SP1466	10608	150	8/4	53
Pavlovaceae	Pavlova	lutheri	RCC1537	MME1SP1463	9146	148	967	60
Pavlovaceae	Pavlova	sp.	CCMP459	MMETSP1139	12159	204	1089	57
Pavlovaceae	Pavlovales	sp.	CCMP2436	MMETSP0982	24725	310	1201	66
Phaeocystales								
Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis	antarctica	CaronLabIsolate	MMETSP1100	37178	250	1235	54
Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis	antarctica	CCMP1374	MMETSP1444	12611	214	1158	60
Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis	cordata	RCC1383	MMETSP1465	6418	125	932	26
Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis	rex	CCMP2000	MMETSP1178	9825	172	983	41
Phaeocystaceae	Phaeocystis	sp.	CCMP2710	MMETSP1162	12392	166	880	45
Prymnesiales		-						
Chrysochromulinaceae	Chrvsochromulina	rotalis	UIO044	MMETSP0287	26424	238	1310	65
Chrysoculter	Chrysoculter	rhomboideus	RCC1486	MMETSP1335	9729	164	919	48
Prymnesiaceae	Hantoling	hrevifila	LITEXI B085	MMETSP1004	23713	200	1260	5/
Prympesiaceae	Hantolina	ericina	CCMP281	MMETSP1004	33566	209	1200	50
Dramposioooo	Imantonia	cricinu en	PCC019	MMETCD1474	15054	213	1575	27
Dramani	Dumment	sp.	Tavame ¹	MUNEISP14/4	10004	202	1372	03
Prymnesiaceae	Prymnesium	parvum	rexomal	MME1SP0006	29250	297	1391	68
Prymnesiaceae	Prymnesium	polylepis	CCMP1757	MME1SP0143	33497	220	1280	41
Prymnesiaceae	Prymnesium	polylepis	UIO037	MMETSP0286	16372	90	717	64
Heterolobosea								
Percolomonas	Percolomonas	cosmopolitus	AE-1-ATCC50343	MMETSP0758	11342	276	189	4
Percolomonas	Percolomonas	cosmopolitus	WS	MMETSP0759	10799	266	173	4

Opisthokonta								
Choanoflagellida								
Aconthogoida	Acanthooca	lika an 10tr		MMETSP0105	15624	275	402	12
Acanuloecida	Acaninoeca	uke-sp. 10tr		WINE ISF0105	13034	213	405	12
Fungi								
Ascomycetes	Debaryomyces	hansenii	J26	MMETSP0232	2478	166	59	-
Rh								
Cercozoa								
Chlorarachniophyceae	Amorphochlora	amoebiformis	CCMP2058	MMETSP0042	23016	351	1101	60
Chlorarachniophyceae	Bigelowiella	longifila	CCMP242	MMETSP1359	14866	194	1123	56
Chlorarachniophyceae	Bigelowiella	natans	CCMP1242	MMETSP1358	16168	311	1129	57
Chiorarachinophyceae		natans	CCIVIT 1242	MINIETSI 1558	24707	2(0	1120	57
Chiorarachniophyceae	Bigelowiella	natans	CCMP1258-1	MMETSP1055	24/9/	269	1241	53
Chlorarachniophyceae	Bigelowiella	natans	CCMP1259	MMETSP1054	24331	309	1258	56
Chlorarachniophyceae	Bigelowiella	natans	CCMP2755	MMETSP0045	21263	271	1166	53
Chlorarachniophyceae	Bigelowiella	natans	CCMP623	MMETSP1052	22991	307	1204	52
Chlorarachniophyceae	Chlorarachnion	reptans	CCCM449	MMETSP0109	24858	362	1138	55
Chlorarachniophyceae	Gymnochlora	sp.	CCMP2014	MMETSP0110	15823	338	981	51
Chlorarachnionhyceae	Lotharella	globosa	CCCM811	MMETSP0111	17478	286	1078	54
Chlorarachniophycede	Lothanolla	alahaaa	LEVOI	MMETSP0041	22072	200	1120	57
Chiorarachinophyceae	Loinarella	giobosa	LEAUI	MINE I SF 0041	22972	322	1120	57
Chlorarachniophyceae	Lotharella	oceanica	CCMP622	MME1SP0040	14994	213	1048	50
Chlorarachniophyceae	Norrisiella	sphaerica	BC52	MMETSP0113	13468	274	1019	52
Chlorarachniophyceae	Partenskyella	glossopodia	RCC365	MMETSP1318	13371	270	1049	51
Unclassified Cercozoa	Mataza	sp.	SIOpierMataz1	MMETSP0086	20849	334	588	21
Foraminifera								
Miliolida	Sorites	sn		MMETSP0191	46570	239	1398	26
Rotaliida	Ammonia	cn		MMETSP1394	20082	280	722	20
Datalida	Elshidia	sp.		MACTOR 1304	16050	209	622	10
Rotallida	Elphiaium	margaritaceum		MME1SP1385	16959	276	623	19
Rotaliida	Rosalina	sp.		MMETSP0190	17622	163	584	15
Haplosporidia								
Haplosporidiidae	Minchinia	chitonis		MMETSP0186	205	-	-	-
Rhodophyta								
Bangionhyceae								
Dangiophyceae	Emithuolohua	austualisus	CCMD2124	MMETCD1252	5967	154	656	21
Forphyridiaes	Eryinroloous	austraticus	CCMF3124	MINE ISF 1555	3803	134	030	31
Porphyridiales	Erythrolobus	madagascarensis	CCMP3276	MME1SP1354	5563	111	614	32
Porphyridiales	Porphyridium	aerugineum	SAG1380-2	MMETSP0313	6457	188	611	23
Porphyridiales	Timspurckia	oligopyrenoides	CCMP3278	MMETSP1172	5422	200	599	32
Unclassified	Bangiophyceae	sp.	CCMP1999	MMETSP1475	7066	273	800	50
Compsonogonophyceae								
Compsonogonales	Compsonogon	coarulaus	SAG36-94	MMETSP0312	5607	228	441	10
Enthronaltidalas	Madagagagaia	omithus ola dioidan	CCMD2224	MMETSD1450	20046	212	769	26
Eryunopendales	maaagascaria	eryinrociaaioiaes	CCIVIF 5254	WINE ISF 1450	20040	215	/08	20
Rhodellophyceae								
Rhodellales	Rhodella	maculata	CCMP736	MMETSP0167	10107	169	358	20
Stylonematophyceae								
Stylonematales	Rhodosorus	marinus	CCMP769	MMETSP0011	9098	295	812	55
Stylonematales	Rhodosorus	marinus	UTEXLB2760	MMETSP0315	6415	226	813	49
Stramenoniles	10100050705		CTLALED2/00		0110	220	015	.,
Desillariante								
васшагюрпута								
Bacillariophyceae	Amphiprora	paludosa	CCMP125	MMETSP1065	13911	240	1119	302
Bacillariophyceae	Amphiprora	sp.	CCMP467	MMETSP0725	16080	286	1148	294
Bacillariophyceae	Amphora	coffeaeformis	CCMP127	MMETSP0316	11868	164	937	200
Bacillariophyceae	Craspedostauros	australis	CCMP3328	MMETSP1442	10308	105	906	257
Bacillarionhyceae	Cylindrotheca	closterium	KMMCC-B-181	MMETSP0017	26203	305	1247	308
Bagillariophyceae	Entomonois	cn	CCMP2206	MMETSP1442	8057	170	1050	224
Desillariophyceae	Entomonets	sp.	12.02	MAGTED0000	2(7(0	224	1000	207
Bacillariophyceae	r raguariopsis	kergueiensis	12-03	MIME I SP0906	30/00	324	1292	297
Bacillariophyceae	Fragilariopsis	kerguelensis	L26-C5	MMETSP0733	23278	304	1236	299
Bacillariophyceae	Nitzschia	sp.	RCC80	MMETSP0014	39601	317	1265	282
Bacillariophyceae	Pseudo-nitzschia	arenysensis	B593	MMETSP0329	20142	282	1225	299
Bacillariophyceae	Pseudo-nitzschia	australis	1024910AB	MMETSP0139	13298	297	1168	312
Bacillarionhyceae	Pseudo-nitzschia	delicatissima	B596	MMETSP0327	17743	302	1180	306
Bagillariophyceae	Psoudo nitzschia	dolioatissima	UNC1205	MMETSP1422	10214	205	1208	208
D	D l i li		01001205	MIMETSI 1452	20004	203	1208	220
Bacillariophyceae	Pseudo-nitzschia	fraudulenta	WWA/	MME1SP0850	29904	254	2058	330
Bacıllarıophyceae	Pseudo-nitzschia	heimii	UNCI101	MMETSP1423	11460	292	1156	297
Bacillariophyceae	Pseudo-nitzschia	pungens c.f. cingulata		MMETSP1060	10826	260	1038	302
Bacillariophyceae	Pseudo-nitzschia	pungens c.f. pungens		MMETSP1061	11909	272	1114	307
Bacillariophyceae	Stauroneis	constricta	CCMP1120	MMETSP1352	9437	168	766	200
Bacillariophyceae	Tryblionella	compressa	CCMP561	MMETSP0744	14189	216	1033	280
Coscinodisconhuces	Corathron	hystric	308	MMETSD0010	16067	210	1110	102
Cosciliouscophyceae	Coreinron	nystria	12042	MAGETCR01/C	20702	230	1119	172
Coscinodiscophyceae	Corethron	pennatum	L29A3	MME1SP0169	30703	257	1144	200
Coscinodiscophyceae	Coscinodiscus	wailesii	CCMP2513	MMETSP1066	17343	252	1274	249
Coscinodiscophyceae	Leptocylindrus	aporus	B651	MMETSP0322	13853	277	1141	255
Coscinodiscophyceae	Leptocylindrus	danicus	B650	MMETSP0321	20125	300	1293	256
Coscinodisconhyceae	Lentocylindrus	danicus	CCMP1856	MMETSP1362	11668	289	1281	218
Coscinodisconhupeca	Prohoseia	alata	PI_D3	MMETSD0174	20007	310	1214	210
Coscillouiscophyceae	Duchase	uuuu haanna ta	CCAD10(4/1	MAGETCROOT	120/07	1(0	1014	244
Coscinodiscophyceae	Proboscia	inermis	CCAP1064/1	MME1SP0816	13867	169	1256	234
Coscinodiscophyceae	<i>knizosolenia</i>	setigera	CCMP1694	MME1SP0789	20486	300	1111	247

Fragilariophyceae	Asterionellopsis	glacialis		MMETSP0713	11279	229	1226	330
Fragilariophyceae	Asterionellopsis	glacialis	CCMP134	MMETSP0705	15719	276	1373	314
Fragilariophyceae	Asterionellonsis	glacialis	CCMP1581	MMETSP1394	11390	277	1261	311
Fragilariophyceae	Astrosyna	radiata	13vi08-1A	MMETSP0/18	20720	156	1177	260
Eragilarianhyacaa	Cuolonhoua	tonuis	ECT2954	MMETSD0207	17164	141	1106	200
Fiagianophyceae	Cyciopnora	ienuis	EC 13634	MINETSP0397	1/104	141	1100	209
Fragilariophyceae	Grammatophora	oceanica	CCMP410	MME1SP0009	15/98	1/5	114/	244
Fragilariophyceae	Licmophora	paradoxa	CCMP2313	MMETSP1360	14141	201	1155	274
Fragilariophyceae	Staurosira	complexsp	CCMP2646	MMETSP1361	12983	287	1201	302
Fragilariophyceae	Striatella	unipunctata	CCMP2910	MMETSP0800	22437	196	1043	219
Fragilariophyceae	Synedropsis	c.f. recta	CCMP1620	MMETSP1176	12149	206	1175	280
Fragilariophyceae	Thalassionema	frauenfeldii	CCMP1798	MMETSP0786	21892	309	1241	319
Fragilariophyceae	Thalassionema	nitzschioides		MMETSP0693	3099	-		-
Fragilariophyceae	Thalassionama	nitzschioides	L26-B	MMETSP0156	15232	316	1253	324
Fina alla nice have a s	Thelessionemu	nu2senioides	L20-D	MATTER 0150	16421	227	1255	200
Fragilariopnyceae	Indiassioinrix	antarctica	L0-D1	MIMETSP0152	10431	327	1320	300
Mediophyceae	Attheya	septentrionalis	CCMP2084	MMETSP1449	11038	225	1140	274
Mediophyceae	Aulacoseira	subarctica	CCAP1002/5	MMETSP1064	11436	267	1007	191
Mediophyceae	Chaetoceros	affinis	CCMP159	MMETSP0088	11843	295	1176	316
Mediophyceae	Chaetoceros	brevis	CCMP164	MMETSP1435	2744	-	-	-
Mediophyceae	Chaetoceros	c.f. neogracile	RCC1993	MMETSP1336	11429	266	1278	311
Mediophyceae	Chaetoceros	curvisetus		MMETSP0716	13997	197	1330	320
Mediophyceae	Chaetoceros	dehilis	MM31A-1	MMETSP0149	13053	351	1314	316
Mediophyceae	Chastosaros	diohaata	CCMP1751	MMETSP1447	12614	228	1277	280
Mediophyceae	Chueioceros	uicnueiu	CCMI 1751	MINETS1 1447	12014	230	12/7	280
Mediopnyceae	Chaetoceros	neogracue	CCMP131/	MMETSP0/51	18134	328	1285	326
Mediophyceae	Chaetoceros	sp.	GSL56	MMETSP0200	14561	301	1109	313
Mediophyceae	Chaetoceros	sp.	UNC1202	MMETSP1429	9597	150	1251	298
Mediophyceae	Cyclotella	meneghiniana	CCMP338	MMETSP1057	12776	305	1115	277
Mediophyceae	Dactyliosolen	fragilissimus		MMETSP0580	9661	331	1211	275
Mediophyceae	Ditvlum	brightwellii	GSO103	MMETSP1002	13382	169	1385	285
Medionhyceae	Ditvhum	hrightwellij	GSO104	MMETSP1010	18312	302	1540	313
Mediophyceae	Ditylum	brightwellij	GSO104	MMETSP0008	16013	270	1454	319
Madianharaaa	Ditulum	huisht well	Dem1 004	MATERNIO	25059	270	1615	221
Mediophyceae	Duyum	brightweun	Pop1-554	MINETSP1062	25958	332	1615	321
Mediophyceae	Ditylum	brightwellii	Pop2-SS10	MME1SP1063	25500	342	1607	324
Mediophyceae	Eucampia	antarctica	CCMP1452	MMETSP1437	8726	239	1151	258
Mediophyceae	Extubocellulus	spinifer	CCMP396	MMETSP0696	33809	275	1149	337
Mediophyceae	Helicotheca	tamensis	CCMP826	MMETSP1171	8123	138	1005	226
Mediophyceae	Minutocellus	polymorphus	CCMP3303	MMETSP1434	7158	59	698	175
Mediophyceae	Minutocellus	polymorphus	NH13	MMETSP1070	25350	279	1118	338
Medionhyceae	Minutocellus	nobmorphus	RCC2270	MMETSP1322	10968	190	1079	283
Mediophyceae	Odontella	aurita	isolate1302-5	MMETSP0015	30813	286	1/19	323
Madiophyseas	Odontella	ainanaia	Comour1994	MMETSP0160	14045	109	1200	201
Mediophyceae	Claineita	sinensis	1716	MINIETSF0100	14043	198	1288	301
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	costatum	1/16	MME1SP0013	29077	351	1569	287
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	dohrnii	SkelB	MMETSP0562	15481	280	1190	292
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	grethea	CCMP1804	MMETSP0578	10204	199	1006	224
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	japonicum	CCMP2506	MMETSP0593	11387	251	1128	277
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	marinoi	FE60	MMETSP1040	15348	174	1118	227
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	marinoi	FE7	MMETSP1039	17170	201	1198	242
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	marinoi	skelA	MMETSP0918	12426	224	1233	279
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	marinoi	SM1012Den=03	MMETSP0320	25127	267	1276	286
Medionhycene	Skalatonoma	marinoi	SM1012Hale 07	MMETSD0210	2/80/	311	1202	200
Mediophyceae	Skeleionemu	murinoi	UNICI201	MINIETSD1429	11(12	279	1292	203
Mediophyceae	skeletonema	marinoi	UNC1201	MIME1SP1428	11013	2/8	1210	293
Mediophyceae	Skeletonema	menzelu	CCMP/93	MME1SP0603	11681	306	1154	291
Mediophyceae	Stephanopyxis	turris	CCMP815	MMETSP0794	15594	223	1391	244
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	antarctica	CCMP982	MMETSP0902	19602	328	1386	304
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	gravida	GMp14c1	MMETSP0492	14203	225	1270	278
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	miniscula	CCMP1093	MMETSP0737	25756	318	1463	299
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	oceanica	CCMP1005	MMETSP0970	21946	264	1085	288
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	punctigera	Tpunct2005C2	MMETSP1067	17890	288	1303	292
Medionhyceae	Thalassiosira	rotula	CCMP3096	MMETSP0403	19018	335	1414	297
Madiophyceue	Thalassiosira	rotula	GSQ102	MMETSP0010	15286	245	1240	292
Mediophyceae	Thelessiosira	roiuu	CCMD252	MINIETSD 1050	13280	245	1340	200
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	sp.	CCMP355	MMETSP1058	14896	338	1315	299
Mediophyceae	1 nalassiosira	sp.	FW	MMETSP1059	9901	291	1125	285
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	sp.	NH16	MMETSP1071	29455	318	1340	295
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	weissflogii	CCMP1010	MMETSP0898	14205	291	1143	298
Mediophyceae	Thalassiosira	weissflogii	CCMP1336	MMETSP0878	13030	303	1207	296
Mediophyceae	Triceratium	dubium	CCMP147	MMETSP1175	10858	129	889	196
Bicosoecida								
Cafeteriaceae	Cafeteria	roenhergensis	F4-10	MMETSP0942	14668	168	210	5
Cafataringang	Cafatavic	co	Caron chisalata	MMETCD1104	11044	100	414	10
Underside	Disconstil	sp.		MAGTER DOLLS	11000	230	414	10
Unclassified	BICOSOECId	sp.	msi	MME1SP0115	11280	162	456	29
Bolidophyceae							ļ	
Bolidomonas	Bolidomonas	pacifica	CCMP1866	MMETSP0785	18382	263	1068	126
Bolidomonas	Bolidomonas	pacifica	RCC208	MMETSP1319	13441	231	1245	148
Bolidomonas	Bolidomonas	sp.	RCC1657	MMETSP1321	12631	215	1003	135
Bolidomonas	Bolidomonas	sp.	RCC2347	MMETSP1320	10867	209	1032	141

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	Chrysophyceae								
	Chromulinales	Chromulina	nebulosa	UTEXLB2642	MMETSP1095	9023	218	887	51
	Chromulinales	Dinobryon	sp.	UTEXLB2267	MMETSP0019	17759	286	1007	75
	Chromulinales	Ochromonas	sp.	BG-1	MMETSP1105	18065	267	891	71
	Chromulinales	Ochromonas	SD.	CCMP1393	MMETSP0004	13527	278	1157	92
	Chromulinales	Ochromonas	sn	CCMP1899	MMETSP1177	12761	310	1115	68
	Chromulinales	Paranhysomonas	bandajansis	CaronI ableolate	MMETSP1103	13825	364	1135	77
	Chromulinalos	Davanhusomonas	importonata	DA2	MMETSP0102	12042	270	002	62
	Chromuliales	Faraphysomonas	imperjoraia	FA2	MINETSF0105	13042	279	903	02
	Chromulinales	Paraphysomonas	vestita	GFlagA	MMEISPII0/	11004	252	1011	/6
	Chromulinales	Spumella	elongata	CCAP955/1	MMETSP1098	14732	292	1469	92
	Unclassified	Chrysophyceae	sp.	CCMP2298	MMETSP1141	20099	263	1257	96
	Dictyochophyceae								
	Dictyochales	Dictyocha	speculum	CCMP1381	MMETSP1174	19577	271	1284	97
	Florenciellales	Florenciella	parvula	CCMP2471	MMETSP1344	23779	207	1255	90
	Florenciellales	Florenciella	parvula	RCC1693	MMETSP1323	9983	122	1003	106
	Florenciellales	Florenciella	sn	BCC1007	MMETSP1325	13948	162	1033	67
	Florenciallalag	Flowenciella	sp.	BCC1597	MMETSD1224	0766	01	P11	05
	P DI LI LI	P l l: II	sp.	CC1387	MINETSP1324	9700	91	1201	93
	Pedineliales	Pseudopedinella	elastica	CCMP/16	MMETSP1068	23592	267	1391	112
	Pedinellales	Pteridomonas	danica	PT	MMETSP0101	19601	287	1047	80
	Rhizochromulinales	Rhizochromulina	c.f. marina	CCMP1243	MMETSP1173	13413	254	1166	105
	Unclassified	Dictyochophyceae	sp.	CCMP2098	MMETSP0990	41646	303	1347	110
	Labyrinthulomycetes								
	Thraustochytriaceae	Aplanochytrium	sp.	PBS07	MMETSP0954	9488	242	854	61
	Thraustochvtriaceae	Aplanochvtrium	stocchinoi	GSBS06	MMETSP1346	10972	214	876	65
	Thraustochytriaceae	Aurantiochytrium	limacinum	ATCCMYA-1381	MMETSP0959	11295	353	945	56
	Thraustochytriaceae	Schizochytrium	nggregatum	ATCC28200	MMETSP0062	9820	237	731	58
	Thraustochytriaceae	Througe chattain	aggreguium	LIE1h	MMETED0109	0469	200	950	50
	Thraustocnytraceae	Labaminth 11	sp.	ODV NW0212000D CT	MATTER POOR	9408	320	0.02	50
	Unclassified	Labyrinthulid	quahog parasite	QPX NY0313808BC1	MME1SP0098	10450	258	803	65
	Unclassified	Labyrinthulid	quahog parasite	QPX NY070348D	MMETSP1433	9800	300	862	64
	Pelagophyceae								
	Pelagomonadales	Aureococcus	anophagefferens	CCMP1850	MMETSP0914	23878	163	835	109
	Pelagomonadales	Aureoumbra	lagunensis	CCMP1510	MMETSP0890	10973	276	933	88
	Pelagomonadales	Pelagococcus	subviridis	CCMP1429	MMETSP0882	12932	155	813	79
	Pelagomonadales	Pelagomonas	calceolata	CCMP1756	MMETSP0886	14685	273	1105	111
	Pelagomonadales	Pelagomonas	calceolata	BCC969	MMETSP1328	12251	214	1035	102
	Sarainoahrusidalas	Chrysocrystic	fragilis	CCMP2180	MMETSP1165	10108	150	700	06
	Sarcinochi ysidales	Chirysocysus Chirysocysus	Jruguis	CCMD2050	MMETSP1164	10196	159	733	105
	Sarcinochrysidales	Chrysoreinnaraia	sp.	CCMP2930	MINETSP1104	12347	105	121	105
	Sarcinochrysidales	Chrysoreinhardia	sp.	CCMP3193	MMETSP1166	12450	237	941	98
	Sarcinochrysidales	Sarcinochrysis	sp.	CCMP770	MMETSP1170	4448	69	423	60
	Unclassified	Pelagophyceae	sp.	CCMP2097	MMETSP0975	20678	285	1007	97
	Unclassified	Pelagophyceae	sp.	CCMP2135	MMETSP1467	12044	173	857	104
	Unclassified	Pelagophyceae	sp.	RCC1024	MMETSP1329	13073	176	957	99
	Pinguiophyceae		1						
	Pinguiochrysidales	Phaeomonas	parva	CCMP2877	MMETSP1163	12837	195	750	81
	Pinguiochrysidales	Pinguiococcus	mranoidosus	CCMP2078	MMETSP1160	7501	228	626	70
	BV alada	1 inguiococcus	pyrenouosus	2070	MINEISFITO	1571	220	020	17
	I A_claue	17 1 .	1.	GC1 (D20 40	NO (CTOD0045	0140	200	070	4.5
	Xantnopnyceae	Vaucheria	litorea	ССМР2940	MME1SP0945	8148	289	872	45
	Raphidophyceae								
	Chattonellales	Chattonella	subsalsa	CCMP2191	MMETSP0947	17677	330	1362	122
	Chattonellales	Fibrocapsa	japonica	CCMP1661	MMETSP1339	7569	183	954	81
	Chattonellales	Heterosigma	akashiwo	CCMP2393	MMETSP0292	21961	248	1400	125
	Chattonellales	Heterosigma	akashiwo	CCMP3107	MMETSP0409	13376	168	1200	98
	Chattonellales	Heterosigma	akashiwo	CCMP452	MMETSP0894	11785	165	1222	101
	Chattonellales	Heterosigma	akashiwo	NB	MMETSP0416	23592	196	1445	127
	Synchromonbycese								
	Synchrome	Synchroma	nusillum	CCMP3072	MMETSP1452	0072	145	400	24
	Synchionia	Synchroma	pusuum	CCMF5072	MIMETSF1452	9072	143	400	24
	Synuropnyceae								
	Synurales	Mallomonas	sp.	CCMP3275	MMETSP1167	14431	273	1173	60
1	Viridiplantae								
	Chlorophyta								
	Chlorodendrophyceae	Tetraselmis	astigmatica	CCMP880	MMETSP0804	21714	330	1282	108
	Chlorodendrophyceae	Tetraselmis	chuii	PLY429	MMETSP0491	18733	236	1189	95
	Chlorodendrophyceae	Tetraselmis	sp.	GSL018	MMETSP0419	20288	283	1107	92
	Chlorodendronhyceae	Tetraselmis	striata	LANL1001	MMETSP0817	15261	287	1167	115
	Chlorophyceae	Chlamydomonas	chlamydogawa	SAG11-APh	MMETSP1202	12002	207	1202	00
	Chlorophyceae	Chlamad	oumalo	CCMD210	MAETEROOCA	12773	275	027	70
	Chlorophyceae	Chiamydomonds	euryuie	CUMF219	IVIIVIE I SPUU03	11/81	213	93/	/8
	Chlorophyceae	Chlamydomonas	ieiostraca	SAGI1-49	MME1SP1391	11617	255	1107	93
	Chlorophyceae	Chlamydomonas	c.f. sp.	CCMP681	MMETSP1180	6702	235	1051	81
	Chlorophyceae	Dunaliella	tertiolecta	CCMP1320	MMETSP1126	11726	326	1056	93
	Chlorophyceae	Polytomella	parva	SAG63-3	MMETSP0052	22218	280	648	43
	Mamiellophyceae	Bathycoccus	prasinos	CCMP1898	MMETSP1399	5463	252	584	62
	Mamiellophyceae	Bathycoccus	prasinos	RCC716	MMETSP1460	5031	207	543	62
	Mamiellophyceae	Crustomastix	stigmata	CCMP3273	MMETSP0803	12005	193	615	54
	Mamiellonhyceae	Dolichomastiv	tenuilenis	CCMP3274	MMETSP0022	12634	241	702	61
	Mamiallan	Mamiollal-	an	DCC2289	MAETOD1224	12004	104	1022	00
	wamenopnyceae	wamienales	sp.	KUU2288	IVIIVIE I SP1326	13893	194	1032	98

	Mamiellophyceae	Mantoniella	antarctica	SL-175	MMETSP1106	19815	263	1193	109
	Mamiellophyceae	Mantoniella	sp.	CCMP1436	MMETSP1468	9146	196	1063	102
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	pusilla	CCAC1681	MMETSP1401	8923	251	900	109
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	pusilla	CCMP1723	MMETSP1403	8136	249	843	109
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	pusilla	CCMP494	MMETSP1404	7965	247	869	109
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	pusilla	RCC1614	MMETSP1402	7280	212	797	99
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	pusilla	RCC2306	MMETSP1327	7688	229	932	101
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	sp.	CCMP1646	MMETSP1080	12025	237	821	113
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	sp.	CCMP2099	MMETSP0802	7866	279	918	110
Π	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	sp.	CS-222	MMETSP1393	5759	175	816	78
Π	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	sp.	NEPCC29	MMETSP1082	6667	231	779	112
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	sp.	RCC451	MMETSP1400	8665	230	865	110
	Mamiellophyceae	Micromonas	sp.	RCC472	MMETSP1084	7533	242	800	111
	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	lucimarinus Clade-A	BCC118000	MMETSP0939	7275	250	784	96
Π	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus Clade-D	RCC1107	MMETSP0938	7284	262	894	96
П	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus Clade-D	RCC1621	MMETSP0930	7233	246	859	89
П	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus Clade-D	RCC2572	MMETSP0929	5188	272	815	99
	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus Clade-D	RCC2573	MMETSP0936	6879	245	840	93
	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus Clade-D	RCC2589	MMETSP0933	7934	268	588	64
	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus Clade-D	RCC2593	MMETSP0937	6928	245	850	88
	Mamiellophyceae	Ostreococcus	mediterraneus Clade-D	RCC2596	MMETSP0932	7692	281	891	98
Π	Nephrophyceae	Nephroselmis	pyriformis	CCMP717	MMETSP0034	21445	246	1015	73
П	Palmophyllophyceae	Prasinococcus	capsulatus	CCMP1194	MMETSP0941	6872	261	564	34
	Palmophyllophyceae	Prasinoderma	coloniale	CCMP1413	MMETSP0806	8041	231	697	66
	Palmophyllophyceae	Prasinoderma	singularis	RCC927	MMETSP1315	8453	213	738	64
	Prasinophytes	Picocystis	salinarum	CCMP1897	MMETSP0807	5364	263	464	33
	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp.	CCMP1205	MMETSP1469	5782	216	833	35
	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp.	CCMP2111	MMETSP1446	5195	243	770	37
	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp. CladeVIIA1	RCC701	MMETSP1453	5759	165	851	32
	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp. CladeVIIA1	RCC998	MMETSP1309	5855	279	890	41
	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp. CladeVIIA4	RCC1871	MMETSP1456	5745	265	809	40
Π	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp. CladeVIIA4	RCC2335	MMETSP1312	5440	249	761	32
П	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp. CladeVIIA5	CCMP2175	MMETSP1470	15520	249	2121	50
П	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp. CladeVIIA5	RCC856	MMETSP1311	5355	128	717	21
П	Prasinophytes	Prasinophyceae	sp. CladeVIIB2	RCC2339	MMETSP1310	16347	277	1142	54
Π	Pyramimonadophyceae	Polyblepharides	amylifera	CCMP720	MMETSP1081	13465	249	1201	90
П	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pterosperma	sp.	CCMP1384	MMETSP1438	10127	201	888	55
	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pycnococcus	provasolii	RCC2336	MMETSP1316	6973	199	392	24
П	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pycnococcus	provasolii	RCC251	MMETSP1472	5902	108	359	24
П	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pycnococcus	provasolii	RCC733	MMETSP1471	5528	139	366	24
Π	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pycnococcus	provasolii	RCC931	MMETSP1459	6584	192	378	26
Π	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pycnococcus	sp.	CCMP1998	MMETSP1085	5949	260	808	42
	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pyramimonas	obovata	CCMP722	MMETSP1169	13328	258	1213	99
Π	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pyramimonas	parkeae	CCMP726	MMETSP0058	19259	308	1228	96
	Pyramimonadophyceae	Pyramimonas	sp.	CCMP2087	MMETSP1445	12907	270	1239	101
Π	Trebouxiophyceae	Picochlorum	oklahomensis	CCMP2329	MMETSP1161	4681	192	732	66
	Trebouxiophyceae	Picochlorum	sp.	RCC944	MMETSP1330	5885	176	895	67
Π	Trebouxiophyceae	Stichococcus	sp.	RCC1054	MMETSP1473	7290	226	705	54

Species Name	Trophic Group
Acanthoeca like sp 10tr	Heterotrophic
Akashiwo sanguinea CCCM885	Mixotrophic
Alexandrium andersonii CCMP2222	Autotrophic
Alexandrium catenella OF101	Mixotrophic
Alexandrium fundyense CCMP1719	Mixotrophic
Alexandrium margalefi AMGDE01CS 322	Autotrophic
Alexandrium minutum CCMP113	Mixotrophic
Alexandrium monilatum CCMP3105	Mixotrophic
Alexandrium tamarense CCMP1771	Mixotrophic
Ammonia sp	Heterotrophic
Amoebophrya sp Ameob2	Parasitic
Amorphochlora amoebiformis CCMP2058	Mixotrophic
Amphidinium carterae CCMP1314	Mixotrophic
Amphidinium massartii CS 259	Mixotrophic
Amphiprora paludosa CCMP125	Autotrophic
Amphiprora sp CCMP467	Autotrophic
Amphora coffeaeformis CCMP127	Autotrophic
Anophryoides haemophila AH6	Parasitic
Aplanochytrium sp PBS07	Heterotrophic
Aplanochytrium stocchinoi GSBS06	Heterotrophic
Aristerostoma sp ATCC50986	Heterotrophic
Asterionellopsis glacialis	Autotrophic
Asterionellopsis glacialis CCMP134	Autotrophic
Asterionellopsis glacialis CCMP1581	Autotrophic
Astrosyne radiata 13vi08 1A	Autotrophic
Attheya septentrionalis CCMP2084	Autotrophic
Aulacoseira subarctica CCAP1002 5	Autotrophic
Aurantiochytrium limacinum ATCCMYA 1381	Heterotrophic
Aureococcus anophagefferens CCMP1850	Mixotrophic
Aureoumbra lagunensis CCMP1510	Autotrophic
Azadinium spinosum 3D9	Autotrophic
Bangiophyceae sp CCMP1999	Autotrophic
Bathycoccus prasinos CCMP1898	Autotrophic
Bathycoccus prasinos RCC716	Autotrophic
Bicosoecid sp ms1	Heterotrophic
Bigelowiella longifila CCMP242	Mixotrophic
Bigelowiella natans CCMP1242	Mixotrophic
Bigelowiella natans CCMP1258-1	Mixotrophic
Bigelowiella natans CCMP1259	Mixotrophic
Bigelowiella natans CCMP2755	Mixotrophic

Supplementary Table 5. Trophic Classifications of MMETSP Dataset.

Bigelowiella natans CCMP623 *Blepharisma japonicum* StockR1072 Bolidomonas pacifica CCMP1866 Bolidomonas pacifica RCC208 Bolidomonas sp RCC1657 Bolidomonas sp RCC2347 Brandtodinium nutriculum RCC3387 Cafeteria roenbergensis E4-10 Cafeteria sp CaronLabIsolate Calcidiscus leptoporus RCC1130 Ceratium fusus PA161109 Chaetoceros affinis CCMP159 Chaetoceros brevis CCMP164 Chaetoceros cf neogracile RCC1993 Chaetoceros curvisetus Chaetoceros debilis MM31A-1 Chaetoceros dichaeta CCMP1751 Chaetoceros neogracile CCMP1317 Chaetoceros sp GSL56 Chaetoceros sp UNC1202 Chattonella subsalsa CCMP2191 Chlamydomonas chlamydogama SAG11-48b Chlamydomonas euryale CCMP219 Chlamydomonas leiostraca SAG11-49 Chlamydomonas cf sp CCMP681 Chlorarachnion reptans CCCM449 Chromera velia CCMP2878 Chromulina nebulosa UTEXLB2642 Chroomonas mesostigmaticacf CCMP1168 Chrysochromulina rotalis UIO044 Chrysoculter rhomboideus RCC1486 Chrysocystis fragilis CCMP3189 Chrysophyceae sp CCMP2298 Chrysoreinhardia sp CCMP2950 Chrysoreinhardia sp CCMP3193 Climacostomum virens StockW-24 Coccolithus pelagicuss sp braarudi PLY182g Compsopogon coeruleus SAG36-94 *Condylostoma magnum* COL2 Corethron hystrix 308 Corethron pennatum L29A3 Coscinodiscus wailesii CCMP2513 Craspedostauros australis CCMP3328

Mixotrophic Heterotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Symbiont Heterotrophic Heterotrophic Autotrophic Mixotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Mixotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Mixotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Heterotrophic Mixotrophic Autotrophic Heterotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic

Crustomastix stigmata CCMP3273 Crypthecodinium cohnii Seligo Cryptomonas curvata CCAP979/52 Cryptomonas paramecium CCAP977/2a Cryptophyceae sp CCMP2293 Cunea sp BSH 02190019 Cyanoptyche gloeocystis SAG4-97 Cyclophora tenuis ECT3854 Cyclotella meneghiniana CCMP338 Cylindrotheca closterium KMMCC-B-181 Dactyliosolen fragilissimus Debaryomyces hansenii J26 Dictyocha speculum CCMP1381 Dictyochophyceae sp CCMP2098 Dinobryon sp UTEXLB2267 Dinophysis acuminata DAEP01 Ditylum brightwellii GSO103 Ditylum brightwellii GSO104 Ditylum brightwellii GSO105 Ditylum brightwellii Pop1-SS4 Ditylum brightwellii Pop2-SS10 Dolichomastix tenuilepis CCMP3274 Dracoamoeba jomungandri Chinc5 Dunaliella tertiolecta CCMP1320 Durinskia baltica CSIROCS-38 *Elphidium margaritaceum* Emiliania huxleyi 374 Emiliania huxlevi 379 Emiliania huxleyi CCMP370 Emiliania huxlevi PLYM219 Entomoneis sp CCMP2396 Erythrolobus australicus CCMP3124 Erythrolobus madagascarensis CCMP3276 *Eucampia antarctica* CCMP1452 *Euplotes crassus* CT5 Euplotes focardii TN1 Euplotes harpa FSP1-4 Eutreptiella gymnastica like CCMP1594 Eutreptiella gymnastica NIES 381 Exanthemachrysis gayraliae RCC1523 Extubocellulus spinifer CCMP396 Fabrea salina Favella ehrenbergii Fehren1

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Fibrocapsa japonica CCMP1661 Filamoeba nolandi NC AS 23 1 Florenciella parvula CCMP2471 Florenciella parvula RCC1693 Florenciella sp RCC1007 Florenciella sp RCC1587 Fragilariopsis kerguelensis L2 C3 Fragilariopsis kerguelensis L26 C5 Gambierdiscus australes CAWD149 Geminigera cryophila CCMP2564 Geminigera sp CaronLabIsolate Gephyrocapsa oceanica RCC1303 Gloeochaete wittrockiana SAG46 84 Goniomonas pacifica CCMP1869 Goniomonas sp m Gonyaulax spinifera CCMP409 Grammatophora oceanica CCMP410 Guillardia theta CCMP2712 Gymnochlora sp CCMP2014 *Gymnodinium catenatum* GC744 Gyrodinium dominans SPMC103 Hanusia phi CCMP325 Haptolina brevifila UTEXLB985 Haptolina ericina CCMP281 Helicotheca tamensis CCMP826 Hemiselmis andersenii CCMP1180 Hemiselmis andersenii CCMP439 Hemiselmis andersenii CCMP441 Hemiselmis andersenii CCMP644 Hemiselmis rufescens PCC563 Hemiselmis tepida CCMP443 Hemiselmis virescens PCC157 Heterocapsa arctica CCMP445 Heterocapsa rotundata SCCAPK 0483 Heterocapsa triquetra CCMP448 Heterosigma akashiwo CCMP2393 *Heterosigma akashiwo* CCMP3107 *Heterosigma akashiwo* CCMP452 Heterosigma akashiwo NB Imantonia sp RCC918 Isochrysis galbana CCMP1323 Isochrysis sp CCMP1244 *Isochrysis sp* CCMP1324

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Karenia brevis CCMP2229 Karenia brevis SP1 Karenia brevis SP3 Karenia brevis Wilson Karlodinium veneficum CCMP2283 Kryptoperidinium foliaceum CCAP11163 Kryptoperidinium foliaceum CCMP1326 Labyrinthulid quahog parasite QPX NY0313808BC1 Labyrinthulid guahog parasite QPX NY070348D Lankesteria abbottii GrapplerInletBC Leptocylindrus aporus B651 Leptocylindrus danicus B650 Leptocylindrus danicus CCMP1856 Lessardia elongata AF521100.1 Licmophora paradoxa CCMP2313 *Lingulodinium polyedra* CCMP1738 Litonotus pictus P1 Lotharella globosa CCCM811 Lotharella globosa LEX01 Lotharella oceanica CCMP622 Madagascaria erythrocladioides CCMP3234 Mallomonas sp CCMP3275 Mamiellales sp RCC2288 Mantoniella antarctica SL-175 Mantoniella sp CCMP1436 Mataza sp SIOpierMataz1 *Mesodinium pulex* SPMC105 Micromonas pusilla CCAC1681 Micromonas pusilla CCMP1723 Micromonas pusilla CCMP494 Micromonas pusilla RCC1614 Micromonas pusilla RCC2306 Micromonas sp CCMP1646 Micromonas sp CCMP2099 *Micromonas sp* CS 222 *Micromonas sp* NEPCC29 Micromonas sp RCC451 Micromonas sp RCC472 Minchinia chitonis Minutocellus polymorphus CCMP3303 Minutocellus polymorphus NH13 Minutocellus polymorphus RCC2270 Myrionecta rubra CCMP2563

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Neobodo designis CCAP1951/1 Nephroselmis pyriformis CCMP717 *Nitzschia sp* RCC80 *Noctiluca scintillans Norrisiella sphaerica* BC52 Ochromonas sp BG 1 Ochromonas sp CCMP1393 Ochromonas sp CCMP1899 Odontella aurita isolate1302-5 Odontella sinensis Grunow1884 Ostreococcus lucimarinus clade A BCC118000 Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC1107 Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC1621 Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC2572 Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC2573 Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC2589 Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC2593 Ostreococcus mediterraneus clade D RCC2596 Oxyrrhis marina Oxyrrhis marina CCMP1788 Oxyrrhis marina CCMP1795 Oxyrrhis marina LB1974 Palpitomonas bilix NIES 2562 AB508339 Paramoeba aestuarina SoJaBioB1-5-56-2 Paramoeba atlantica 621 1 CCAP1560/9 Paraphysomonas bandaiensis CaronLabIsolate Paraphysomonas imperforata PA2 Paraphysomonas vestita GFlagA Parduczia like sp Undescribed Partenskyella glossopodia RCC365 Pavlova gyrans CCMP608 Pavlova lutheri RCC1537 JF714236.1 Pavlova sp CCMP459 Pavlovales sp CCMP2436 *Pelagococcus subviridis* CCMP1429 Pelagodinium beii RCC1491 Pelagomonas calceolata CCMP1756 Pelagomonas calceolata RCC969 Pelagophyceae sp CCMP2097 Pelagophyceae sp CCMP2135 Pelagophyceae sp RCC1024 Percolomonas cosmopolitus AE-1 ATCC50343 Percolomonas cosmopolitus WS

Heterotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Heterotrophic Autotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Autotrophic Heterotrophic Autotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Mixotrophic Autotrophic Symbiont Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Autotrophic Heterotrophic Heterotrophic

Peridinium aciculiferum PAER-2 Perkinsus chesapeaki ATCCPRA-65 Perkinsus marinus ATCC50439 Pessonella sp PRA-29 Phaeocystis antarctica CaronLabIsolate Phaeocystis antarctica CCMP1374 Phaeocystis cordata RCC1383 Phaeocystis rex CCMP2000 Phaeocystis sp CCMP2710 Phaeomonas parva CCMP2877 Picochlorum oklahomensis CCMP2329 Picochlorum sp RCC944 Picocystis salinarum CCMP1897 Pinguiococcus pyrenoidosus CCMP2078 Platyophrya macrostoma WH Pleurochrysis carterae CCMP645 Polarella glacialis CCMP1383 Polarella glacialis CCMP2088 Polyblepharides amylifera CCMP720 Polytomella parva SAG63 3 Porphyridium aerugineum SAG1380 2 Prasinococcus capsulatus CCMP1194 Prasinoderma coloniale CCMP1413 FN562437.1 Prasinoderma singularis RCC927 Prasinophyceae sp CCMP1205 Prasinophyceae sp CCMP2111 Prasinophyceae sp CladeVIIA1 RCC701 Prasinophyceae sp CladeVIIA1 RCC998 Prasinophyceae sp CladeVIIA4 RCC1871 Prasinophyceae sp CladeVIIA4 RCC2335 Prasinophyceae sp CladeVIIA5 CCMP2175 Prasinophyceae sp CladeVIIA5 RCC856 Prasinophyceae sp CladeVIIB2 RCC2339 Proboscia alata PI D3 Proboscia inermis CCAP1064/1 Prorocentrum lima CCMP684 Prorocentrum micans CCCM845 Prorocentrum minimum CCMP1329 Prorocentrum minimum CCMP2233 Proteomonas sulcata CCMP704 Protoceratium reticulatum CCMP1889 Protocruzia adherens Boccale Prymnesium parvum Texomal

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Prymnesium polylepis CCMP1757 Prymnesium polylepis UIO037 Pseudo-nitzschia arenysensis B593 Pseudo-nitzschia australis 1024910AB Pseudo-nitzschia delicatissima B596 Pseudo-nitzschia delicatissima UNC1205 Pseudo-nitzschia fraudulenta WWA7 Pseudo-nitzschia heimii UNC1101 Pseudo-nitzschia pungens cf cingulata Pseudo-nitzschia pungens cf pungens Pseudokeronopsis sp Brazil Pseudokeronopsis sp OXSARD2 *Pseudopedinella elastica* CCMP716 Pteridomonas danica PT Pterosperma sp CCMP1384 Pycnococcus provasolii RCC2336 Pvcnococcus provasolii RCC251 Pycnococcus provasolii RCC733 Pvcnococcus provasolii RCC931 Pvcnococcus sp CCMP1998 Pyramimonas obovata CCMP722 Pyramimonas parkeae CCMP726 Pyramimonas sp CCMP2087 Pyrocystis lunula CCCM517 Pyrodinium bahamense pbaha01 Rhizochromulina marina cf CCMP1243 Rhizosolenia setigera CCMP1694 Rhodella maculata CCMP736 Rhodomonas abbreviata CaronLabIsolate Rhodomonas lens RHODO Rhodomonas salina CCMP1319 Rhodomonas sp CCMP768 Rhodosorus marinus CCMP769 *Rhodosorus marinus* UTEXLB2760 Rosalina sp Sapocribrum chincoteaguense ATCC50979 Sarcinochrysis sp CCMP770 Schizochytrium aggregatum ATCC28209 AB022106 Schmidingerella taraikaensis FeNarragansettBay Scrippsiella hangoei like SHHI-4 Scrippsiella hangioei SHTV-5 *Scrippsiella trochoidea* CCMP3099 Scyphosphaera apsteinii RCC1455

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Skeletonema costatum 1716 Skeletonema dohrnii SkelB Skeletonema grethea CCMP1804 Skeletonema japonicum CCMP2506 Skeletonema marinoi FE60 Skeletonema marinoi FE7 Skeletonema marinoi skelA Skeletonema marinoi SM1012Den-03 Skeletonema marinoi SM1012Hels-07 Skeletonema marinoi UNC1201 Skeletonema menzelii CCMP793 Sorites sp Spumella elongata CCAP955/1 Stauroneis constricta CCMP1120 Staurosira complex sp CCMP2646 Stephanopyxis turris CCMP815 Stichococcus sp RCC1054 Striatella unipunctata CCMP2910 Strombidinopsis acuminatum SPMC142 Strombidinopsis sp SopsisLIS2011 Strombidium inclinatum S3 Strombidium rassoulzadegani ras09 Stygamoeba regulata BSH 02190019 Symbiodinium kawagutii CCMP2468 *Symbiodinium sp* C1 *Symbiodinium sp* C15 *Symbiodinium sp* CCMP2430 Symbiodinium sp CCMP421 Symbiodinium sp cladeA Symbiodinium sp D1a Symbiodinium sp Mp Synchroma pusillum CCMP3072 Synedropsis recta cf CCMP1620 Tetraselmis astigmatica CCMP880 Tetraselmis chuii PLY429 Tetraselmis sp GSL018 Tetraselmis striata LANL1001 Thalassionema frauenfeldii CCMP1798 Thalassionema nitzschioides Thalassionema nitzschioides L26 B *Thalassiosira antarctica* CCMP982 Thalassiosira gravida GMp14c1 Thalassiosira miniscula CCMP1093

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Thalassiosira oceanica CCMP1005 *Thalassiosira punctigera* Tpunct2005C2 Thalassiosira rotula CCMP3096 Thalassiosira rotula GSO102 *Thalassiosira sp* CCMP353 Thalassiosira sp FW Thalassiosira sp NH16 Thalassiosira weissflogii CCMP1010 Thalassiosira weissflogii CCMP1336 Thalassiothrix antarctica L6 D1 Thoracosphaera heimii CCMP1069 Thraustochytrium sp LLF1b Tiarina fusus LIS Timspurckia oligopyrenoides CCMP3278 *Togula jolla* CCCM725 Triceratium dubium CCMP147 Trichosphaerium sp Am-I-7wt Tryblionella compressa CCMP561 Uronema sp Bbcil Vannella robusta DIVA3518-3-11-1-6 Vannella sp DIVA3517-6-12 Vaucheria litorea CCMP2940 Vexillifera sp DIVA3564-2 Vitrella brassicaformis CCMP3155 Vitrella brassicaformis CCMP3346

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Supplemental Figure 1. Average amino acid frequency among the trophic groups of each amino acid. Ala (alanine), Cys (cysteine), Asp (asparagine), Glu (glutamine), Gly (glycine), Phe (phenylalanine), Gly (glycine), His (histidine), Ile (isoleucine), Lys (lysine), Leu (leucine), Met (methionine), Asn (asparagine), Pro (proline), Gln (glutamine), Arg (arginine), Ser (serine), Thr (threonine), Val (valine), Trp (tryptophan), Xaa (Any amino acid), Tyr (tyrosine). Standard deviation plotted as bars.



Chapter 4: A Case Study Approach to Teaching Introductory Biology Undergraduates the Application of Genomic Data Analysis in Ecological Studies

Supplemental: Case study PowerPoint Slides:





Our Agenda

"Our first speaker is:" Dr. Sally Harris from (Dept. FFWCC) Ecologist.

"She will tell us what they know about the red tides" "And answer some of the questions you all submitted"

"Then our next speaker will be Dr. Mateo Edwards a lead scientist at BioMarkerX to discuss solutions they are working on with the FFWCC to finding a way to determine how long they may persist, a health check of the bloom."

Questionnaire and Survey Results

"Thank you everyone that participated in the online survey, and your submitted questions"

"Here are a few of the most common questions"



The Most Common Questions

What is the red tide?

Is it living or just discolored water?

- Why does the red tide make people sick?
- Is it an invasive species?
- How long will these events last?

And how will we know when they will go away?

What is being done about it?

Let's get your opinions

Take our your clickers

CQ 1: What is the Florida red tide?

- A. It's a bacteria that colonies the water and is the result of sewage outflow into the bays
- B. It's a dinoflagellate algae that lives normally at low concentrations but can get very dense
- C. Cyanobacteria like in Lake Erie caused by nutrient runoff from lawns and agriculture
- D. Unknown.

CQ 2: What do you think causes the red tide events?

- A. Nutrient pollution from fertilizers and natural sources delivered from rivers may stimulate algae growth
- B. Overfishing had reduced predators that eat the algae, so there nothing to limit their growth
- C. Summer temperatures are elevated and make the environment more habitable to the algae, so that others can't survive.
- D. The algae is an invasive species, so it can outcompete all the native algae species
- E. No one knows why

CQ 3: What are your biggest concerns?

How does it affect:

- A. Marine life (manatees, dolphins, sea turtles)
- B. Economic stability (how it influences tourist dollars)
- C. Human health
- D. Food Safety



Dr. Sally Harris Aquatic Ecologist at Florida Fish and Wildlife Commission

"Hi everyone, I'm Dr. Sally Harris, you can call me Sally or Dr. Sally. I'm an ecologists who monitors the red tides here in Florida. And I'm here as an expert to talk you all about the ecology of red tides and what we know about our local red tide events.

"So I want to start off asking some of your questions to you all, and see what you know already?

But I though all algae were good?

- The Good they form the base the of food web (primary producers).
- The Bad too many algae/biomass can have negative effects to humans and wildlife

 The harmful – some algae produce toxins that harm marine life or humans





Harmful Algae Blooms (HABs)

Red tides should really be called Harmful Algae Blooms

HABs can be any kind unicellular microscopic photosynthetic eukaryotes or cyanobacteria that causes water quality issues.

Nutrient inputs from artificial sources (fertilizers) and natural sources are thought to stimulate and sustain bloom events

But not all algae are created equal.

- Not all algae can use the same N and P sources
- Most HAB species are a group of algae called Dinoflagellates





Nutrients from farmlands and cities pollute the Mississippi river. and pour out into the nutrient poor (oligotrophic) ocean were large algae blooms occur.

When they run out, cells stop growing, die or some go into a form of "resting,"



Large deaths of algae deplete the ocean of oxygen and can lead to dead zones, where oxygen is depleted like near the mouth of the Mississippi River.













Can you summarize the main points of what Sally has told you?

Sally's summary list of main points:

- Red tides should be called Harmful Algal Blooms
- HABs can have large effects
- · Abiotic and Biotic factors can limit or promote growth
- More toxins are created when nutrient stressed
- Karenia brevis is native algae to the area

Sally finishes with:

"We haven't a direct link of nutrients to the abundance of *Karenia*, but we know that its important for algae growth, thus we need more information about what it does without nutrients"

Dr. Mateo Edwards Lead Researcher with BiomarkerX

"Hi everyone, I'm with BioMarkerX. We are a startup company that is developing ways to track HAB events using molecular biology. We hope to develop a marker to determine what the nutrient status of the bloom is so we can predict if its actively growing, stable or declining by looking for nutrient related stress genes"







Lets step outside of our case, briefly and lets review some common components of molecular biology

CQ 4: What is a gene?

- A. Genes are pieces of DNA that organisms use to directly make proteins.
- B. A gene is a fragment of DNA that is used to make messenger RNA
- C. Genes are the functional enzyme to do some biochemical activity
- D. Genes are made of amino acids, that get folded into proteins













- Design what the experiment would look like
 - What would be the control? - What would be the experimental condition?
 - What would the prediction be?

The Karenia Transcriptome

"We can't sequence the entire genome of Karenia yet, so instead we focus on its transcriptome"

"It represents "what is it doing now"

"The transcriptome is a snap shot of the all messenger RNA cells produce that might code for some functional enzymes, that maybe it uses to survive stressful conditions"

So by probing Karenia with stressors, we can identify markers (genes) for that type of stress compared to normal growing conditions.

Transcription is Dynamic

"Just like a dimmer switch for a light bulb"

But maybe ON at low levels always.

"We wan to look at transcription and see what genes are expressed higher or lower" Said Dr. Edwards

Turn Up for more light Turn Down for less light



Dr. Edwards says,

"When faced with limiting nutrients we think algae will do:

- Up-regulate transporters for nitrogen compounds or phosphate
- Up-regulate enzymes need to incorporate nitrogen, or recycle internal stores of nitrogen trapped as amino acids or proteins"

3 Different Treatment Conditions

Karenia was grown under:

- Control (Normal conditions)
- N-limited (Nitrate runs out as it grows)
- P-limiting conditions (Phosphorus runs out)







D. In the Control relative to stressed, Gene is B is unaffected while C is upregulated









- A. All genes show similar patterns of expression to nutrient stress.
- B. Nutrient limitation doesn't have an effect on transcription in Karenia
- C. Nutrient limited does have an effect on transcription in *Karenia* but only N-limitation
- D. Nutrient limited does have an effect on transcription in *Karenia* but only P-limitation





Can You Make a Diagram:

- How does DNA connect to the Phenotype of an organism?
- When would you want to use different kinds of 'Omics technologies?
- Find what genes make up the nitrate assimilation pathway, and how they are connected (what are N and P needed for?)

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