1 Title: Depth-dependent mycoplankton glycoside hydrolase gene activity in the open ocean -

2 evidence from the Tara Ocean eukaryote metatranscriptomes

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- 4 **Running title:** Fungal glycoside hydrolases in Tara Oceans metatranscriptomes
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#### 15 Abstract

16 Mycoplankton are widespread components of marine ecosystems, yet the full extent of their functional roles remain poorly known. Marine mycoplankton are likely functionally analogous 17 18 to their terrestrial counterparts, including performing saprotrophy and degrading high-19 molecular weight organic substrates using carbohydrate active enzymes (CAZymes). We 20 investigated the diversity of transcribed oceanic fungal CAZyme genes using the Tara 21 Oceans Metatranscriptomic Occurrences database. We revealed a high diversity of actively 22 transcribed fungal glycoside hydrolases in the open ocean, including a particularly high 23 diversity of enzymes that act upon cellulose in surface waters and the deep chlorophyll 24 maximum (DCM). A variety of other glycoside hydrolases acting on a range of 25 biogeochemically important polysaccharides including β-glucans and chitin were also found. 26 This analysis demonstrates that mycoplankton are active saprotrophs in the open ocean and 27 paves the way for future research into the depth-dependent roles of marine fungi in oceanic 28 carbon cycling, including the biological carbon pump. 29

Even though our understanding of marine fungal diversity is increasing [1, 2], a

comprehensive knowledge of their active functional ecology remains limited, especially in
the open ocean [1]. Fungal activity has been detected in corals, deep sea and coastal
sediments, and associated with phytoplankton blooms, including parasites [1, 2], but the full
extent that fungi are functionally active throughout the open ocean water column is yet to be
established.

Many terrestrial fungi occupy key roles as saprotrophs by decomposing and recycling biogenic matter, making them intrinsic components of healthy functioning ecosystems [3]. In coastal waters there is evidence that planktonic fungi (mycoplankton) degrade and utilise phytoplankton-derived carbohydrate-rich matter in broadly analogous functional modes [4]. However, the extent that carbohydrate-based fungal saprotrophy occurs in the open ocean remains largely speculated [1].

43 Glycoside hydrolases (GHs) are a ubiquitous group of carbohydrate-active enzymes 44 (CAZymes) [5] that degrade complex polysaccharides and are categorised into substrate-45 specific families. In terrestrial fungi, secreted CAZymes are key to the functional potential of 46 saprotrophs and are the primary mode of degradation of high-molecular weight (HMW) 47 polysaccharides (e.g. wood). Coastal saprotrophic mycoplankton also employ secreted GHs 48 to degrade phytoplankton-derived HMW carbohydrate-based substrates [4], but the prevalence and identity of the specific GHs families of active open ocean mycoplankton are 49 50 unknown.

51 Metagenomes from the Tara Oceans project have been used to assess mycoplankton diversity [6, 7], but the associated metatranscriptomes are yet to be fully 52 53 explored from a fungal perspective. We interrogated the Marine Atlas of Tara Ocean 54 Unigenes (MATOU) metatranscriptomic occurrences database [8] for transcribed fungal GH 55 genes to explore broad-scale depth-dependent structuring in the oceans. The MATOU 56 database consists of all unique eukaryotic genes assembled from the Tara Oceans 57 metatranscriptomes (Unigenes), their associated taxonomy and occurrence within samples 58 (full methods described in [9]).

59 To identify GHs within the MATOU database, reference libraries were created for 61 fungal GH families and clustered using CD-Hit [9]. The MATOU Unigenes were searched 60 61 against these libraries using Diamond v.0.9.22 [10], yielding a database where each positive 62 Unigene match represents a unique GH (similar genes clustered when similarity <95% over 63 90% of the smallest sequence [8]). The database was screened for non-fungal Unigenes 64 using the MATOU taxonomy (Figure 1a, Supplementary Figure 1). After removal of 65 redundant matches (i.e. where multiple GHs matched to a single Unigene), 1,326 unique 66 fungal GH Unigenes were found (~0.001% of the entire Unigene catalogue) that occurred 67 44,386 times in all Tara Oceans samples.

68 The top ten GH families containing the greatest number of unique genes were 69 determined by ranking the sum of all Unigene occurrences from all samples for each family 70 (Figure 1b). Overall, the greatest number of unique GHs were involved in cellulose 71 degradation (GH7). Other substrates of the most diverse GH families included  $\beta$ -glucans 72 (GH17 and GH72), β-glycans (GH5, GH16, GH3), α-glucans (GH13), chitin (GH18), N-/O-73 glycans (GH47) and xylan (GH43). GH diversity was dominated by genes originating from 74 the Ascomycota, except for the abundant GH7s, many of which were unclassified fungal 75 genes (Figure 1c).

Transcribed fungal GH genes were recovered from 66 stations (Figure 2). GH7 diversity was greatest in the surface and deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM), especially in high productivity areas such as the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean (Figure 2b). At stations where concomitant samples were available from the surface, DCM and mesopelagic, a distinct drop in GH7 diversity was seen in the mesopelagic. The diversity of other abundant GHs was more heterogeneous between sites (Figure 2c).

The high prevalence of unique GH7 transcribed genes in surface waters is likely a response to increased 'fresh' phytoplankton-derived matter in the photic zone. Cellulose is a key structural component of many phytoplankton cells [11, 12]. Polysaccharides, such as cellulose, also represent a primary source of particulate organic carbon (POC) [13]. Of the enzymes responsible for cellulose degradation, those within the GH7 family are typically the

most active, and are important in biomass degradation by terrestrial fungi [14]. The decline
in the number of unique GH7 genes below the DCM in the mesopelagic zone in the six sites
sampled suggests a shift in mycoplankton functionality due to depletion of readily available
phytoplankton-derived carbon sources, and corresponds with the decrease in overall
polysaccharide concentrations between surface waters and the mesopelagic zone [15].

Amongst the other diverse GH groups, the greatest number of unique genes was in the GH17 family, a group of CAZymes that degrade  $\beta$ -glucans. *Cladosporium* mycoplankton isolated from coastal waters have been shown to secrete GH17  $\beta$ -1,3-glucosidase when utilising laminarin [4], which is an algal-derived  $\beta$ -glucan that is a major POC component [16]. Also prevalent were GH18 genes, responsible for degrading chitin, another major polysaccharide and important component of zooplankton and some phytoplankton, suggesting that chitin degradation is a functional role of open ocean mycoplankton, as with

99 fungi in freshwater lake ecosystems [17].

100 While the diversity of transcribed GHs is a strong indicator of active carbohydrate 101 metabolism by mycoplankton, the identity of these fungi remains uncertain. The extent of 102 GH7 genes with unresolved fungal taxonomy opens interesting questions about the 103 phylogeny of these taxa. The majority of the other GHs were affiliated to the Ascomycota, in 104 line with phylogenetic studies that show the phylum dominates open ocean mycoplankton 105 diversity [6]. However, there is a lack of early-diverging taxa (e.g. Chytridiomycota) within the 106 MATOU database. Since Chytridiomycota parasitism of phytoplankton takes place in the 107 open ocean [2] their absence highlights outstanding gaps in our understanding of the 108 functional ecology of marine fungi.

The vertical flux of POC in the open ocean is an essential feature of the biological
carbon pump (BCP), sustaining the oceans capability to sequester carbon [18].
Biogeochemical models of the BCP do not currently consider fungi (e.g. [19]). Given that
marine snow is an apparent hotspot for fungi [20], and that here we show differences in
fungal GH expression suggesting depth-dependent resource partitioning in relation to POC-

associated substrates, the recently proposed 'mycoflux' [2] should be considered within a

115 contemporary view of the BCP.

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# 117 Competing interests

- 118 The authors declare no conflict of interest.
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173 Figure 1. a) Pipeline describing the steps involved in identifying fungal CAZymes within the 174 Tara Ocean MATOU Unigenes database. A fungal GH protein sequence reference database was created from all the 61 characterised GH subfamilies found in fungi. This was 175 176 consolidated by clustering sequences at 95 % identity using CD-Hit before Diamond BLAST 177 databases were generated for each subfamily. The MATOU Unigenes were searched 178 against each of these 61 databases using the following thresholds: evalue > 1e-30, score > 179 1, Subject Cov > 75 %, keeping only the best alignments. Positive matches were then screened using the MATOU taxonomy to discriminate between fungal and non-fungal 180 181 Unigenes. Occurrences of each Unigene within the Tara Oceans transcriptomes were returned. b) Fungal GH groups found in the MATOU Unigenes database Tara Oceans 182 183 Metatranscriptomic occurrences ranked by abundance over all Tara Oceans samples. c) 184 Total numbers and taxonomy of unique Fungal Unigenes from the 10 most abundant GH 185 groups.

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187 Figure 2. a) Global map indicating Tara Oceans stations searched for fungal GH Unigenes

in the surface, deep chlorophyll maximum (DCM) and mesopelagic. b) Mean unique

unigenes/station for each of the major oceanic regions sampled. c) Depth dependent

190 partitioning of fungal GH Unigenes in the Surface (SUR), DCM and mesopelagic (MES).





Total Unique unigenes/station