

# Mixotrophic protists display contrasted biogeographies in the global ocean

Emile Faure, Fabrice Not, Anne-Sophie Benoiston, Karine Labadie, Lucie

Bittner, Sakina-Dorothée Ayata

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- 1 Title: Mixotrophic protists display contrasted biogeographies in the global ocean
- 2 **Running title:** Global biogeography of marine mixotrophic protists

Authors : Emile Faure <sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Fabrice Not <sup>3</sup>, Anne-Sophie Benoiston <sup>2</sup>, Karine
Labadie<sup>4</sup>, Lucie Bittner<sup>2,†</sup>, and Sakina-Dorothée Ayata <sup>1,†</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Sorbonne Université, CNRS, Laboratoire d'océanographie de Villefranche, LOV,
 *F-06230 Villefranche-sur-Mer, France.*

- <sup>7</sup> <sup>2</sup>Institut de Systématique, Evolution, Biodiversité (ISYEB), Muséum national
- 8 d'Histoire naturelle, CNRS, Sorbonne Université, EPHE, CP 50, 57 rue
- 9 Cuvier, 75005 Paris, France
- <sup>3</sup>Sorbonne Université, CNRS, UMR7144 Adaptation and Diversity in Marine
- 11 Environment (AD2M) laboratory, Ecology of Marine Plankton team, Station
- 12 Biologique de Roscoff, Place Georges Teissier, 29680 Roscoff, France
- <sup>13</sup> <sup>4</sup>*Commissariat à l'Energie Atomique (CEA), Institut de Biologie François Jacob,*
- 14 Genoscope, F-91057 Evry, France.
- 15
- 16 \* *Corresponding author*  $\dagger$  *Co-senior authors*
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#### 20 Abstract

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22 Mixotrophy, or the ability to acquire carbon from both auto- and heterotrophy, is a widespread ecological trait in marine protists. Using a metabarcoding dataset of 23 marine plankton from the global ocean, 318 054 mixotrophic metabarcodes 24 represented by 89 951 866 sequences and belonging to 133 taxonomic lineages 25 were identified and classified into four mixotrophic functional types: constitutive 26 mixotrophs (CM), generalist non-constitutive mixotrophs (GNCM), endo-27 symbiotic specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs (eSNCM) and plastidic specialist 28 non-constitutive mixotrophs (pSNCM). Mixotrophy appeared ubiquitous, and the 29 distributions of the four mixotypes were analyzed to identify the abiotic factors 30 shaping their biogeographies. Kleptoplastidic mixotrophs (GNCM & pSNCM) 31 were detected in new zones compared to previous morphological studies. 32 Constitutive and non-constitutive mixotrophs had similar ranges of distributions. 33 Most lineages were evenly found in the samples, yet some of them displayed 34 strongly contrasted distributions, both across and within mixotypes. Particularly 35 divergent biogeographies were found within endo-symbiotic mixotrophs, 36 37 depending on the ability to form colonies or the mode of symbiosis. We showed how metabarcoding can be used in a complementary way with previous 38 morphological observations to study the biogeography of mixotrophic protists and 39

40 to identify key drivers of their biogeography.

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### 42 Introduction

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Marine unicellular eukaryotes, or protists, have a tremendous range of life styles, sizes and forms [1], showing a taxonomic and functional diversity that remains hard to define [2, 3]. This variety of organisms is having an impact on major biogeochemical cycles such as carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, silica, or iron, while being at the base of marine trophic networks [4–8]. Hence, they are key actors of the global functioning of the ocean.

Historically, marine protists have been classified into two groups depending on 50 their trophic strategy: the photosynthetic plankton (phytoplankton) and the 51 heterotrophic plankton (zooplankton). It is now clear that mixotrophy, *i.e.* the 52 ability to combine autotrophy and heterotrophy, has been largely underestimated 53 and is commonly found in planktonic protists [6, 9–13]. Instead of a dichotomy 54 between two trophic types, their trophic regime should be regarded as a continuum 55 between full phototrophy and full heterotrophy, with species from many planktonic 56 57 lineages lying between these two extremes [10]. Mitra et al. [11] have proposed a classification of marine mixotrophic protists into four functional groups, or 58 mixotypes. The constitutive mixotrophs, or CM, are photosynthetic organisms that 59

are capable of phagotrophy, also called "phytoplankton that eat" [11]. They include 60 most mixotrophic nanoflagellates (e.g. Prymnesium parvum, Karlodinium micrum). 61 62 On the opposite, the non-constitutive mixotrophs, or "photosynthetic zooplankton", are heterotrophic organisms that have developed the ability to acquire energy 63 through photosynthesis [9]. This ability can be acquired in three different ways: the 64 generalist non-constitutive mixotrophs (GNCM) steal the chloroplasts of their prey, 65 such as most plastid-retaining oligotrich ciliates (e.g. Laboea strobila), the plastidic 66 specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs (pSNCM) steal the chloroplasts of a specific 67 type of prey (e.g. Mesodinium rubrum or Dinophysis spp.), and finally the endo-68 symbiotic specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs (eSNCM) are bearing 69 photosynthetically active endo-symbionts (most mixotrophic Rhizaria from 70 Collodaria, Acantharea, Polycystinea, and Foraminifera, as well as dinoflagellates 71 like Noctiluca scintillans). 72

As drivers of biogeochemical cycles in the global ocean, and particularly of the biological carbon pump [5, 14, 15], marine protists are a key part of ocean biogeochemical models [7, 16–18]. However, physiological details of mixotrophic energy acquisition strategies have only been studied in a restricted number of lineages [9, 19, 20]. They appear to be quite complex and greatly differ across mixotypes, which makes mixotrophy hard to include in a simple model structure [21–25]. Hence at this time, mixotrophy is not included in most biogeochemical models, neglecting the amount of carbon fixed by non-constitutive mixotrophs
through photosynthesis, and missing the population dynamics of photosynthetically
active constitutive mixotrophs that can still grow under nutrient limitation [23, 26].
This is most probably skewing climatic models predictions [11, 26], as well as our
ability to understand and prevent future effects of global change.

A better understanding of the environmental diversity of marine mixotrophic 85 protists, as well as a description of the abiotic factors driving their biogeography at 86 global scale are still needed, in particular to integrate them in biogeochemical 87 models. Leles et al. [27] attempted to tackle this problem by reviewing about 110 88 000 morphological identification records of a set of more than 60 mixotrophic 89 protists species in the ocean, taken from the Ocean Biogeographic Information 90 System (OBIS) database. They found distinctive patterns in the biogeography of 91 the three different non-constitutive mixotypes (GNCM, pSNCM and eSNCM), 92 highlighting the need to better understand such diverging distributions [27]. 93 Environmental molecular biodiversity surveys through metabarcoding have been 94 widely used in the past fifteen years to decipher planktonic taxonomic diversity [2, 95 28-30]. Here we exploited the global *Tara* Oceans datasets [31-33], and identified 96 133 mixotrophic lineages, that we classified into the four mixotypes defined by 97 Mitra et al. [11]. This first ever set of mixotrophic metabarcodes allowed us to 98 investigate the global biogeography of both constitutive and non-constitutive 99

mixotrophs, in relation with *in-situ* abiotic measurements. We tested (i) if new information on marine mixotrophic protists distribution can be gained in comparison with previous morphological identifications [27]; (ii) if the constitutive mixotrophs, which are not addressed in Leles et al. [27], and the non-constitutive mixotrophs diverge in terms of biogeography; (iii) if the study of diversity and abundance of environmental metabarcodes could lead to the definition of key environmental factors shaping mixotrophic communities.

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#### 108 Materials and Methods

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#### 110 Samples collection and dataset creation

Metabarcoding datasets from the worldwide Tara Oceans sampling campaigns that 111 took place between 2009 and 2013 [31, 33] (data published in open access at the 112 European Nucleotide Archive under project accession number PRJEB6610) were 113 investigated. We analyzed 659 samples from 122 distinct stations, and for each 114 sample, the V9-18S ribosomal DNA region was sequenced through Illumina HiSeq 115 [32]. Assembled and filtered V9 metabarcodes (cf. details in de Vargas et al. [2]) 116 were assigned to the lowest taxonomic rank possible via the Protist Ribosomal 117 Reference (PR2) database [34]. To limit false positives, we chose to only analyze 118 the metabarcodes (i.e. unique versions of V9 sequences) for which the assignment 119

to a reference sequence had been achieved with a similarity of 95% or higher. This
represents 65% of the total dataset in terms of metabarcodes and 84% in terms of
total sequences. Our dataset involved 1,492,912,215 sequences, distributed into
4,099,567 metabarcodes assigned to 5,071 different taxonomic assignations, going
from species to kingdom level precision.

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#### 126 *Defining a set of mixotrophic organisms*

Among these 5,071 taxonomic assignations, we searched for mixotrophic protist 127 lineages, taking into account the 4 mixotypes described by Mitra et al. [11]: 128 constitutive mixotrophs (CM), generalist non-constitutive mixotrophs (GNCM), 129 endo-symbiotic specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs (eSNCM), and plastidic 130 specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs (pSNCM). We used the table S2 from Leles 131 et al. [27] which is referencing 71 species or genera belonging to three non-132 constitutive mixotypes (GNCM, pSNCM and eSNCM), as well as multiple other 133 sources coming from the recent literature on mixotrophy [6, 9–12, 35–47], and 134 inputs from mixotrophic protists' taxonomy specialists (cf. Acknowledgments 135 section). Within the 5,071 taxonomic assignations of variable precisions, we 136 identified 5 GNCM, 9 pSNCM, 77 eSNCM, and 42 CM lineages (detailed list 137 available publicly under the DOI 10.6084/m9.figshare.6715754, and all 138 metabarcodes were tagged with their mixotypes in the PR2 database). Among these 139

133 taxonomic assignations that we will call "lineages", 92 were defined at the 140 species level, 119 at the genus level, and the last 14 at higher taxonomic levels 141 142 where mixotrophy is always present (mostly eSNCM groups like Collodaria). In 143 the Chrysophyceae family, metabarcodes assigned to clades B2, E, G, H and I were included even though we couldn't find a general proof that all species included in 144 these clades have mixotrophic capabilities. However, if we exclude the 145 photolithophic Synurophyceae and genera like Paraphysomonas and Spumella, 146 which we did, a vast majority of Chrysophyceae are considered mixotrophic [10]. 147 The final dataset included 318 054 metabarcodes assigned to the 133 mixotrophic 148 lineages selected, as well as their sequence abundance in 659 samples (table 149 available publicly under the DOI 10.6084/m9.figshare.6715754). 150

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#### 152 Environmental dataset

We built a corresponding contextual dataset using the environmental variables available in the PANGAEA repository from the *Tara* Oceans expeditions [33, 49]. The set of 235 environmental variables was reduced to 57 due to several selection steps (Data available publicly under the DOI 10.6084/m9.figshare.6715754; see the details of variable selection in section 1 of Supp. Mat.).

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#### 159 Distribution and diversity of mixotrophic protists

For each mixotype, the number of metabarcodes, the total sequence abundance and 160 the mean sequence abundance by metabarcode was computed (Table 1). Also, we 161 162 measured each metabarcode's station occupancy, *i.e.* the number of stations in which it was found, and station evenness, *i.e.* the homogeneity of its distribution 163 among the stations in which it was detected (Figure 2). Diversity of mixotrophic 164 protists was investigated through mixotype-specific metabarcode richness per 165 station (Table 1). As the number of samples taken per station can impact the 166 abundance and diversity of detected metabarcodes, richness was computed only at 167 stations for which the maximum number of 8 samples were available (40 stations 168 over 122). 169

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#### 171 *Global biogeography of mixotrophic protists*

Two statistical analyses were performed to investigate mixotrophic protists 172 biogeography. One at the metabarcode level, and one at the lineage level, *i.e.* 173 merging the sequence abundance of metabarcodes sharing the same taxonomical 174 assignation. The metabarcodes abundance table was composed of 318054 175 rows/metabarcodes, and 659 columns/samples, whereas the lineage abundance 176 table was composed of 133 rows/lineages and 659 columns/samples (both datasets 177 are available publicly under the DOI 10.6084/m9.figshare.6715754). The two 178 analyses led to very similar conclusions, but the biogeography of lineages appeared 179

easier to visually represent and interpret than the one of metabarcodes. Hence, we
only present here the results of the lineage-based analysis (See section 3 of Sup.
Mat. for metabarcode-level analysis results and discussion).

183 Our statistical model was designed to identify lineages (or metabarcodes) with contrasted biogeographies, and relate their presence to the environmental context. 184 We normalized the sequence counts from the lineage abundance matrix using a 185 Hellinger transformation [51]. We used the environmental dataset and the 186 mixotrophic lineages' abundance matrix as explanatory and response matrices, 187 respectively, to conduct a redundancy analysis (RDA) [51]. For that, we made a 188 species pre-selection using Escoufier's vectors [52] which allowed to keep only the 189 62 most significant mixotrophic lineages. This method selects lineages according to 190 a principal component analysis (PCA), sorting them based on their correlation to 191 the principal axes. We then used a maximum model  $(Y \sim X)$  and a null model  $(Y \sim 1)$ 192 to conduct a two directional stepwise model selection based on the Akaike 193 information criterion (AIC) [53]. The resulting model contained 28 environmental 194 response variables. More details about statistical analyses are available in section 2 195 and 3 of the supplementary materials. Analyses and graphs were realized with the 196 R software version 3.4.3 [54]. All scripts are available on GitHub platform 197 (https://github.com/upmcgenomics/MixoBioGeo). 198

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#### 200 **Results**

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#### 202 Global distribution and diversity of marine mixotrophic protists

Mixotrophic protists metabarcodes were detected in all the 659 samples with a total 203 sequence abundance of 89 951 866, representing 12.56% of the total sequence 204 205 abundance in the 659 samples studied. They represented a mean of 12.64% of the total sequence abundance per sample, with a maximum of 96.96% and a minimum 206 of 0.01%. To avoid any potential overestimation of mixotrophic lineages presence 207 in the following results, we marked all records of less than a hundred sequences as 208 questionable. We found both eSNCM and CM in each of the 122 stations studied 209 (Table 1, Figure 1). In only two occasions the number of sequences belonging to 210 CM was questionable, at stations for which only one sample was sequenced. 211 GNCM were found absent in only 2 stations and their presence was questionable in 212 39 stations (Figure 1). pSNCM were absent at 5 stations (3 in the Indian Ocean, and 213 2 in the Pacific Ocean) and detected with questionable presence in 54 additional 214 stations, which were mostly located in the central Pacific and the Indian Ocean 215 (Figure 1). We found significant amounts of sequences corresponding to GNCM in 216 the Central Pacific, Southern subtropical Atlantic, and Indian Ocean. The presence 217 of GNCM in these areas has not yet been recorded through morphological 218 identifications during field expeditions [27]. Also, we detected more than 100 219

sequences of pSNCM metabarcodes at 11 stations belonging to biogeographical
provinces in which no morphological identifications had been published [27, 55],
mostly in offshore areas of the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean (Figure 1).

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The mean evenness of mixotrophic metabarcodes across stations was of 0.87, and 224 82.3% of the metabarcodes had a station evenness above 0.5 (Figure 2). Station 225 occupancy varied a lot depending on the metabarcodes, with a high density of rare 226 metabarcodes leading to a mean of 5.14 stations over a maximum of 122, and a 227 standard deviation of 7.7. However, three eSNCM metabarcodes were found in all 228 the 122 stations, and three CM metabarcodes were detected in 121 stations. The 229 maximum occupancy for a GNCM metabarcode was of 111 stations, while 92 230 stations was the maximum for a pSNCM metabarcode. CM and GNCM 231 metabarcodes showed a strong tendency towards high evenness values (Figure 2, 232 means of 0.90 and 0.95, respectively), even for the most sequence abundant 233 metabarcodes. Many eSNCM metabarcodes had high evenness values, but below 234 average values were detected for the most abundant ones (Figure 2, global mean of 235 0.87). pSNCM metabarcodes had a similar mean of evenness values (0.87), but a 236 237 different distribution compared to other mixotypes (Figure 2). Among the 50 most abundant metabarcodes, 43 corresponded to Collodaria lineages, 47 were eSNCM 238

and 3 were CM, all three assigned to *Gonyaulax polygramma*. GNCM and pSNCM
metabarcodes had homogeneously low sequence abundances (Figure 2, Table 1).

#### 242 Main factors affecting the biogeography of mixotrophic protists

The redundancy analysis helped to investigate further the environmental variables 243 responsible for the mixotrophic protists' biogeography. The 62 lineages selected 244 with the Escoufier's vector method corresponded to 20 CM, 34 eSNCM, 3 GNCM 245 and 5 pSNCM. Even after selection, a significant part of the lineages did not show 246 any response to environmental data in their distribution (Figure 3, e.g. 19 of the 62 247 lineages were found between -0.01 and 0.01 on both RDA1 and RDA2). The 248 adjusted R-squared of the RDA was of 34.89% (41.43% unadjusted), with 24.01% 249 of variance explained on the two first axes (Figure 3). The first RDA axis (14.96%) 250 marks an opposition between samples from oligotrophic waters with low 251 productivity (RDA1>0) and samples from eutrophic and productive water masses 252 (RDA1<0). This axis is negatively correlated to chlorophyll concentration, particles 253 density, ammonium concentration, absorption coefficient of colored dissolved 254 organic matter (acCDOM), duration of daylight, silica, CO3, oxygen, and PO4 255 concentration, as well as longitude. It is positively correlated to bathymetry, deep 256 euphotic zone, deep oxygen maximum, deep mixed layer, as well as to the distance 257 to coast. The second RDA axis (9.05%) is opposing offshore and subpolar samples 258

(RDA2>0) to coastal and subtropical ones (RDA2<0). The axis is positively</li>
correlated to the depth of the mixed layer, the distance to coast, the bathymetry,
high maximum Lyapunov exponents as well as high concentrations of PO4,
oxygen, CO3 and silica. It is negatively correlated to temperature, salinity and
photosynthetically active radiations (PAR).

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Among the 20 CM lineages, 7 clearly emerged from the redundancy analysis 265 (Figure 3) and showed distinct biogeographies related to environmental variables. 266 Gonyaulax polygramma, Alexandrium tamarense and Fragilidium mexicanum, 267 three Dinophyceae belonging to the Gonyaulacales order, were mainly found in 268 oligotrophic waters with a deep euphotic zone, warm temperature, high salinity and 269 PAR (RDA1>0, RDA2<0). The four other CMs (involving all the Chrysophyceae 270 included in the analysis as well as one Dinophyceae from the Kareniaceae family, 271 *Karlodinium micrum*) were found mostly in productive water masses (RDA1<0). 272

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eSNCMs can be divided in three groups in the RDA space. The first group (RDA1<0) corresponds to eSNCM species dominating rich and productive environments. It includes mainly Acantharia and Spumellaria species. The second group (RDA1>0) dominates oligotrophic environments, and includes multiple Collodaria as well as one Dinophyceae genus (*Ornithocercus*). Within this group,

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Ornithocercus spp. is found mainly in coastal subtropical environments (RDA2<0), 279 as opposed to Sphaerozoum punctatum that is found mainly in offshore subpolar 280 281 regions (RDA2>0). Siphonosphaera cyathina lies between these two trends as it is found only in oligotrophic samples, but isn't influenced by temperature or 282 bathymetry (Figure 3 and 4). The third group corresponds to the eSNCM lineages 283 that can be interpreted as distributed homogeneously in regards of the 284 environmental data we are using (e.g. lineages with the shortest arrows in Figure 285 3). These notably include the 12 Foraminifera lineages present in the RDA. 286 Looking at filters centroids in the RDA space (Figure 3), we can suppose that 287 eSNCM lineages dominating eutrophic systems (RDA1<0) are smaller in size than 288 those dominating oligotrophic ones (RDA1>0). 289

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Out of the five pSNCM included in the RDA, only *Mesodinium rubrum*, the most abundant one, is distinctively represented in the RDA space. This suggests that the other pSNCM have homogeneous distributions in response to our environmental variables. *Mesodinium rubrum* dominates eutrophic environments, independently from the bathymetry or the temperature (RDA1<0, RDA2  $\approx$  0). We find a similar pattern for GNCM, with only *Pseudotontonia simplicidens* well represented in the RDA space out of the three species included in the analysis. Like *M. rubrum*, *Pseudotontonia simplicidens* is the most abundant species in its group and it ismainly found in eutrophic waters (RDA1<0).</li>

300

301 **Discussion** 

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#### 303 *Mixotrophy occurs everywhere in the global ocean*

Our metabarcoding survey confirms that marine mixotrophic protists are ubiquitous 304 in the global ocean [27], possibly extending the known range of distribution of two 305 mixotypes (Figure 1 and 2). Mixotrophic organisms represented more than 12% of 306 the sequences in the complete Tara Oceans metabarcoding dataset, showing that 307 they should not be understated. We found contrasted biogeographies among 308 metabarcodes and their corresponding lineages, both within and across mixotypes 309 (Figure 2, 3, 4 and S1, Sup. Mat. section 3). We found constitutive mixotrophs 310 (CM) and endo-symbiotic specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs (eSNCM) 311 metabarcodes at all the 122 stations included in this global study (Table 1 and 312 Figure 2), verifying that these two mixotypes are the most abundant in the ocean 313 [27, 47, 54, 55]. This dominance of eSNCM and CM in our data is also linked to 314 315 the relatively high number of metabarcodes available for these two mixotypes in databases. Using 1 360 generalist non-constitutive mixotrophs (GNCM) 316 metabarcodes corresponding to only 5 lineages, we detected them in 10 317

biogeographical provinces [55] where no morphological identification had been 318 recorded before [27]. GNCM metabarcodes had consistently high evenness values, 319 320 and some had station occupancy records comparable to the most abundant eSNCM and CM metabarcodes (Figure 2). These results support the hypothesis of a globally 321 ubiquitous distribution of GNCM. Plastidic specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs 322 (pSNCM) were found in 5 provinces in which no record existed so far from 323 morphological identification field studies [27]. However, these observations were 324 often in a questionable range in terms of sequence abundance (Figure 1), and the 325 overall distribution of pSNCM in our data appears as very concordant with 326 morphological observations [27]. pSNCM metabarcodes had dominantly low 327 station evenness values, which again supports the conclusions of Leles et al. [27] 328 that identified pSNCM as highly seasonal and spatially restricted in their 329 330 distribution.

While building our set of mixotrophic lineages, some widespread and potentially mixotrophic genera did not appear, such as *Ceratium* spp., *Tontonia* spp., *Amphisolenia* spp., *Triposolenia* spp. or *Citharistes* spp., mainly because of a poor representation in the PR2 database. Also, we decided to only consider metabarcodes with more than 95% similarity to a reference sequence. This threshold could be too selective for some species and not enough for some others, as single similarity threshold are hardly efficient when studying whole eukaryotic

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populations [56, 57]. For example, some species appeared with low sequence 338 339 abundance in the data even though they couldn't have been sampled, such as three 340 lacustrine species, e.g. Poteriospumella lacustris. Considering these biases and the sometimes relatively low sequence counts (marked as questionable in Figure 1), 341 some of the new GNCM and pSNCM records we observed should be considered 342 with care, as they could be over-estimated or even sometimes artefactual. However, 343 the low number of lineages found for these two mixotypes in PR2 and in our 344 dataset are leading us to think that we were unable to capture the whole GNCM and 345 pSNCM communities. This supposes a global underestimation of GNCM and 346 pSNCM abundances in our results. 347

Tara Oceans metabarcoding dataset is built on snapshot samples taken irregularly 348 during a three-year cruise, hence allowing no proper seasonal variations 349 investigations. However, morphological identifications of mixotrophic protists 350 revealed seasonal variations in their abundance, with Mesodinium biomass 351 blooming in spring in coastal seas for example [27]. As metabarcoding datasets 352 have been successfully applied on time series to detect species successions across 353 gradients of time and space [58–60], it would be interesting to similarly investigate 354 seasonal trends in mixotrophic communities. Our set of mixotrophic lineages and 355 metabarcodes being publicly available, our method will be applicable to any other 356

metabarcoding dataset, including time-series. It will also be open to inputs andupdates from the global scientific community.

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#### 360 The contrasted biogeographies of marine mixotypes

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Constitutive Mixotrophs

Constitutive mixotrophs (CM) have very diverse feeding behaviours, with some 362 species requiring phototrophy to grow, others phagotrophy, and some being 363 obligate mixotrophs [9]. They were described in all waters of the global ocean [61– 364 65]. We found them distributed in a range of conditions almost as wide as non-365 constitutive mixotrophs (Figure 1 and 3). Among highly abundant lineages, most 366 were dominantly found in eutrophic and shallow habitats. However, a few 367 dinoflagellates were found to be highly dominant in oligotrophic, subtropical 368 waters, showing how wide of a range of conditions constitutive mixotrophs can 369 grow in (Figure 3). This illustrates how mixotrophy can allow organisms to 370 dominate ecosystems even when environmental conditions are poorly adapted to 371 purely phototrophic or heterotrophic organisms. When taken explicitly into account 372 in biogeochemical models, marine mixotrophs increase carbon export by up to 30% 373 [22]. Hence, their global ubiquity supposes that the carbon export of the biological 374 carbon pump could be underestimated in both oligotrophic and eutrophic areas 375 [26]. 376

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• Plastidic-Specialist and Generalist Non-Constitutive mixotrophs (pSNCM & GNCM)

Like Leles et al. [27], we found pSNCM and GNCM to have quite similar 379 biogeographies (Figure 3, section 3 of Sup. Mat.). Sequence abundance of most of 380 the metabarcodes for these two mixotypes was homogeneously low (Table 1), but 381 the two most abundant species, Mesodinium rubrum (pSNCM) and Pseudotontonia 382 simplicidens (GNCM), were found mostly in coastal and eutrophic waters, 383 consistently with Leles et al. [27]'s morphological observations (Figure 3, section 3 384 of Sup. Mat.). No species-level barcode is available in the PR2 database for the 385 Tontonia genus, and only one can be found for Pseudotontonia and Laboea genera, 386 even though morphological records of these GNCM are numerous [27]. 387 Experiments using meso- and microcosms combined with individual counts and 388 morphological identification have found that GNCM ciliates can represent up to 389 half of the individuals in ciliate communities of the photic zone [11, 66, 67]. A 390 proportion we would have trouble to reach with the 5 lineages we were able to 391 392 consider, knowing that there are 8,686 different ciliate lineages available in PR2. This highlights the urgent need for supplementing 18S reference databases for 393 mixotrophic ciliates. 394

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#### • Endo-symbiotic Specialist Non-Constitutive Mixotrophs (eSNCM)

396 Endo-symbiotic specialist non-constitutive mixotrophs (eSNCM) is by far the most widespread and abundant non-constitutive mixotype in the global ocean (Figure 1 397 398 and 2) [27, 47, 54]. Their biogeography stands out, with a lot of highly abundant ubiquitous lineages, and some other specialized towards certain types of 399 ecosystems (Figure 3). They represent 95.7% of the sequence counts in our study 400 401 and correspond to 90.7% of the metabarcodes (Table 1), which highlights their abundance and diversity. The very high number of rDNA copies present in Rhizaria 402 orders such as Collodaria [47] might lead the eSNCM to appear more abundant in 403 metabarcoding datasets than they ecologically are. However, in oligotrophic open 404 oceans the Rhizaria biomass is estimated to be equivalent to that of all other 405 mesozooplankton [68], and positively correlated to the carbon export [15], showing 406 how ecologically important they can be. 407

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#### 409 Investigating the divergent biogeographies of Collodaria and Acantharia

Collodaria are living either as solitary large cells or as colonies [47], which explains why they are predominantly found in macro-sized (180-2000  $\mu$ m) filter samples (Figure 3). All described Collodaria species so far harbour photosynthetic endo-symbionts, mostly identified as the dinoflagellate species *Brandtodinium nutricula* [47, 69]. These dinoflagellates are able to get in and out of their symbiotic state, which implies a light and/or reversible effect of the Collodarian

host on its symbiont metabolism [69]. Based on the same metabarcoding dataset, 416 Collodaria were described as particularly abundant and diverse in the oligotrophic 417 418 open ocean [47]. In our results, Collodaria dominate oligotrophic, relatively deep waters (Figure 3 and 4a). These Collodaria appear opposed to another set of 419 Rhizaria (Acantharia and Spumellaria) linked to eutrophic and shallow waters 420 (Figure 3 and 4b, section 3 of Sup. Mat.). Acantharia are found ubiquitously in the 421 global ocean, but display particularly high sequence abundances in some specific 422 regions [54]. Mixotrophic Acantharia live in symbiosis with the cosmopolitan 423 haptophyte *Phaeocystis*, which is highly abundant and ecologically active in its 424 free-living phase [54]. Unlike the one of Collodaria, this symbiosis is irreversible : 425 an algal symbiont can not go back to its free-living phase [54]. Our results suppose 426 that these specific symbiotic modes could enable Acantharia and Collodaria to 427 dominate different ecosystems (Figure 3 and 4). Moreover, living in colonies as 428 Collodaria could help to dominate oligotrophic systems, *e.g.* by accumulating more 429 food and nutrients through their gelatinous extra-cellular matrix [47]. Experiments 430 and modeling studies should help to investigate the contribution of this assumption, 431 comparing food acquisition capacity and growth rates of free individuals versus in 432 433 colony.

434

435 *Towards an integration of mixotrophic diversity into marine ecosystem models* 

The future of marine communities' modeling lies in the integration of omics 436 datasets into modeling frameworks [18, 70–73]. The use of metabolic networks and 437 gene-centric methods has already shown very promising results in modeling 438 prokaryotic ecological dynamics [18, 73]. However, eukaryotic metabolic 439 complexity makes these methods hard to apply on protists for now, and we still 440 441 lack a universal theoretical framework on how to integrate such methods into concrete modeling [70]. Mixotrophic protists are physiologically complex, and 442 their feeding behaviour can vary drastically on short time scales [9]. It will then 443 take a few more years of comparative genomics and transcriptomics studies before 444 being able to model their physiology with purely gene-based approaches. Still, 445 mechanistic models of mixotrophy exist and are quite complex [21, 23], even if the 446 one from Ghyoot et al. [23] could be implemented in a global biogeochemical 447 model [74]. Most models make the choice to represent either one or two (NCM and 448 CM) types of organisms able to play the role of all mixotypes depending on 449 parameterization. However, no global agreement has been reached on to what 450 extent the different mixotypes should be modeled. This is mainly due to a lack of 451 quantitative and comparative data on the global impact of grazing and carbon 452 fixation by the different mixotypes [75]. With our study, we show how meta-omics 453 data can be used to identify groups of organisms distributed differently in response 454 to the environment. It also allows the identification of ecological traits and 455

456 environmental factors potentially responsible for these divergences. This information can be used to identify key species or lineages, and design controlled 457 458 experiments with variations of targeted environmental factors to produce the quantitative data needed by modelers. Considering our results, we propose that 459 host-symbiont dynamics of eSNCM should be investigated as a trait playing a 460 potential role on Rhizaria ability to thrive in oligotrophic conditions. Particularly, 461 the mechanisms behind holobiont formation and its potential reversibility could 462 play major roles on eSNCM carbon fixation in various nutrient conditions. Future 463 experiments comparing responses of Collodaria and Acantharia holobionts to 464 different stresses in terms of grazing and carbon fixation could lead to a better 465 understanding of the physiological differences between their two modes of 466 symbiosis. Also, our results suggest that the metabolic flexibility of CM should 467 allow this mixotype to grow in almost any conditions, with individual species 468 probably spanning continuously between complete autotrophy and complete 469 heterotrophy. The risk is then to create a "perfect beast" mixotroph dominating all 470 systems [21]. To avoid that, we need more comparative data on grazing and carbon 471 fixation of obligate phototrophs versus obligate heterotrophs in response to nutrient 472 473 depletion and environmental fluctuation. Here again, meta-omics data could help to identify candidates for efficient experiment designs. Finally, the small number of 474 lineages of GNCM and pSNCM in our study makes it hard to come up with 475

strongly supported conclusions on whether they should be differentiated in models
or not. They seem to share similar biogeographies using snapshot data (Figure 3,
section 3 of Sup. Mat.), but considering that they have different abilities for
conserving stolen chloroplasts over time, it might not be the case when looking at a
time series analysis [20, 76, 77].

481

Our study uses meta-omics data to investigate the global distribution and 482 biogeography of mixotrophic protists in the ocean. Our results, currently based on 483 metabarcoding data, complement morphological records and will be complemented 484 in the near future by metagenomics and metatranscriptomics studies. The latter will 485 allow to distinguish the protists with mixotrophic capabilities from the ones with 486 ongoing mixotrophic activity. This could lead to quantitative estimations of 487 mixotrophic rates in environmental samples, allowing a sharpened study of 488 mixotrophic protists ecology in the global ocean. It could also lead to a metabolic 489 description of complex processes like kleptoplasty and endo-symbiosis, hence 490 facilitating the modeling of mixotrophic behaviours and its incorporation in ocean 491 biogeochemical models. 492

493

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495

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516	(http://c	ceans.taraexp	editions.org).				

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522

#### 523 Competing interests

524

525 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

526

527 Supplementary information is available at ISME's journal website.

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#### 716 FIGURES & TABLES LEGENDS

717

718 *Figure 1*:

Global distribution of mixotypes from metabarcoding data. Maps showing for each station the proportion of sequences (in %) belonging to each mixotype over the total number of mixotrophic sequences. Stations in which no sequence was found were marked as absent, ones with less than 100 sequences marked as questionable. Each Longhurst biogeographical provinces [53] is coloured in the background if more than 100 sequences are detected in at least one of its stations.

725

726 *Figure 2:* 

Sequence abundance, occupancy and spatial evenness of each mixotrophic metabarcode across sampled stations. Each metabarcode is plotted as a bubble, with its station occupancy, *i.e.* the number of stations in which it was found, and its station evenness, *i.e.* the homogeneity of its distribution among the stations in which it was detected, as coordinates. Violin plots were drawn for each mixotype on both the x and y axes. The size of each bubble is scaled to the sequence abundance found globally for the corresponding metabarcode.

734

735 *Figure 3*:

Impact of environmental variables on the distribution of marine mixotrophs. Triplot 736 of the redundancy analysis (RDA) computed on the 62 Escoufier-selected lineages, 737 738 after model selection. The adjusted R-squared of the analysis is of 34.89% (41.43% unadjusted). Each grey dot corresponds to a sample, *i.e.* one filter at one depth at 739 one station. The blue dashed arrows correspond to the quantitative environmental 740 variables. Abbreviations are as follows: MLD = mixed layer depth, O2MaxD = O2741 maximum depth, EuphzoneD = euphotic zone depth, PAR = photosynthetically 742 active radiations, *Calcite Sat. St.* = Calcite Saturation State,  $c_{-660}$  = optical beam 743 attenuation coefficient at 660 nm,  $c_{part}$  = beam attenuation coefficient of 744 particles, acCDOM = absorption coefficient of colored dissolved organic matter. 745 Plain arrows correspond to mixotrophic lineages, colors indicating mixotypes. For 746 more readability, we do not represent all qualitative variables included in the 747 model. That is why only the filter centroids are appearing, even though the 748 sampling depth, season, season moment, *i.e.* early, middle or late, and 749 biogeographical province were used in the RDA calculation. 750

751

752 *Figure 4:* 

Contrasted global distributions of metabarcodes corresponding to two eSNCM
lineages. Maps of Hellinger-transformed sequence count abundances for
metabarcodes assigned to the Collodaria *Siphonosphaera cyathina* (A) and the

37

Acantharia Acanthrometridae F3 spp. (B). These two lineages are opposed on the first RDA axis (Figure 3 and S1). Size and color both illustrate abundance for better readability. Ellipses were drawn to highlight high abundance zones, and reveal the differences in lineages distribution.

760

761 *Table 1:* 

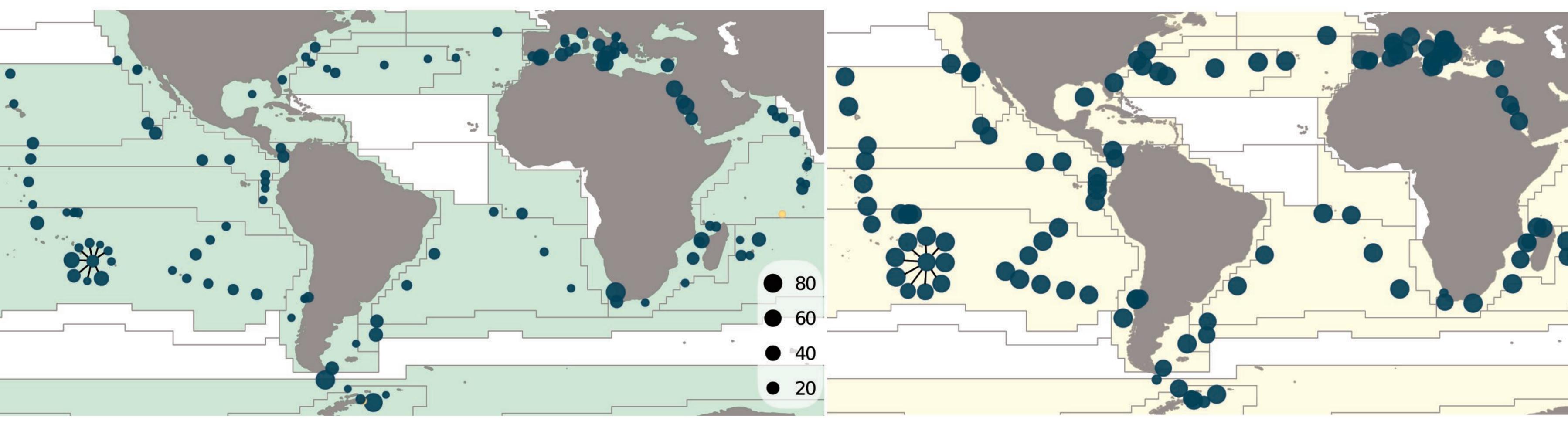
Detailed number of lineages found for each mixotype, as well as the number of metabarcodes, the corresponding total sequence counts over all stations, the mean sequence abundance by metabarcode, and mean metabarcode richness. The richness was computed as the number of different metabarcodes present at each station. It was calculated for each mixotype and means are indicated in the fifth column. Absences correspond to the number of stations in which no sequences were detected for the corresponding mixotype.

\*The mean indicated here was calculated using only stations having the maximumnumber of samples (see main text).

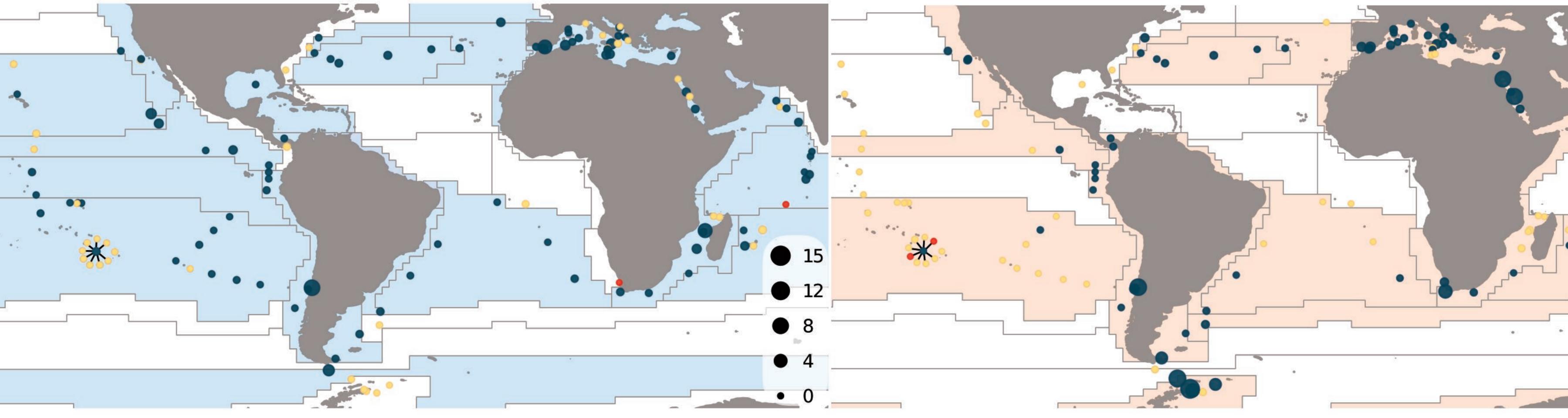
771

Mixotypes	СМ	eSNCM	pSNCM	GNCM
Number of lineages used in this study	42	77	9	5
Number of V9 metabarcodes	26015	288536	2143	1360
Total sequence abundance	3,581,751	86,098,397	208,096	63,622
Mean sequence counts per metabarcode	137.7	298.4	97.1	46.8
Mean metabarcode richness per station* (Std Dev)	2162 (1115)	18502 (9238)	67 (102)	84 (111)
Number of absences/station	0/122	0/122	5/122	3/122





# GNCM



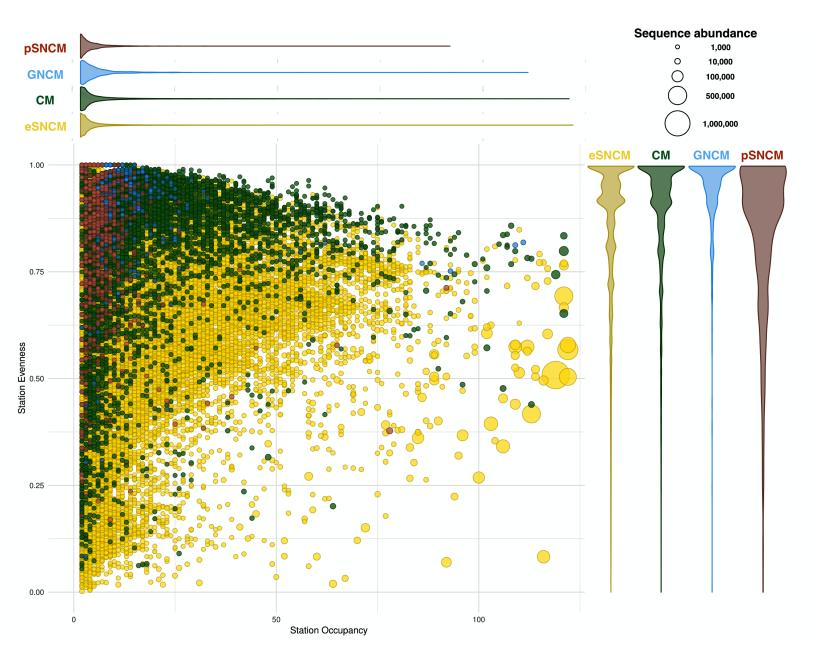
-

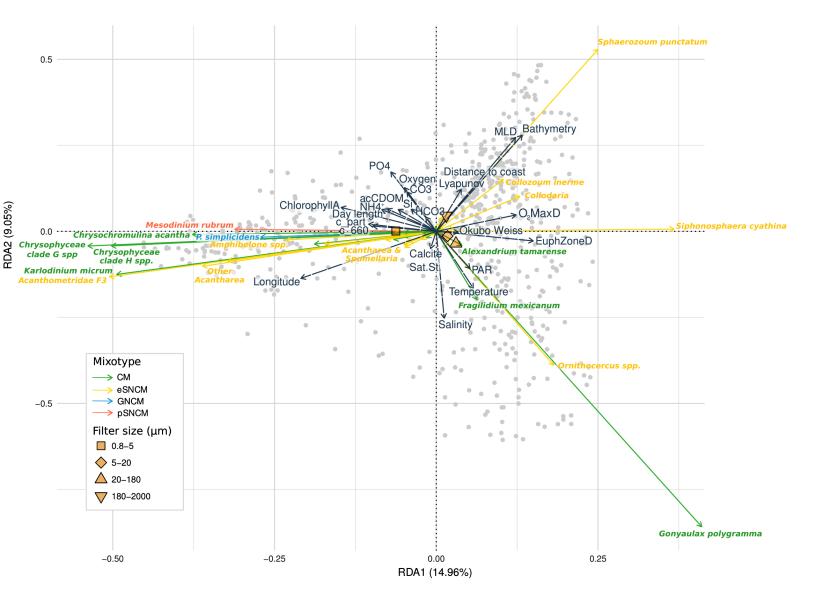
Absent Present (>100 sequences) Questionable (<100 sequences)</p>

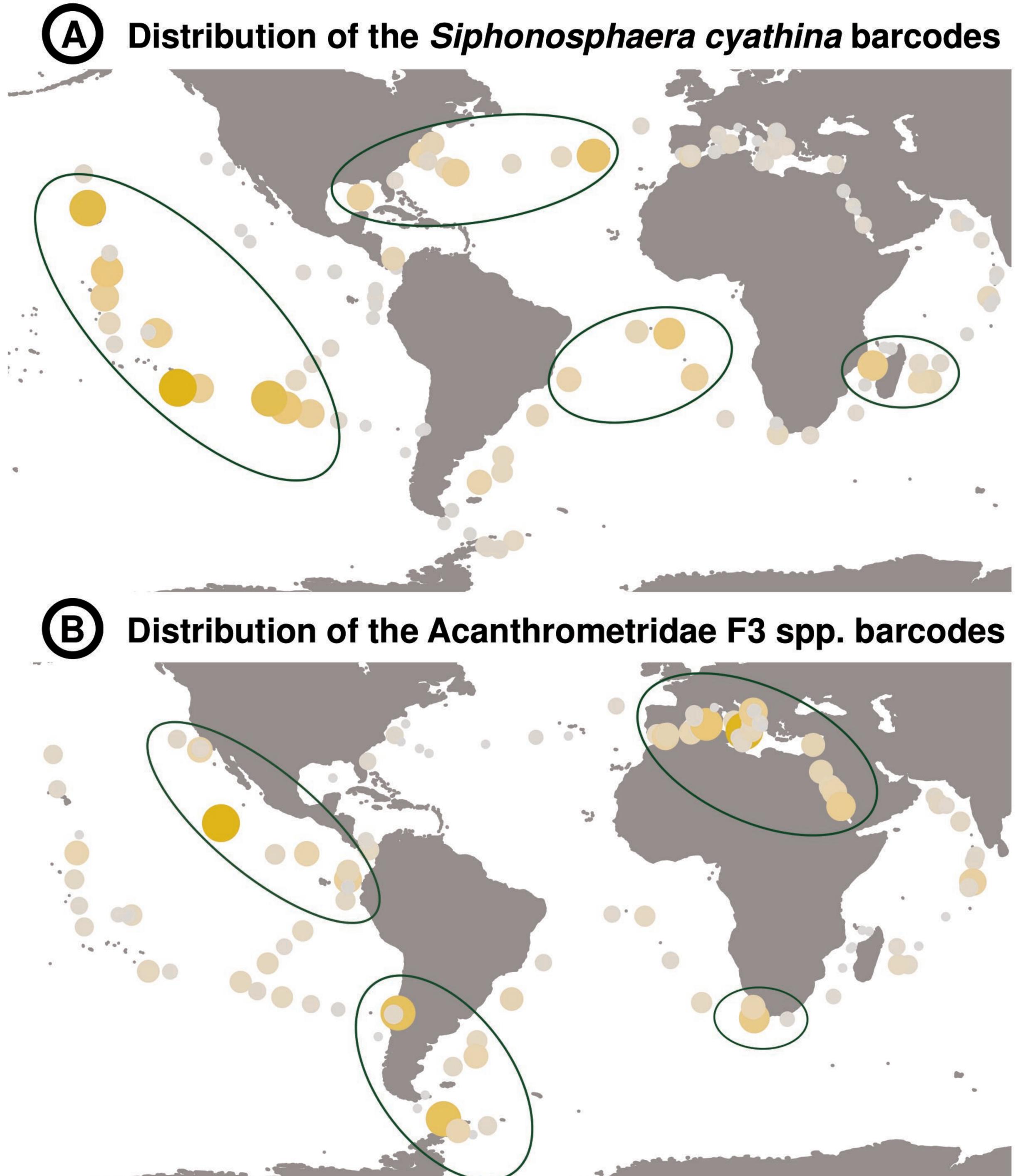


pSNCM









# Sequence abundance (Hellinger transformed)

0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8

Sequence abundance (Hellinger transformed)

> 0.000 0.005 0.010 0.015 0.020