

1 Title page

2 **Live cell analysis at sea reveals divergent thermal performance between photosynthetic**  
3 **ocean microbial eukaryote populations**

4

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40 Running title: Divergent thermal performance of pico-eukaryotes

41

42 Subject Category: Microbial population and community ecology

43

44 **Abstract**

45 Experimentation at sea provides insight into which traits of ocean microbes are linked to  
46 performance *in situ*. Here we show distinct patterns in thermal tolerance of microbial  
47 phototrophs from adjacent water masses sampled in the south-west Pacific Ocean determined  
48 using a fluorescent marker for reactive oxygen species (ROS). ROS content of pico-  
49 eukaryotes was assessed after 1, 5 and 25 h of incubation along a temperature gradient (15.6  
50 to 32.1 °C). Pico-eukaryotes from the East Australian Current (EAC) had relatively constant  
51 ROS and showed greatest mortality after 25 h at 7 °C below ambient, whereas those from the  
52 Tasman Sea had elevated ROS in both warm and cool temperature extremes and greatest  
53 mortality at temperatures 6 to 10 °C above ambient, interpreted as the outcome of thermal  
54 stress. Tracking of water masses within an oceanographic circulation model showed  
55 populations had distinct thermal histories, with EAC pico-eukaryotes experiencing higher  
56 average temperatures for at least one week prior to sampling. While acclimatization and  
57 community assembly could both influence biological responses, this study clearly  
58 demonstrates that phenotypic divergence occurs along planktonic drift trajectories.

59

60 **Text**

61 Studies of marine microbial responses to changing ocean environments have largely focussed  
62 on biogeographic shifts in community composition (Dutkiewicz et al. 2013, Fuhrman *et al.*  
63 2015, Barton et al. 2016), or on detailed, short (acclimation) and long (evolutionary) scale  
64 responses of single strains in laboratory manipulations (Listmann 2016, Schulte 2014). While  
65 insightful, these studies either omit examination of the physiological and ecological  
66 mechanisms that influence large-scale *in situ* population persistence, or remove microbes  
67 from their ecological context (e.g., investigate them in the absence of competitors or  
68 predators) in order to feasibly quantify detailed population-level responses. Observational,  
69 modelling, and experimental field studies that capture the legacy of past environmental  
70 exposure and the interactions between organisms (Doblin and van Sebille 2016) are therefore  
71 critical to understanding the processes regulating microbial population diversity and function  
72 in natural environments.

73

74 Here we use live cell probing and flow cytometry analyses at sea to examine the response of  
75 photosynthetic pico-eukaryotes within intact marine microbial communities (i.e., containing  
76 other phototrophs, bacteria, viruses, and grazers), to short-term temperature excursions. We  
77 used real-time underway sensing by means of thermosalinograph and acoustic doppler  
78 current profiler (ADCP) velocity to target microbial communities in different water masses.  
79 A rosette sampler (with attached Seabird SBE19 conductivity temperature and depth profiler)  
80 was used to capture surface seawater (6 m) from two sites, one in the EAC, a poleward-  
81 flowing western boundary current undergoing relatively rapid long-term warming compared  
82 to the global ocean (0.8-1.8 °C per century, 2-3 times the global average; Wu et al. 2012),  
83 and another in the adjacent Tasman Sea. Within 2 h of collection, microbial communities  
84 were incubated along a thermal gradient of six temperatures ranging from 15.6 to 32.1 °C,

85 representing a departure from their ambient temperature (~22 °C) of approximately -7 to +10  
86 °C. Using a 'dynamic phenotyping' approach (Cruz et al. 2016; Ruderman 2017), we  
87 measured acute rather than acclimated thermal responses to gain insight about the potential  
88 for 'preconditioning' to high temperature in the pre-sampling period that would not  
89 necessarily be manifest under static conditions (Cruz et al. 2016). Such pre-exposure to high  
90 temperature can improve the thermal performance of photosynthetic eukaryotic microbes  
91 under heat stress (Middlebrook et al. 2008).

92

93 The potential for temperature-induced stress was measured over a 25 h period by quantifying  
94 changes in the abundance of reactive oxygen species (ROS) positive cells (Fig. S1), and the  
95 size of the photosynthetic pico-eukaryote population. In photosynthetic organisms, the  
96 chloroplast, the mitochondrial electron-transport chain, and the peroxisome are the main  
97 sources of ROS (Apel and Hirt 2004). Under physiological steady state, the ROS content of  
98 cells is controlled through enzymatic (e.g. glutathione peroxidase, catalase) and non-  
99 enzymatic scavenging processes (e.g. ascorbic acid; Gill and Tuteja 2010). At low levels,  
100 ROS play an important role in pro-survival mechanisms, acting as signalling molecules  
101 involved in regulating development and pathogen defence responses, or as secondary  
102 messengers that transmit initial stress signals, allowing cells to react and adapt to different  
103 environmental cues (Asada 2006, Mittler et al. 2011). However, under stressful conditions  
104 (e.g. temperature extremes, UV exposure, pollution), ROS quantities overwhelm the capacity  
105 of antioxidants, allowing ROS to accumulate and potentially cause irreversible damage to  
106 proteins, DNA, and lipids, triggering programmed cell death processes such as apoptosis  
107 (Perez-Perez *et al.*, 2012). Thus, in our experiments, we hypothesised that exposure of  
108 populations to temperatures above and below ambient would cause an increase in cellular  
109 ROS (i.e., production would exceed scavenging), with potential asymmetry between warming

110 and cooling because of the temperature dependence of enzymatic processes. Furthermore, the  
111 increase in ROS would potentially trigger a cascade leading to an increase in cell mortality –  
112 i.e., resulting in a decrease in the population relative to its initial abundance. The acute  
113 response to temperature excursions was captured by subsampling populations over a time-  
114 course (0, 1, 5, 25 h), staining them with a commercially available kit that uses two stains to  
115 specifically target ROS produced in eukaryotic cells (superoxide, and all other ROS except  
116 superoxide; Enzo Life Sciences, Inc., New York, USA), and quantifying their fluorescence  
117 intensity (relative to a standard microsphere; see Supplementary Information, Fig. S1) by  
118 immediately analysing them with a flow cytometer (Influx Mariner, BD Biosciences).

119

120 Initially, there was a relatively low proportion of cells in the Tasman Sea versus EAC pico-  
121 eukaryote population that contained ROS above background levels ( $10.9 \pm 2.7$  % compared  
122 to  $44.0 \pm 3.2$  %, respectively; mean  $\pm$  SD, n=3; Fig. S4), with both populations showing  
123 effective upregulation of ROS production (Fig. S2) in the induced positive control ( $92.1 \pm 0.8$   
124 % and  $84.4 \pm 4.5$  % in the Tasman Sea and EAC, respectively). During the experiment, ROS  
125 expression in the EAC population remained relatively constant under upwards or downwards  
126 temperature excursions at all time points (Fig. 1A), suggesting scavenging processes were  
127 effectively maintained. In the Tasman Sea population however, ROS fluorescence was  
128 immediately (1 h) higher at +10 °C above ambient (ANOVA,  $F = 4.67$ ,  $p = 0.013$ ), with a  
129 relatively high proportion of stressed cells during the first 5 h of the assay (Fig. S4B).  
130 Furthermore, in contrast to the EAC, the time course of ROS expression over 25 h showed a  
131 significantly different pattern amongst temperatures, with ROS fluorescence declining with  
132 time at high temperature (Fig 1A and C; ANOVA temperature x time interaction,  $F = 4.16$ ,  $p$   
133 = 0.001).

134

135 After 25 h, the size of pico-eukaryote populations had changed significantly across  
136 temperatures (Fig. 1B). The Tasman Sea population declined by 80-90 % at 32.1 °C but at  
137 other temperatures, the population was similar in size to the T0 samples (ANOVA,  $F = 31.19$ ,  
138  $p < 0.001$ ). The EAC population however, experienced 40-50 % mortality across  
139 temperatures between 17.4 and 32.1 °C, with ~90 % loss of cells at the lowest temperature of  
140 15.6 °C (Fig. 1B; ANOVA  $F = 15.43$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Overall, the Tasman Sea population  
141 appeared most sensitive to temperatures from +6 to +10 °C above ambient, with the EAC  
142 population most sensitive to the coldest temperature (-7 °C below ambient). There was a  
143 significant positive relationship between the amount of ROS fluorescence and the percentage  
144 of cells remaining in both the EAC and the Tasman Sea population (Fig. 1C; Generalised  
145 Additive Mixed Model,  $p < 0.001$  and  $p = 0.030$ , respectively; Table S6).

146

147 It was apparent that temperature was not the only factor influencing cell survival during  
148 incubations—population dynamics within assays were likely mediated by the presence of  
149 other phototrophs, viruses, bacteria and grazers within experimental vessels. However, the  
150 dynamics of ROS within pico-eukaryotes was clearly influenced by temperature and revealed  
151 divergent physiology between water masses, suggesting that Tasman Sea cells experienced  
152 thermally-induced stress at the highest temperature which led to greatest mortality at 32.1 °C  
153 (Fig. 1C). In contrast, the EAC population appeared to maintain ROS scavenging processes  
154 across all temperatures (Fig. 1A).

155

156 We considered two possible explanations for the contrasting thermal responses of populations  
157 in the EAC and Tasman Sea: differences in the taxonomic composition of the phototrophic  
158 pico-eukaryote populations at the start of the incubation, and differences in their thermal  
159 acclimation status. Amplicon sequencing of the chloroplast 16S rRNA gene from replicate

160 samples at each site and subsequent bioinformatic analysis (PhytoREF, Decelle et al 2015)  
161 revealed that the two water masses shared 55% of photosynthetic microbial genera (Fig. S3;  
162 SIMPER, Primer v6; PRIMER-E, Plymouth, UK). At higher taxonomic resolution (OTUs  
163 with 97% nucleotide identity) the two water masses shared 17% of taxa, with greater  
164 diversity of OTUs in the Tasman Sea (Table S1). The taxonomic dissimilarity between the  
165 two water masses was primarily due to differences in the abundances of two chlorophyte  
166 OTUs: *Bathycoccus* (Mamiellales) and *Prasinococcales*, which comprised 15% and 1%  
167 (respectively) of EAC photosynthetic eukaryotes, and 5% and 8% of those in the Tasman  
168 Sea. Based on the known biogeography of *Bathycoccus* ecotypes, it is possible that the  
169 divergent pico-eukaryote thermal responses in the EAC and Tasman Sea were influenced by  
170 differences in the relative abundance of strains TOSAG39-1 and RCC1105, the latter of  
171 which prefers warmer water (Vannier et al. 2016).

172

173 To assess the potential for differences in acclimatization between water masses, a high-  
174 resolution ocean circulation model with particle tracking software was used to estimate the  
175 thermal exposure of virtual microbes arriving to the sampling sites (Supplementary  
176 Information). Although surface seawater temperature at the time of sampling was similar  
177 (Table S1), microbial communities had distinct thermal histories, as shown by their different  
178 transport trajectories (Fig. 2A). Organisms sampled in the EAC likely originated from  
179 northerly locations and experienced higher average temperatures for several weeks (i.e., up to  
180 approximately 20 generations) prior to sampling, as compared to the Tasman Sea population  
181 (Fig. 2B). A sensitivity analysis was undertaken to assess how different the thermal history  
182 would be if the populations were sampled up to 4 weeks prior/post the voyage (Fig. S5). The  
183 analysis shows that for 6 out of 9 scenarios, temperature exposure one week prior to sampling  
184 (equivalent to numerous pico-eukaryote generations) is consistently different between the



185 sampling locations, with the exception of 2-4 weeks after the voyage. This indicates that  
186 thermal exposure immediately prior to sampling is most likely to influence the physiology of  
187 picoeukaryotes observed in our study.

188

189 Although it is difficult to rank the importance of community assembly versus physiological  
190 acclimatization processes along drift trajectories, our data clearly demonstrate that advected  
191 populations diverge in their thermal performance, with pico-eukaryotes in a relatively warm  
192 western boundary current being less sensitive to high temperature induced stress compared to  
193 those in adjacent waters. Furthermore, we determined that differences in ROS expression  
194 after 1 h of warming are indicative of mortality 24 h later, with largest increases in cellular  
195 ROS fluorescence corresponding to greatest population decline (Fig. S6). Differences in ROS  
196 production amongst picoeukaryotes may have been due to a direct effect of heat on the  
197 photosystems (a source of ROS; Pospíšil 2009), or an indirect effect via intermolecular  
198 interactions (Feder and Hoffman 1999). For example, prior exposure to relatively high but  
199 non-lethal temperatures could induce greater non photochemical quenching (resulting in more  
200 effective heat dissipation), as has been demonstrated in symbiont zooxanthellae  
201 (Middlebrook et al. 2008), or it could cause upregulation of heat shock proteins and  
202 molecular chaperones (Henkel and Hoffman 2008) that moderate impacts on enzymes and  
203 other proteins involved in ROS scavenging.

204

205 This study highlights the physiological differences in adjacent microbial populations, and  
206 suggests that the ability to tolerate high temperature may be an important trait influencing  
207 fitness and the capacity for range expansion amongst natural populations. While the exact  
208 mechanism remains to be elucidated, our results have clear implications for predicting the  
209 impacts of marine heat waves and long-term warming on ocean microbes. Further field

210 experimentation will help bridge the gap between models and culture studies, revealing the  
211 limits of plasticity for microbes to dynamically respond to changing ocean conditions.

212

### 213 **Acknowledgements**

214 The authors would like to thank the Marine National Facility for ship-time **and technical**  
215 **support** on the RV Investigator, as well as the captain, crew, and chief scientist, Prof Iain  
216 Suthers, for facilitating our sample collection during voyage IN2015\_V03. This research was  
217 supported by an Australian Research Council Discovery Project (DP14010134) and Large  
218 Infrastructure and Equipment Fund (LE130100019) to MD. Molecular analyses were funded  
219 by an ARC Discovery Grant (DP140101045), awarded to Prof Justin Seymour; we thank him  
220 and Dr Nahshon Siboni for their support. C.T.K. was supported by NSF grant OCE-1638958,  
221 M.E.L, K.G.B, J.S.C, C.M.R, L.L and M.A were supported by Australian Government  
222 Training Program Scholarships and O.F.L was funded by a University of Technology Sydney  
223 Chancellor's Postdoctoral Fellowship.

224

### 225 **Conflict of interest**

226 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

227

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288

289 **Figure legends**

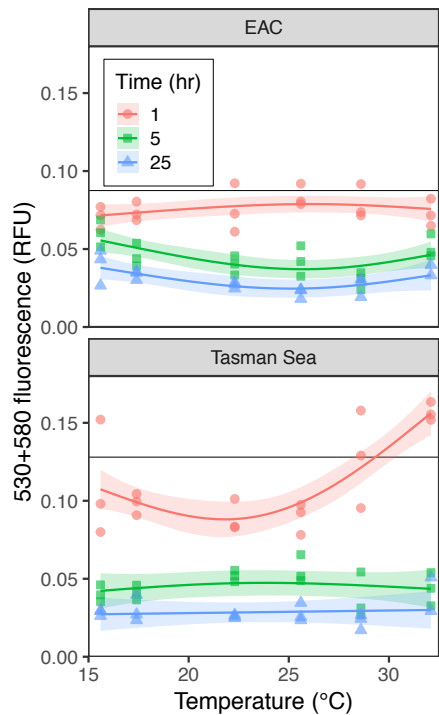
290 **Figure 1.** Time-course (1, 5, 25 h) of the (A) bead-normalised **Reactive Oxygen Species**  
291 **(ROS)** fluorescence (530 + 580 nm relative fluorescence units, RFU) of cells in the EAC and  
292 Tasman Sea pico-eukaryote population at temperatures above and below ambient (~22 °C)  
293 (Tables S1 and S2; Fig. S1); (B) % **cells** remaining **in the EAC and Tasman Sea pico-**  
294 **eukaryote population** after 1, 5, and 25 h of incubation at different temperatures (Tables S3  
295 and S4). **(C) The relationship between % pico-eukaryotes remaining and bead-normalised**  
296 **ROS fluorescence at 0, 1, 5 and 25 h (arrows connect observations over time taken within the**  
297 **same water mass and temperature treatment, indicated by color/symbols with global average**  
298 **across all temperatures shown in black).** Over time, in both water masses and across  
299 temperatures, the population size declined with decreasing bead-normalised fluorescence  
300 (Table S4 and S5); in the EAC it declines approximately linearly, but in the Tasman Sea the  
301 relationship is more curvilinear (Table S6).

302

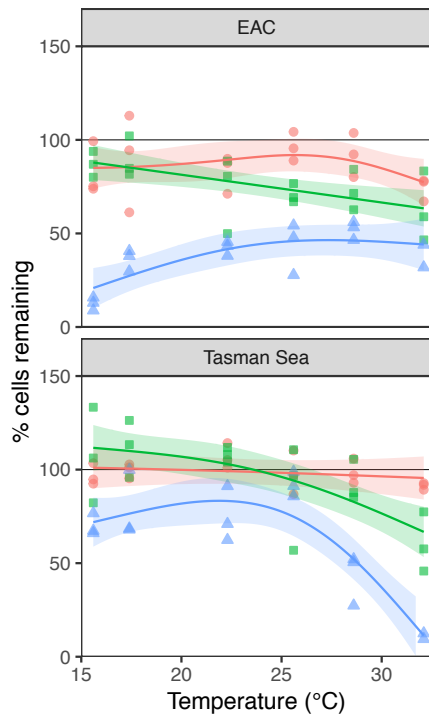
303 **Figure 2. Thermal exposure of virtual microbes arriving to the EAC (A) and Tasman**  
304 **Sea (B).** A total of 100 virtual particles released at each oceanographic sampling site (red  
305 symbols) were backtracked for 85 days before the date of sampling (June 2015 austral  
306 winter), recording the temperature of their locations. Panel C shows mean temperature (solid  
307 line) ± one standard deviation (shaded area) experienced by particles from the EAC (orange)  
308 and Tasman Sea (blue).

309

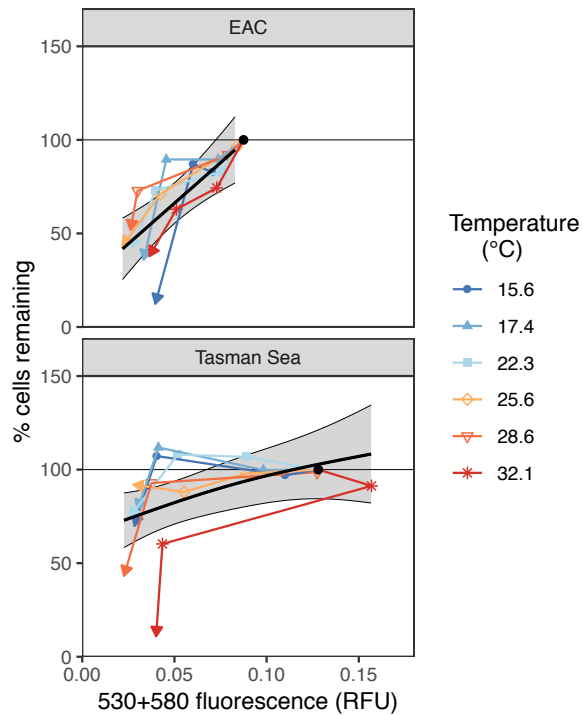
A.



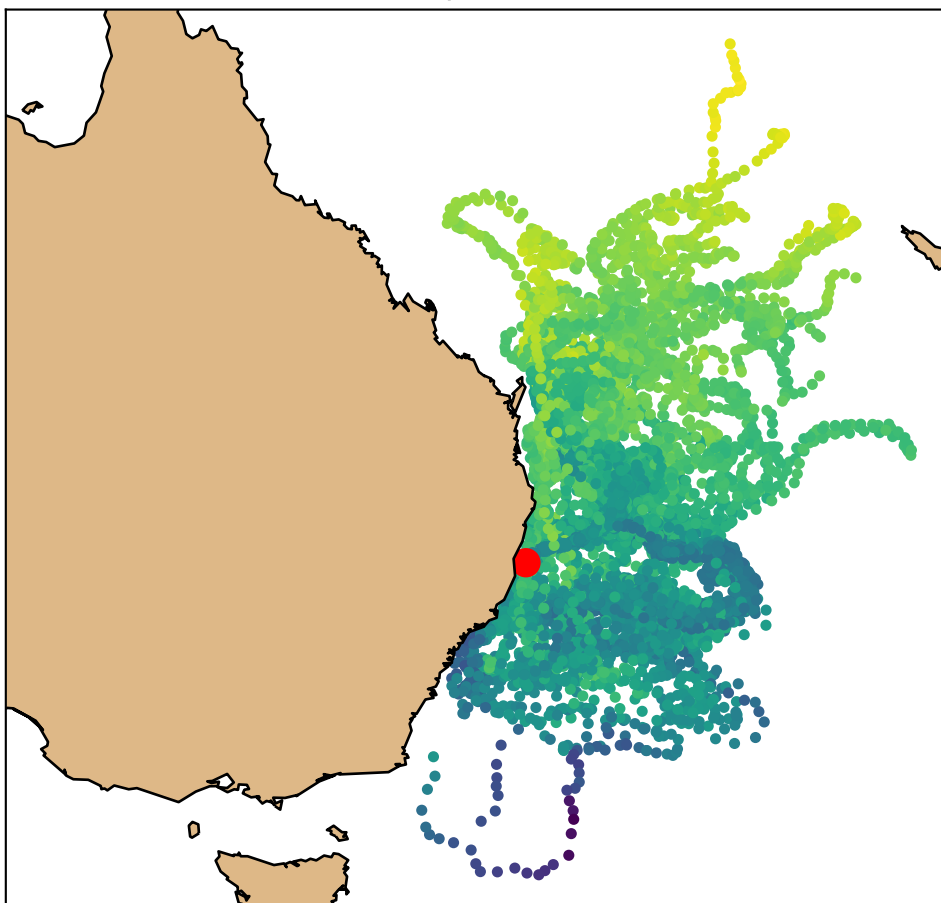
B.



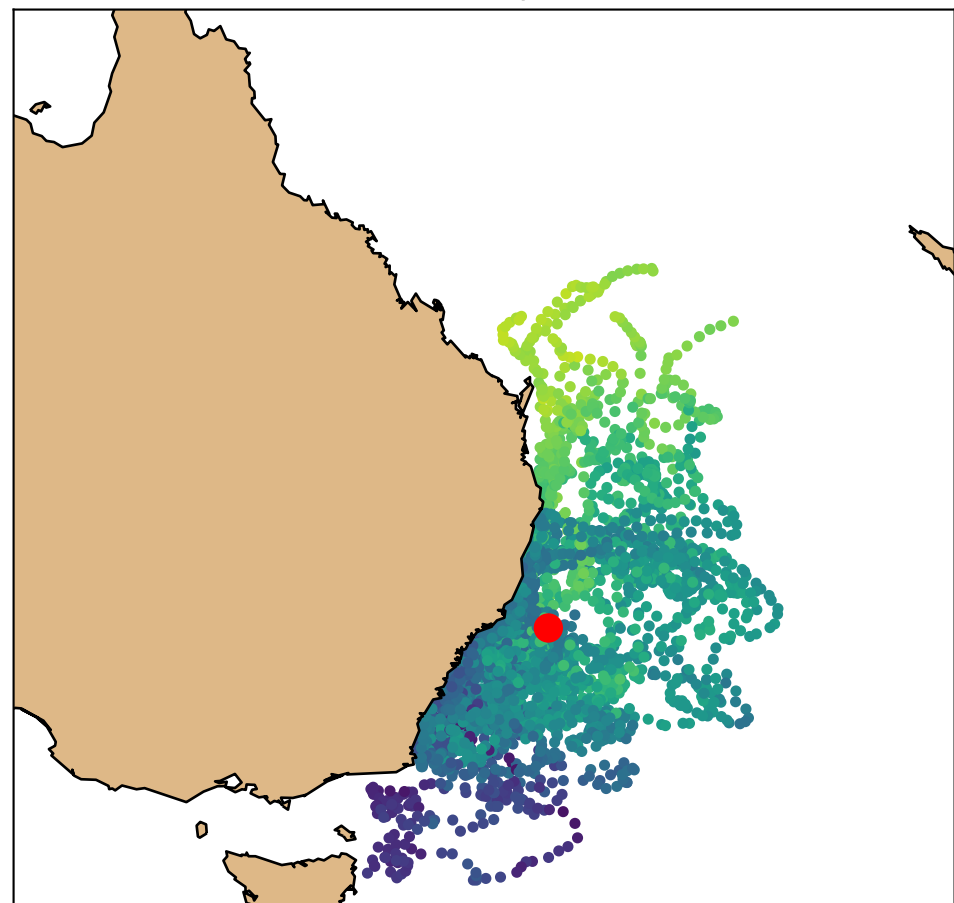
C.



EAC particles



Tasman Sea particles



[°C]

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