Intra-genomic rDNA gene variability of Nassellaria and Spumellaria (Rhizaria, Radiolaria) assessed by Sanger, MinION and Illumina sequencing

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Abstract

Ribosomal DNA (rDNA) genes are known to be valuable markers for the barcoding of eukaryotic life and its phylogenetic classification at various taxonomic levels. The large scale exploration of environmental microbial diversity through metabarcoding approaches have been focused mainly on the V4 and V9 regions of the 18S rDNA gene. The accurate interpretation of such environmental surveys is hampered by technical (e.g., PCR and sequencing errors) and biological biases (e.g., intra-genomic variability). Here we explored the intra-genomic diversity of Nassellaria and Spumellaria specimens (Radiolaria) by comparing Sanger sequencing with Illumina and Oxford Nanopore Technologies (MinION). Our analysis determined that intra-genomic variability of Nassellaria and Spumellaria is generally low, yet some Spumellaria specimens showed two different copies of the V4 with <97% similarity. From the different sequencing methods, Illumina showed the highest number of contaminations (i.e., environmental DNA, cross-contamination, tag-jumping), revealed by its high sequencing depth; and MinION showed the highest sequencing rate error (~14%). Yet the long reads produced by MinION (~2900 bp) allowed accurate phylogenetic reconstruction studies. These results highlight the requirement for a careful interpretation of Illumina based metabarcoding studies, in particular regarding low abundant amplicons, and open future perspectives towards full environmental rDNA metabarcoding surveys.

Introduction

Ribosomal DNA (rDNA) genes are known to be valuable taxonomic markers for the barcoding of eukaryotic life and its phylogenetic classification at different levels; mainly due to its intra-genomic tandem repeated structure, the presence of conserved and variable regions and its appearance in all eukaryotes (Pawlowski et al., 2012; del Campo et al., 2018). The 18S rDNA gene, coding for the small sub-unit of the ribosome, has been widely used in molecular environmental surveys, especially the short hyper-variable regions V4 and V9, thanks to the extensive occurrence in public databases and the availability of generalist primers flanking their sides (Amaral-zettler et al., 2009; Stoeck et al., 2010). The advent of High-Throughput Sequencing (HTS) techniques has allowed the massive sequencing of molecular environmental diversity supporting its exploration through a metabarcoding approach (de Vargas et al., 2015; Massana et al., 2015; Forster et al., 2016; Pernice et al., 2016). The large amount of reads (or

amplicons) generated by HTS is normally classified in Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) based on arbitrary similarity thresholds. OTUs are not only used to identify taxonomic entities, but also to describe community structure (Blaxter et al., 2005). The increasing use of the HTS, have led to the development of different clustering methods resulting in finer-scale OTUs that focus in single nucleotide differences (Mahé et al., 2015) or in the correction of sequencing errors based in the error rate entropy (so-called Amplicon Sequence Variants or ASVs; Callahan et al., 2016).

HTS produce a vast amount of reads carrying errors that are difficult to distinguish from real biological variation, that is considered as a main factor inflating diversity (Kunin et al., 2010). Intra-genomic rDNA Polymorphism and its different copy numbers among taxa can also affect diversity assessments (Gong et al., 2013; Gong and Marchetti, 2019). Other less common causes, yet important, have also been reported as factors inflating diversity estimates, such as lateral gene transfer (Yabuki et al., 2014) or presence of pseudogenes (Thornhill et al., 2007). Considering the very high sequencing depth allowed by the current HTS technologies it is likely that most of this intra-genomic diversity could be sequenced, potentially leading to a large overestimation of the environmental diversity. Several studies have argued that, quantitatively at the community level, the amount of molecular clusters largely exceeds that of morphological counts (Medinger et al., 2010; Bachy et al., 2013; Santoferrara et al., 2016), leading to hypothesis that using HTS approaches scientists are actually measuring species intra-genomic variability (Caron and Hu, 2018). Current HTS technologies used for environmental surveys can sequence short fragments of DNA of about 400 base pairs (bp) only, such as the hyper-variable regions (V4 and V9 most commonly used in protist) of the 18S rDNA gene. Comparing such short hyper-variable regions to, far from exhaustive reference sequences databases (Pitsch et al., 2019) may also contribute to inflating environmental diversity by misidentification of environmental clusters or lack of intra-genomic rDNA variability representation, among other causes.

New sequencing technologies have been developed with the ability of high throughput sequencing longer nucleotide fragments in real time, such as Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) or Pacific Bioscience (PacBio). These sequencing methods have already showed their useful capabilities, for example PacBio have developed a circular consensus sequencing resulting in near-zero error long reads, improving aspects such as genome assembly (Wenger et al., 2019) or even phylogenetic analysis of environmental diversity (Jamy et al., 2019). However, its limited high throughput sequencing ability and its relatively high cost (Goodwin et al., 2016), may affect the sequencing depth at a metabarcoding community level. On the other side, ONT provides a large amount of reads, inexpensively and highly portable with the MinION device (Levy and Myers, 2016). Despite that the error rate of the ONT reads are improving since it was firstly released (for MinION, from ~60% in 2014 to <15% error rate; Rang et al., 2018) it is still a major concern, reaching up to 3-6% of errors in the best case scenarios (Tyler et al., 2018).

In this study, we assess the intra-genomic variability within protists by comparing three different sequencing methods, Sanger, ONT (MinION) and Illumina. We focused our efforts in two groups of Radiolaria, the Nassellaria and Spumellaria (Polycystines). The

Radiolaria is an important group of protists in the eukaryotic plankton community
contributing for a major fraction of the total reads in environmental molecular surveys
(de Vargas et al., 2015; Pernice et al., 2016). However, the number of morpho-species
described among Radiolaria taxa (Suzuki and Not, 2015) does not match with the
molecular barcodes found in environmental surveys. Nassellaria and Spumellaria
environmental diversity lags far behind other radiolarian, despite of possessing the
largest morphological diversity described. Recent studies have dwelled on exploring
their extant morpho-molecular diversity (Sandin et al., 2019; Sandin et al., 2021)
showing their uncharted diversity among Radiolaria. The ecological importance of
these groups and their observed low molecular diversity in environmental surveys
stresses the need for understanding such differences among molecular markers and
morphological diversity.

Material and Methods

Single-cell Sampling, isolation and DNA extraction

Plankton samples were collected in the Bay of Villefranche-sur-Mer (France) and in the
West Mediterranean Sea (MOOSE-GE 2017 expedition) by plankton nets tows (from 20
to 64 µm mesh size). More information on sampling methodology for specific samples
can be found in the RENKAN database (http://abims.sb-roscoff.fr/renkan/). Specimens
were individually handpicked with Pasteur pipettes from the plankton community and
maintained in 0.2 µm filtered seawater for several hours. They were transferred 3-4
times into new 0.2 µm filtered seawater to allow self-cleaning from debris, particles
attached to the cell or prey(s) digestion. By doing so, it is expected to keep only
essential entities from the holobiont (the radiolarian host + associated symbionts and
bacteria). Live specimens were imaged using an inverted microscope and thereafter
transfer into 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes containing 50 µl of molecular grade absolute
ethanol and finally stored at -20 °C until DNA extraction. DNA was extracted
independently for each specimen using the MasterPure Complete DNA and RNA
purification Kit (Epicentre) following manufacturer's instructions.

Amplification and sequencing

A schematic representation of the study design and the different amplification and
sequencing steps can be found in Supplementary material Fig S1.

Four holobionts were selected to amplify the full length of the rDNA gene
(Supplementary material Fig S2), 2 of them belonging to Spumellaria: Mge17-81
(*Rhizosphaera trigonacantha*, Rhizosphaeroidea) and Mge17-82 (*Spongosphaera*
streptacantha, Spongosphaeroidea); and 2 to Nassellaria: Vil325 (*Eucyrtidium*
cienkowskii, Eucyrtidioidea) and Vil496 (*Eucyrtidium acuminatum*, Eucyrtidioidea). Each
holobiont was PCR-amplified in three different technical replicates with the eukaryotic
primers SA (AACCTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGT) / D2C-R (CCTTGGTCCGTGTTTCAAGA) (Medlin
et al., 1988; Scholin et al., 1994). Amplifications were performed with the enzyme
Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (Finnzymes). The PCR mixture contained 1µL
(~0.5ng) of DNA template with 0.35µM of each primer (final concentration), 3% of
DMSO and 2X of GC buffer Phusion MasterMix (Finnzymes), in a final volume of 25µL.
Amplifications were done in a SIMPLIAMP (Applied Biosystems™) with following the
PCR program: initial denaturation step at 98°C for 30 s, 37 amplification cycles of 10 s

at 98°C, 30 s at 55°C, 30 s at 72°C and final elongation step at 72°C for 10 minutes. For
each of the 12 amplified samples, a 23-base pairs (bp) multiplex identifier or BC
sequence was designed and included in one of the primers in order to identify the
origin of every single read from the pooled population generated on a single run.
Structures of the "BC- primers" were as follows: Primer 1: (5′- Tag + Forward primer -3′);
Primer 2: (5′- Reverse primer -3′). To avoid single cell DNA sample contamination, PCR
mixtures were carried out under a DNA–free vertical laminar flow hood. Negative and
positive controls were added to check if there were no sample contaminations (DNA
from operator, reagents or material contamination, etc.). PCR products were then
purified using NucleoSpin®Gel and PCR Clean up kit (Macherey-Nagel^{TM}). Final elution
product was divided in two for sequencing by Sanger (after cloning) and Oxford
Nanopore technologies using the MinION device (Laver et al. 2015, Jain et al. 2015).

· Sanger sequencing:
After purification, PCR amplicons were then cloned using TOPO TA Cloning for
sequencing kit (Invitrogen) following manufacturer's recommendations. After a first
step of 6 min ligation into pCR^{TM}4-TOPO® vector, ligated PCR products were then
transformed into TOP10 Chemically Competent *Escherichia coli* (ampicillin resistant) by
heat-shock treatment at 42°C for 30 s. Cells were then incubated 2h at 37°C with
rotation tray at 200 rpm with an enrichment medium. Afterwards, 80 µL of each
transformant was spread on selective solid LB-agar medium (Sigma) with 50 µg/mL of
ampicillin and incubated overnight at 37°C. On the following day, presence of the
insert was verified in obtained colonies by PCR using the primers M13 forward and
M13 reverse complementary to cloning site flanking sequences. A total of 24 clones (4
holobionts x 3 replicates x 24 clones = three 96-well plates) from each amplicon were
amplified directly with GoTaq polymerase (Promega, Lyon France) in a 25 µL reaction
volume using the following PCR parameters: 10 min at 95 °C, 35 amplification cycles of
30 s of denaturation at 95 °C, 30s annealing at 56°C and 1 min extension at 72 °C, with
a final elongation 10 min at 72 °C. PCR products were then purified using ExoStar
(Illustra^{TM} Exostar^{TM} 1_Step, GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Corp.). Final PCR products were
sent to Macrogen Europe for sequencing using the primers SA
(AACCTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGT; Medlin et al., 1988), S69f (AAHCTYAAAGGAAHTGACGG),
D1Rf (ACCCGCTGAATTTAAGCATA; Scholin et al., 1994).

· MinION library preparation and sequencing:
Each PCR product was pooled together in equimolar conditions to get 200 ng of final
amplicon concentration in 45µL. Quality, size, and concentration of PCR products were
assessed on a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent) using a DNA1000 Labchip and on a Qbit
fluorometer using a Qbit HS DNA quantification kit (Invitrogen). For this study, we
optimized a protocol using Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) 1D^2 sequencing
chemistry combined with Flowcell R 9.5.

Library preparation: DNA products (45 µL amplicon) were treated by an end-repair/dA
tailing using NEBNext® Ultra™ II End Repair/dA-Tailing Module (New England Biolabs)
and NEB Blunt/TA Ligase Master Mix (New England Biolabs), and D2 Adapter. Samples
were washed using AMPure beads (Agencourt) and 70% EtOH and re-suspended in 45
µL water. A first step of adapter ligation was conducted with 25 µL NEB Blunt/TA Ligase
Master Mix (New England Biolabs), and 2.5µL 1D^2 Adapter, and then carried out with

5μL BAM and 50μL of Blunt/TA ligase. A second washing step was done using AMPure
beads (Agencourt) and 70% EtOH and re-suspended in 15 μL water of final elution.

Sequencing: Pre sequence-library was prepared following ONT protocols by mixing 12
μL amplicon, 2.5 μL water, 25.5 μL LBB and 35 μL RBF. Flow cell R 9.5 was inserted in
the MinION frame and priming port was loaded with 800 μL of priming mix (576 μL RBF
and 624 μL water) with SpotON cover closed. We additionally loaded 200 μL of priming
mix into the flowcell via the priming port, avoiding the introduction of air bubbles.
75μL of sample library was then added to SpotOn port via dropwise fashion. Finally, we
covered SpotOn and priming ports, close the MinION lid and open the MinKNOW GUI
software to proceed with sequencing using a half of a total flow cell R 9.5. It is
important to note that the flowcell was used during its last 28h (20h → 48h), after a
prior independent experiment (data being analyzed).

· Illumina sequencing:
In total 8 holobionts were selected to amplify the V4 region (~380pb) of the 18S rDNA
gene (Supplementary material Fig S2), 4 belonging to Spumellaria: Mge17-81 (common
to previous section), Mge17-82 (common to previous section), Vil480 (*Tetrapyle*
octacantha, Pylonioidea), Vil497 (*Arachnospongus varians*, Liosphaeroidea); and 4 to
Nassellaria: Mge17-9 (*Extotoxon undulatum*, Artostrobioidea), Mge17-124 (*Carpocanium*
obliqua, Carpocaniidae), Vil490 (*Pterocorys* cf. *zanclea*, Pterocorythoidea), Vil496
(common to previous section). Specimen Vil325 (from previous section) had no DNA left
for further experiments and therefore was not possible to include in this section. Each
holobiont was PCR-amplified with the eukaryotic primers TAR-EukF1 (5'-
CCAGCASCYGCGGTAATTCC-3') / TAR-EukR3 (5'-ACTTTCGTTCTTGATYRA-3') (Stoeck et al.
2010). The forward primer had a barcode adapted for Illumina sequencing and each
holobiont was amplified with 3 different barcode-adapted-primers to get 3 technical
sequencing replicates. PCR reactions contained 1x MasterMix GC Phusion High-Fidelity
DNA Polymerase (Finnzymes), 0.35μM of each primer, 3% dimethylsulphoxide and 1μL
of DNA in a final volume of 25μl. The PCR program had an initial denaturation step at
98°C during 30 s, followed by 15 cycles of 10 s at 98°C, 30 s at 53°C and 30 s at 72°C,
then 22 similar cycles but with 48°C annealing temperature, and a final elongation step
at 72°C for 10 min. Vil325 gave no positive reactions and therefore was no possible to
be included in this step. Polymerase chain reaction, in triplicates, were purified with
NucleoSpin Gel and PCR Clean-Up kit (Macherey-Nagel), and quantified with the Quant-
It PicoGreen double stranded DNA Assay kit (Invitrogen). About 500 ng of pooled
amplicons were sent to Fasteris (https://www.fasteris.com, Switzerland) for Illumina
sequencing on a Miseq nano V2 2x250.

Sequencing results from this study along with associated metadata for its analysis and
native formats have been deposited in figshare with the following DOI:
10.6084/m9.figshare.16922764.

All scripts used in this study along with the tools for the replication of the analysis are
available in github (github.com/MiguelMSandin/IntraGenomic-variability).

Quality checking and similarity of sequences/amplicons

In order to compare the output of the three different sequencing results, similar and
broadly known methods were used to quickly check the quality of the
sequences/amplicons obtained. Firstly, raw sequences/amplicons were measured in
base pairs (bp) length. Thereafter, sequences/amplicons were compared against
reference sequences by local alignment (BLAST; using NCBI as reference sequences)
for Sanger and MinION sequencing results and global alignment (vsearch; Rognes et
al. 2016; using PR2 v4.14.0 database as reference sequence, Guillou et al. 2013) for
Illumina results. This difference in the alignment algorithm used is due to the big
differences in the sequence length and the method mostly used for each of the
sequencing results. Finally, in order to obtain sequences per holobiont, Sanger reads
belonging to the same replicate were concatenated, MinION reads were de-
multiplexed with cutadapt (Martin, 2011) and Illumina reads were clustered as
described in the next section.

Clustering of V4 hyper-variable region

Two different pipelines were used to cluster the V4 hyper-variable region: a distance-
based method and an error-based method, depending on the sequencing nature of
the sequences. The V4 region of sequences coming from Sanger and MinION
sequencing was extracted with cutadapt (Martin, 2011) using the primer set used to
amplify the V4 region (see 'Amplification and sequencing' section: TAR-EukF1 / TAR-
EukR3) and allowing 10% of mismatch for Sanger sequences and 20% of MinION
sequences. Sequence extracts were later clustered using swarm (Mahé et al., 2015)
with 1, 2 and 3 differences. Reads coming from Illumina sequencing were clustered
into ASVs using DADA2 and the pipeline described in Callahan et al. (2016). Final
amplicons were compared against PR2 v4.14.0 (Guillou et al. 2013). Note DADA2 was
not used for Sanger sequences or MinION output since the error-correction algorithm
relies on number of reads.

Consensus sequence building

Sanger sequences were aligned using MAFFT v7.395 (Katoh and Standley, 2013) with
the G-INS-i algorithm ('--globalpair') and 1000 iterative refinement cycles. Final
consensus sequences were produced with a custom script (see
'alignmentConsensus.py' in github.com/MiguelMSandin/IntraGenomic-variability) using
a 70% consensus threshold and a 30% threshold for base detection. MinION sequences
taxonomically assigned to Polycystines by BLAST were used to build consensus
sequences according to Wurzbacher et al. (2019), using an OTU clustering cutoff of 30%
due to the bad quality of the reads with the script *consension*
(https://microbiology.se/software/consension/). Resulting consensus sequences from
MinION were mapped against the raw fastq file using minimap2 (Li, 2018) and lastly
polished with racon v1.4.22 (Vaser et al. 2021).

Phylogenetic analysis

Consensus sequences coming from MinION and Sanger sequencing were aligned
against a reference alignment using MAFFT v7.395 (Katoh and Standley, 2013) with a G-

INS-i algorithm ('--globalpair') and 1000 iterative refinement cycles. The reference
alignment is composed of reference sequences (extracted from Decelle et al., 2012;
Biard et al., 2015; Sandin et al. 2019 and Sandin et al. 2021; Supplementary material
Table S1) and consensus sequences obtained by Sanger sequencing in this study.
Automatic alignment outputs were manually checked and corrected in AliView v1.26
(Larsson, 2014). Final alignments were trimmed automatically using trimal (Capella-
Gutiérrez et al., 2009) with a 30% gap threshold. The final data set contains 525 taxa
and 2434 positions. A phylogenetic analysis done by RAxML and GTR+Gamma and
GTR+CAT evolutionary models with 1000 rapid bootstraps was used to infer the
phylogenetic position of the consensus sequences. Final trees were visualized and
edited with FigTree version 1.4.3 (Rambaut 2016).

Entropy analysis

In order to compare different sequencing methods and discriminate errors from intra-
genomic variability, we perform an entropy analysis. Sequences taxonomically
assigned to Nassellaria and Spumellaria were aligned independently using MAFFT
v7.395 (Katoh and Standley, 2013) with a G-INS-i algorithm and 1000 iterative
refinement cycles for high accuracy. For every position of each alignment, Shannon
entropy was calculated using a custom script (see 'alignmentEntropy.py' in
github.com/MiguelMSandin/IntraGenomic-variability), without considering insertions
or deletions ("-") due to the incompleteness of Nassellaria sequences. For Sanger and
MinION sequences, a reference alignment was build including only Sanger sequences
as previously described, and then MinION sequences were aligned to the reference
alignment. Later Sanger sequences were removed in order to obtain 4 different
alignments: Nassellaria from Sanger, Nassellaria from MinION, Spumellaria from
Sanger and Spumellaria from MinION. Further entropy values were calculated for the 4
alignments, after removing columns with only gaps. The entropy of the full V4 region
was measured in an independent analysis to compare the three different sequencing
technologies. The full V4 region was extracted as previously described (cutadapt) from
Sanger and MinION sequencing results and sequences assigned to Nassellaria and
Spumellaria from the PR2 v4.14.0 (after removing highly divergent sequence assigned
to Orosphaeridae and Collodaria and duplicated sequences). Final datasets of
Nassellaria and Spumellaria independently included sequences from 4 different
origins: reference sequences from PR2 v4.14.0 and sequences obtained in this study by
Sanger, MinION and Illumina sequencing.

Results

Quality of sequencing results

In total 834 reads (representing 737,817 bases) were successfully retrieved from
Sanger sequencing for the 4 holobionts (from the total 864 sequences sequenced: 4
holobionts, 3 replicates per holobiont, 24 sequences per replicate and 3 reads (primers)
per sequence; see Supplementary material Fig S1 for a schematic representation).
These sequences had an average length of 884.67 (± 198.03) bp, with a median of 1005
bp and an average BLAST similarity identity of 98.13 (± 2.59) % with a reference
sequence (Fig. 1, Sanger).

MinION sequencing resulted in 864 total sequences (representing a total of 1,645,774
bases). The low throughput obtained during the last 28h of the flowcell live (20h →
48h) contrast with the high number of sequences obtained during the first 20h (0h →
20h) in an independent experiment, where there were a total of 225,573 sequences
(representing 296,072,423 total bases; data being analyzed). Approximately, during the
last 28h of the flowcell there were sequenced 0.38% of the total sequences (or 0.56% of
the total bases) obtained by the same flowcell. These 864 sequences were compared
against NCBI database by BLAST tool and 81 had no possible matching, 185 were
assigned to bacteria, 593 to eukaryotes and 5 matching different domains (e.g. the
same sequence was matching virus, uncultured prokaryote and uncultured organism).
The remaining 783 sequences had an average sequence length of 2043.48 bp (±
1143.42) bp, with a median of 2746 bp and an average identity of 86.01 (± 2.91) % with
a reference sequence. De-multiplexing MinION sequences resulted in 55 sequences
among the different replicates. After de-multiplexing, the average sequence length
increased to 2641.82 bp (± 681.80) bp and the median length to 2921 bp although the
average identity remained at values of 86.48 (± 2.33) % similarity on average with a
reference sequence (Fig. 1, MinION).

Regarding Illumina sequencing, a total of 1,019,196 sequences (representing
254,799,000 bases) were sequenced in both the R1 and the R2 files. On average 12,135
(± 6,470) reads were obtained for each replicate. These reads were merged resulting
on 10,256 (± 6,278) amplicons on average per replicate and 66,913 total unique
amplicons. They had an average length of 375.3 (± 15.89) bp, a median of 382 bp and
an average identity of 99.28 (± 2.26) % with a reference sequence (Fig. 1, Illumina).

Taxonomic assignation and diversity of reads

Sanger sequenced amplicons of the different parts of the ribosomal genes belonging
to the same replicate were concatenated resulting in 287 sequences with an average
length of 2570.7 (± 296.97) bp. This covers about the first ~1000 bp of the 18S rDNA
gene (primer SA), the last ~600-800 bp of the 18S and the ITS1 rDNA gene (primer S69f)
and the regions D1 and D2 from the 28S rDNA gene (primer D1R).

In *Eucyrtidium cienkowski* (Vil325) sequences were assigned to Nassellaria (56), Ciliates
(11) and Tunicates (4); in *Eu. acuminatum* (Vil496) to Nassellaria (53), Chrysophyceae (14)
and diatoms (5); in *Rhizosphaera trigonacantha* (Mge17-81) to Spumellaria only (72) and
in *Spongosphaera streptacantha* (Mge17-82) the community was the most diverse with
Spumellaria (63), fungi (5), ciliates (Apicomplexa: 2) and dinoflagellates (1) (Fig. 2,
Sanger). From the de-multiplexed sequences extracted from MinION sequencing, in *E.*
cienkowski was found only Nassellaria (9); in *E. acuminatum* was found Nassellaria (16),
diatoms (6), chrysophyceae (4) and fungi (1); in *R. trigonacantha*, only Spumellaria (8), as
in Sanger sequencing, and in *S. streptacantha* a similar composition as in Sanger,
Spumellaria (7), dinoflagellates (3), alveolates (1) and fungi (1) (Fig. 2, MinION).

Amplicons of Illumina were clustered using an error-based method (dada2), in total
153 ASVs (with a total of 570,041 reads) were found. These ASVs had an average length
of 379.2 (± 8.99) bp, a median length of 378 bp and an average similarity identity of
99.70 (± 5.97) %. The most diverse groups are dinoflagellates (28 ASVs), Spumellaria (23
ASVs), Nassellaria (19 ASVs) and Fungi (14 ASVs mostly within Agaricomycotina and

Ustilaginomycotina) (Fig. 2, MinION). Despite the big diversity within each holobiont,
the number of reads is highly dominated by 1, 2 or 3 ASVs belonging to the host or the
symbiotic algae (Supplementary material Fig S3). Due to the great taxonomic diversity
found within holobionts by Illumina sequencing, only ASVs present in at least 3
samples (triplicates in the PCR), with a total abundance equal or higher than the
median value of the abundance (that is 102 reads) and assigned until at least the
taxonomic rank "Order" were considered. We have chosen stringent thresholds in an
attempt to remove all artefacts and/or contaminations, understanding that part of the
targeted diversity within the holobionts might also be removed. After processing, the
number of ASVs decreased to 36 ASVs but the total reads did not change drastically
with 544,127 reads, representing up to 95.45% of the total reads. Main taxonomic
affiliations were similar to the one described before filtering the ASVs. Furthermore,
the relative proportion of unexpected ASVs took more importance; such as an ASV
affiliated to Collodaria present in 4 holobionts, an ASV affiliated to Acantharea present
in 3 holobionts and 1/2 ASVs affiliated to Craniata present in every sample
(Supplementary material Fig S4). When exploring in deeper detail the ASVs affiliated to
Polycystines and their abundance and distribution among samples after applying the
stringent thresholds, it is possible to find up to 3 different and highly abundant ASVs
within the same cell (e.g. *Spongosphaera streptacantha* or *Arachnospngus varians*; Fig. 3).
Some of the most abundant ASVs were also found in a fourth and fifth sample; as for
"ASV-2", "ASV-5" and "ASV-7", ASVs from the Nassellaria hosts *Pterocorys zanclea*,
Extotoxon undulatum and *Eucyrtidium acuminatum* respectively. "ASV-2" was present in
the three replicates of *E. acuminatum* and in one replicate of *Carpocanium obliqua* and
Rhizosphaera trigonacantha, a Spumellaria host, although at very low relative
abundances. In *E. undulatum* there were two ASVs, of which one ("ASV-5") was present
in the three replicates of the holobiont and in a fourth and fifth replicate from
Rhizosphaera trigonacantha and *Spongosphaera Streptacantha*, the second ASV ("ASV-
47") was only present in one replicate. This ASV, is also found in *C. obliqua*, *T. octacantha*
and *A. varians*, it never appears within the same three samples from an independent
holobiont and its taxonomic affiliation is to Collodaria, with a 100% similarity to a
reference sequence and 100 BS support for the taxonomic assignation.

Intra-genomic variability

The hyper-variable region V4 of the 18S rDNA gene was extracted from the sequences
affiliated to Radiolaria from both Sanger and MinION sequencing, in order to compare
with Illumina sequencing and assess if it is detectable the same genetic diversity within
the holobiont. In total 52, 56, 59 and 68 sequences from Sanger sequencing were
extracted belonging to *Eucyrtidium acuminatum*, *E. cienkowski*, *Spongosphaera*
streptacantha and *Rhizosphaera trigonacantha* respectively. The same unique sequence
was found to be the most abundant in both *E. acuminatum* and *E. cienkowski* (54 and 47
reads respectively) being exactly identical despite of being morphologically identified in
different species, and up to 5 other unique sequences were found with a very low
abundance (2, 2, 1, 1 and 1 reads, green dots on Fig. 4 under unique reads). These
sequences were very similar, showing similarities within them close to 100% with a
maximum of one base of difference (boxplots on Fig. 4 under unique reads). Similar
patterns are seen in the Spumellaria *R. trigonacantha*, with one sequence found 67

times and only one sequence different with one read. In contrast, *S. streptacantha*
shows up to 3 different reads relatively abundant (16, 13 and 13 reads) and 8 other
sequences with a lower abundance, having a similarity among them of 96.1%. It is
important to note, that these three sequences were sequenced in the three different
replicates (PCR reactions). When these sequences were clustered with swarm and 1
difference of threshold, *Eu. acuminatum* and *Eu. cienkowski* share the same amplicon. In
R. trigonacantha the single sequence was grouped in the unique amplicon found for
this holobiont, and up to 3 different amplicons were found in *S. streptacantha* (still with
a similarity among these amplicons of ~96%). Increasing the difference threshold to 2
differences the amplicons in *S. streptacantha* remain comparable to 1 difference. When
using a clustering of 3 differences, the number of amplicons in *S. streptacantha*
decreases to 2, with low changes in the similarities among them (96.4%, representing
14 different aligned positions in 385 an 382 bp sequences long). Yet one amplicon
largely dominates the other (51 reads against 8 reads). Same protocol was
implemented in MinION sequences in order to extract the V4 hyper-variable region of
the 18S rDNA (data not shown). In total 4 sequences were extracted from *R.*
trigonacantha, 2 from *S. streptacantha* , 6 from *Eu. cienkowski* and 20 from *Eu*.
acuminatum. It was not possible to cluster the sequences with swarm due to their large
dissimilarities. Up to a difference threshold of 10, there were still no clusters, keeping
an average intra-genomic similarity of 86.92% (± 3.56%).

In order to compare the intra-genomic variability between different sequencing
methods and discriminate between sequencing errors, we calculated the entropy of
the alignment from sequences obtained in this study at every position. Since it is
expected that errors are random, a single error in the alignment would have low
evenness and appear with low entropy (yet not 0). On the other side, intra-genomic
variability is expected to be sequenced in several replicates increasing the evenness
and with it the entropy, and also with a tendency to appear towards hyper-variable
regions. In general, concatenated sequences from Sanger sequencing belonging to
Nassellaria showed low Shannon entropy values among them (Supplementary material
Fig S5). Towards the end of the primers the entropy slightly increased, meaning that
most probably are suspected to be errors. Especially at the end of the region D2 of the
28S rDNA gene the entropy reaches its highest values along a region of ~100 bp
length, probably meaning variability among the different copies of the rDNA.
Regarding Spumellaria, *Rhizosphaera trigonacantha* has a similar trend than Nassellaria
(Supplementary material Fig S5). In contrast, *Spongosphaera streptacantha* shows
regions of high entropic values at around the position 750 (V4 region from the 18S
rDNA gene), along the beginning of the 28S RDNA and especially over a region of ~250
bp on the ITS1, showing a most probable big intra-genomic variability of the rDNA. In
general MinION sequences aligned against the reference sequence with many gaps
(Supplementary material Fig S5). Alignments of sequences coming from MinION have
in general a greater number of positions than alignments of sequences coming from
Sanger sequencing (~922.25 bp more in average); greater than the length of the 5.8S
and ITS2 regions of the rDNA that MinION sequences are covering in comparison to
Sanger sequences (18S+ITS1 and D1 and D2 regions of the 28S rDNA). These
sequences had high entropy values all along the rDNA alignment. With the exception
of the 18S rDNA gene of Nassellaria, where there is a constant entropy trend, there are

variations of the entropy depending on the region, but these variations do not match
exactly those of the Sanger sequences.

The V4 hyper-variable region of the 18S rDNA gene used in Fig. 4 along with that
extracted from MinION sequencing and Illumina were pooled together in one
alignment for the V4 region comparison. In total, 108 sequences for Nassellaria and
127 sequences for Spumellaria were extracted from Sanger sequencing, 19 Nassellaria
sequences and 5 Spumellaria sequences were extracted from MinION sequencing,
including those amplicons extracted from Illumina taxonomically assigned to
Nassellaria (19) and Spumellaria (23) and completed with reference sequences from
pr2 v4.14.0 (83 for Nassellaria and 671 for Spumellaria) trying to gather most of their
known diversity. Final aligned dataset had a length of 478 bp for Nassellaria and 461
bp for Spumellaria (Fig. 5). Reference sequences showed a hotspot of higher Shannon
diversity within the hyper-variable region in both Nassellaria and Spumellaria spanning
from the position ~80 until ~210 with maximum values around the position ~110-150.
Nassellaria reference sequences showed two other hotspots regions peaking at
around the positions ~330 and ~420, yet average entropy values are half of the first
hotspot region. Regarding Spumellaria, these two last hotspot regions are less marked
than for Nassellaria due to overall higher entropy values. Sanger sequences maintain a
near-0 entropy values, with the exception of a region between ~100-200 bp in
Spumellaria showing higher entropy values (corresponding to *Spongosphaera*
streptacantha). Illumina ASVs follow same patterns as the reference alignment, with the
highest entropy values at around the position ~150. Despite the poor trends found for
the full length of the rDNA for MinION sequences (Supplementary material Fig S5),
when focusing on the V4 region, shows similar patterns that those found in the
reference alignment and Illumina, although these peaks are smoother due to the
relative higher entropy values all along the alignment.

We performed a last attempt to test whether the high-error rate from MinION is
affecting further downstream analysis or is in the contrary possible to be addressed.
Sequences coming from Sanger and MinION were clustered into consensus sequences
and were aligned in a phylogenetic tree along reference sequences (Supplementary
material Table S1). Despite the high error rate of MinION sequences, the random
distribution of the errors and the long reads bring accurate phylogenetic information
when processed into consensus sequences (Fig. 6). Consensus sequences from MinION
are phylogenetically sister to the consensus sequences coming from Sanger showing
high phylogenetic support and short branches. Consensus sequences from Sanger
sequencing have a similarity >99% against reference sequences except for Eucyrtidium
cienkowski (97.32%). Consensus sequences from MinION have a maximum similarity
identity against reference sequences of 99.5%, 98.9% and 99.2% for *Eucyrtidium* sp.,
Rhizosphaera trigonacantha and *S. streptacantha* respectively (data not shown).

Discussion

Our results showed that intra-genomic rDNA gene variability of Nassellaria and
Spumellaria is generally limited, showing in some cases the same V4 rDNA hyper-
variable region between different morpho-species (yet belonging to the same genus; *E.*
cienkowskii and *E. acuminatum*), as previously found in tintinnids ciliates (Bachy et al.,

2013). Although in some species intra-genomic rDNA gene variability can be very
important, as it is the case of *Spongosphaera streptacantha* in which we found two
distinct intra-genomic V4 rDNA regions (~97% similarity, representing 14 different
nucleotide positions). Such taxonomic differences among closely related groups have
also been found in Oligotrich and Peritrich Ciliates (Gong et al., 2013). Most of this
intra-genomic variability is however overlooked due to the presence of a highly
repeated copy that predominates over the low abundant copies, as previously found in
Nassellaria or among other orders of Radiolaria such as Acantharia (Decelle et al.,
2014). However, in Acantharia the intra-genomic variability could also become
important, finding up to 3 different OTUs (V9: clustered at 97% and present in 2
replicates; Decelle et al., 2014). Similar studies have shown a relationship between the
intra-genomic variability and the number of macronuclei (Zhao et al., 2019) and
between the rDNA copy number in ciliates (Gong and Marchetti, 2019) and in
alveolates (Medinger et al., 2010). That could explain the taxonomic differences in the
intra-genomic variability of Radiolaria, since both Nassellaria and Spumellaria have
only one nucleus that tend to be small whereas Acantharia and Collodaria have several
nuclei (Suzuki et al., 2009). In the former case, they tend to show low intra-genomic
variability, whereas in the later case can be relatively high (Decelle et al., 2014).

Despite the low intra-genomic variability found within the hosts, Illumina sequencing
has identified *a priori* a very diverse host gene variability; finding in some hosts up to
10-11 different ASVs (Fig. 2). And when comparing the holobiont community obtained
by the three different sequencing methods, Illumina shows a notably diverse holobiont
community. The unexpected presence of taxonomic groups such as Acantharia,
Collodaria or Craniata within holobionts constituted by Nassellaria and Spumellaria as
hosts, questions the reliability of the so-called "rare" ASVs in environmental studies.
Part of this rare biosphere has been suggested as artefacts inflating diversity estimates
(Kunin et al., 2010; Bachy et al., 2013). Other ASVs present in a fourth or fifth sample
(i.e.: "ASV-2", "ASV-5" and "ASV-7" in Fig. 3) also question technical issues such as cross-
contamination during sequencing (Kircher et al., 2012) or tag-jumping during library
preparation (Schnell et al., 2015). Other ASVs have had full similarities against a
reference sequence and have passed the stringent abundance filters we have applied
(e.g. Craniata in fig. 2 or "ASV-47" affiliated to Collodaria in fig. 3), suggesting the
presence of environmental DNA (eDNA) since all holobionts were collected in the
north-western Mediterranean Sea, yet at varying depths, localities and dates. Numbers
of reads have been found to be correlated with the number of nuclei and the cell size
(Biard et al., 2017; Pitsch et al., 2019). Our results indicate that eDNA contamination is
showing a bias towards organisms with a higher copy number, such as Collodaria
(Biard et al., 2017) or the metazoans Craniata. A problem that might be accentuated
when the targeted DNA is relatively low abundant (*i.e.* that of Nassellaria) and have to
"compete" for the available space in the flow-cell during sequencing, resulting in large
differences of relative abundances, as seen in *Carpocanium obliqua* and *Tetrapyle*
octacantha (Fig. 2 and supplementary figure S4). Probably, DNA from Acantharia and
Collodaria are more prone to be successfully amplified regarding that of Nassellaria
and Spumellaria, as seen in differences of DNA amplification success among distinct
Foraminifera taxa (Weiner et al., 2016). In this study we have used general eukaryotic
primers that are equally binding these radiolarian groups. Therefore, further analysis

must assess the effect on differences in shell or cell architecture regarding DNA
extraction and amplification.

These results highlight the need for a careful interpretation of environmental
metabarcoding surveys due to the taxonomic bias found among different taxa (e.g.
Weiner et al., 2016; Gong and Marchetti, 2019). In some cases, illumina sequencing
from eDNA tends to lead to an under-representation of the environmental diversity
(e.g.: *Carpocanium obliqua* and *Tetrapyle octacantha* in Fig. 2) and to an over-estimation
for some other taxa (e.g.: Collodaria and Craniata). Most of these biases and technical
problems cannot be identified and sorted out in environmental metabarcoding
surveys, most frequently due to the lack of replicates, leading to poor estimations of
the environmental molecular diversity. For example, the presence of "ASV-2", "ASV-5" or
"ASV-7" in a fourth and fifth sample would have been considered as low abundant ASVs
in those specific samples in global environmental metabarcoding surveys lacking
replicates. This emphasizes the need for considering replication in metabarcoding
surveys to ensure an accurate estimation of the environmental microbial diversity
(Prosser, 2010), being technical replicates more important than biological replicates.
Besides, understanding other aspects may help the correct interpretation of
metabarcoding surveys, especially important when working with specific taxa, such as
the estimation of the rDNA copy number (Biard et al., 2017; Gong and Marchetti, 2019),
the analysis of differences in relative abundance (Morton et al., 2019) or even exploring
previous steps such as DNA extraction bias, amplification primers or intracellular
architecture. However, a big part of the overestimated diversity might also be due to
sequencing errors, as previously proposed (Bachy et al., 2013; Decelle et al., 2014),
since the 50% less abundant ASVs accounted for less than 5% of the total reads
meaning a high presence of singletons and low abundant clusters.

Illumina sequencing showed to be the method with the highest sequencing depth.
After clustering into ASVs, the error rate showed to be the lower from the three
methods and randomly distributed. Besides, most of the suspected artefacts produced
during Illumina sequencing were removed applying stringent filters. Sanger
sequencing also showed a limited error rate, yet singletons were found in the V4 rDNA
region of every sample sequenced, and were later corrected when clustering (Fig. 4).
However, towards the end of the primers the error rate increased substantially. For this
reason, we suggest that filtering of Illumina ASVs should be done more importantly
based in abundance than identity thresholds, especially for the V9 region that is
located near the end of general and specific primers. On the other side, MinION is the
technique with the highest error rate, finding alignment similarities of the raw reads
around 94-97% in bacteria (Tyler et al., 2018) better than our results with an average of
86% for the best scoring sequences. Although, recent studies have generated
consensus sequences decreasing considerably the error rate and reaching results
comparable or better than those obtained by Sanger sequencing (Pomerantz et al.,
2018; Wurzbacher et al., 2019), as seen in our study (>98.9% similarity identity to
reference sequences). Despite the high error rate of raw reads from MinION found in
our analysis, consensus sequences showed accurate phylogenetic signal with high
bootstrap supports. Therefore it turns out that the length of the reads over-competes
the randomly generated sequencing errors and brings accurate phylogenetic

information. In our study we have used the last 28h of the MinION sequencing device,
largely affecting the life and quality of the nanopores from the MinION flowcell in
detecting the ion signal. It is therefore recommended to stop the flowcell according to
dessired acquisition of reads and not time sequenced when using different projects in
the same flowcell; as seen in Srivathsan et al. (2021) where they have successfully re-
used a flow cell up to four times. Yet, when looking at the holobiont community
sequenced in our study, the results obtained with MinION are comparable to those
obtained by Sanger sequencing (Fig. 2).

ONT have the advantage of directly sequence the DNA strand with a theoretical no
need of PCR amplification, and therefore removing biases associated in these steps
that most likely produced part of the artificial environmental diversity found in
Illumina. This also brings the possibility to work with absolute reads, and not relative
values providing a more quantitative picture of the genetic community. Although rDNA
copy number will still be an issue when comparing genetic and morphological
diversity. ONT's accuracy is improving since it was firstly released (Rang et al., 2018),
and new methods for correcting and analysing ONT results are coming along (e.g.:
demultiplexing: Wick et al., 2018; base-calling: Wick et al., 2019, Xu et al. 2020;
consensus sequence building: Pomerantz et al., 2018; Wurzbacher et al., 2019; and
polishing: Vaser et al. 2021). Therefore, MinION could generate fruitful results in the
near future for metabarcoding surveys by taking advantage of the extensive work of
the 18S reference sequences already done and the high variability and taxonomic
resolution of the ITS and the 28S (as seen in environmental studies performed with
PacBio, Jamy et al. 2019). The high cost-effectiveness of ONT (Cui et al. 2020) and the
portability and sequencing depth and length of MinION device show fruitful
perspectives for its implementation of environmental phylogenetic studies. Along with
the high accuracy of circular consensus sequencing of PacBio (Wenger et al., 2019) for
the high throughput establishment of reference sequences, environmental
phylogenetic studies could move towards the full rDNA surveys.

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Originality-Significance Statement

This work applies and asses the validity of a novel method for the exploration of the
molecular environmental diversity as is the long-read sequencing from Oxford
Nanopore Technologies, using the highly portable and cost-effective device MinION. In
addition, our results provide a basis for the interpretation of already established short-

read sequencing approaches for an ubiquitous and abundant marine protists, as is the
Radiolaria.

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Tables and Figure Legends

Figure 1. Boxplot summarizing sequencing results of Sanger, Oxford Nanopore
Technologies (MinION) and Illumina sequencing; top row shows the sequence length
(in base pairs; bp) and bottom row the percentage identity of the first match against a
reference sequence per cell. Note that identity for Sanger and MinION was performed
by BLAST and for Illumina by global alignment (vsearch) due to the shorter length of
the reads.

Figure 2. Taxonomic affiliation of sequences/amplicons obtained by Sanger (after
concatenation of the primers), Oxford Nanopore Technologies (MinION) and Illumina
(reads processed by dada2) sequencing for each cell. The area represents the
proportion of total number of unique sequences/amplicons affiliated to the specific
taxonomic entity (tree map). Numbers below the taxonomic group represent the
number of unique sequences/amplicons.

Figure 3. Circular plot representing the log transformed abundance of polycystines
amplicons (lower half of the circles) clustered with dada2 and sample affiliation (upper
half of the circles). Only amplicons affiliated to polycystines, present in 3 or more
samples and with a total abundance equal or higher than 102 reads (median) were
considered.

Figure 4. Abundance and intra-genomic similarities of the V4 region extracted from
Sanger sequencing results of the total unique reads and clustered with swarm with 1
(d1), 2 (d2) and 3 (d3) differences.

Figure 5. Shannon entropy analysis for every position (on *x* axis) of the V4 hyper-
variable region of the 18S rDNA gene for reference sequences of Nassellaria and
Spumellaria (extracted from PR2 v4.14.0) and for Sanger, Illumina and Oxford
Nanopore Technologies (MinION) sequencing results aligned all together within the
different taxonomic groups. For further results on the near-full rDNA alignment
entropy obtained by Sanger and Oxford Nanopore Technologies (MinION) sequencing
see supplementary figure S5.

Figure 6. Molecular phylogeny of consensus Oxford Nanopore Technologies (MinION)
sequences, consensus of Sanger results and reference sequences inferred from the
concatenated complete 18S and partial 28S (D1-D2 regions) rDNA genes. In bold are
shown specimens used in this study (consensus) and reference sequences previously
obtained for the same specimens. Numbers after the OTU name of sequences
obtained by MinION represent from how many raw sequences the consensus was
built. The tree was obtained by using a phylogenetic Maximum likelihood method
implemented in RAxML using the GTR + CAT model of sequence evolution and 1000
rapid bootstraps (BS, shown at the nodes). Bootstrap values below 60 are not shown.
Black circles indicate BS $\geq$ 99%. Hollow circles indicate BS $\geq$ 90%.

Supplementary Data

Table S1. List of publicly available sequences used in Fig. 6.

Figure S1. Schematic representation of the study design.

Figure S2. Light microscopy images of specimens used in this study. On the right of
each specimen it is indicated whether it was used (tick mark) or not (cross mark) for
Sanger + Oxford Nanopore Technologies (MinION) sequencing and/or Illumina, and in
grey, a brief description on location and time of isolation. Scale bar (when available;
black/white bar) represents 50 µm.

Figure S3. Tree map of the total number of reads (abundance) of every ASV affiliated to
a taxonomic group for each cell obtained by Illumina sequencing. ASVs were processed
by dada2.

Figure S4. Tree map of every ASV affiliated to a taxonomic group (left column) and
their total number of reads (abundance; right column) for each cell obtained by
Illumina sequencing. ASVs were processed by dada2. Only ASVs present in 3 or more
samples and with a total abundance equal or higher than 102 reads (median) were
considered.

Figure S5. Shannon entropy analysis for every position (on *x* axis) of Sanger and Oxford
Nanopore Technologies (MinION) sequencing results aligned independently for
Nassellaria (green) and Spumellaria (blue). Lines represent the tendency of the entropy
for each alignment. Black arrows in Sanger boxes represent direction and approximate
position of the primers used for Sanger sequencing. Insertions ("-") were not

considered due to the differences in length of the sequences and the high amount of
insertions produced by the raw sequences from MinION.