Title:

Cell-type-specific expression of a *DCYTB* ortholog enables the choanoflagellate *Salpingoeca rosetta* to utilize ferric colloids

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Abstract:

The dynamic life histories of microeukaryotes present a challenge for determining their role in the nutrient cycles that support marine ecosystems. For instance, cellular differentiation is one life history strategy that enables a single celled microeukaryotic species to produce morphologically and physiologically distinct types of cells with different ecological functions. Here we report that cell differentiation in the marine choanoflagellate *Salpingoeca rosetta* endows one of its cell types with the ability to utilize insoluble ferric colloids for improved growth through the expression of a cytochrome b561 iron reductase (*cytb561a*). This gene is an ortholog of the mammalian duodenal cytochrome b561 (*DCYTB*) that reduces ferric cations prior to their uptake in gut epithelia and is part of an iron utilization toolkit that choanoflagellates and their closest living relatives, the animals, inherited from a last common eukaryotic ancestor. In a database of oceanic metagenomes, the abundance of *cytb561a* transcripts from choanoflagellates positively correlates with upwellings, which are a major source of ferric colloids in marine environments. As this predominant form of iron is largely inaccessible to cell-walled microbes, choanoflagellates and other phagotrophic eukaryotes may serve critical ecological roles by first acquiring ferric colloids through phagocytosis and then cycling this essential nutrient through iron utilization pathways. These findings provide insight into the ecological roles choanoflagellates perform and may inform reconstructions of early animal evolution where functionally distinct cell types became an integrated whole at the origin of animal multicellularity.

Text:

Thecates display a different transcriptome profile than other cell types.

In the decade since the first genome and transcriptomes[1] of *S. rosetta* were sequenced, the establishment of a monoxenic strain of *S. rosetta* that feeds on the bacterium *Echinicola pacifica*[2–4] has led to reproducible methods to culture four different cell types from *S. rosetta*[5]: thecates, rosettes, slow swimmers, and fast swimmers (Fig. 1A). Under nutrient replete conditions, sessile thecates differentiate into motile slow swimmers[5,2,3] that detect specific bacterial[6–8] and algal[9] cues to develop into multicellular colonies called rosettes[10]. In response to starvation, rosettes and slow swimmers differentiate into fast swimmers. Stable culturing methods for these cell types motivated us to refine the transcriptomes of each cell type in a common bacterial background. To further improve transcriptomes, we also developed a method to preferentially lyse *S. rosetta* while discarding their feeder bacteria. This preferential lysis allowed us to harvest mRNA from *S. rosetta* with a single round of poly-A selection (Fig. S1) rather than previous methods that relied on multiple rounds of selection to deplete contaminating RNAs from bacteria[1,10]. A principal component analysis of these improved transcriptomes emphasized a stark difference between the thecate cell type compared to slow swimmers, rosettes, and fast swimmers (Fig. 1B) with the first principal component accounting for 86% of the variance and clearly separating thecates from all other cell types. While these results are consistent with previous gene expression profiles that found thecates separated from other types of cells[1,12], the replicate measures in our data do not show a clear difference between slow swimmers, rosettes, and fast swimmers, suggesting that these three cell types are phenotypically plastic states.

The contrast between thecates and other cell types prompted us to investigate what unique functions thecates may perform. By comparing thecates to slow swimmers, we first identified a set of genes that reproducibly ($q < 0.01$, note that q is a *P*-value adjusted for multiple comparisons) displayed a greater than two-fold change in gene expression in thecates. We analyzed this set of genes for common gene ontologies (GO)[13–16] that indicated functional categories enriched in thecates. Although the incomplete annotation of genomes from non-model organisms can exacerbate caveats from classifying particular genes into discrete functional categories[17], the genes upregulated in thecates were clearly enriched for functional modules (Fig. 1C) implicated in cell signaling (e.g. nucleotide binding, protein kinase, protein phosphatase, calcium binding, metal ion transporter, guanylate cyclase and G-protein coupled receptor), gene regulation (e.g. transcription factor and ribosome component), and metabolism

(e.g. nucleotide binding, oxidoreductase, glycosyl hydrolase, metal ion transporter, carbohydrate

binding, sulfuric ester hydrolase, and ascorbic acid binding). From GO molecular function

categories, we then generated a list of associated genes (GO Slim)[18]. Within this list, we

focused on metabolic genes, anticipating that genes from those categories would yield

candidate(s) to experimentally test specific functions that thecates perform. This analysis

highlighted a gene (PTSG_09715) with 479-fold higher expression in thecates compared to slow

swimmers ($q < 10^{-40}$) that was annotated as an oxidoreductase (GO:0016491) comprised of a

single cytochrome b561 iron reductase domain (Pfam 03188). Given the role that

oxidoreductases perform in diverse eukaryotes to regulate iron acquisition[19–22], the strong

induction of PTSG_09715 (henceforth called *cytb561a*) led us to hypothesize that thecates may

have a different capacity to acquire iron from the environment compared to other cell types.

***cytb561a* expression improves thecate growth with ferric colloids.**

Of the 2,820 genes that reproducibly displayed a two-fold or greater change in mRNA

expression in thecates compared to slow swimmers, the change in *cytb561a* expression is in

the ninety-eighth percentile (Fig. 2A). This large change in *cytb561a* expression may have been

coupled to the thecate cell type program or may have been an independent response to

external nutrients that differed between the media for culturing slow swimmers and thecates for

the transcriptomes (see methods). To distinguish between these possibilities, we measured

cytb561a mRNA expression in slow swimmers and thecates after standardizing a culturing

regime (Fig. 2B and Table S1). In this protocol, slow swimmers and thecates were grown in the

same media formulation and then depleted of iron. Afterwards, we reintroduced iron either as

soluble ferric EDTA ($Fe^{3+} \cdot EDTA$) or as insoluble ferric colloids ($Fe^{3+}(oxyhydr)oxides$)[23] because

models based on ecological measurements predict that 40% of the world's surface ocean

waters rely on colloidal sources of iron and 18% on soluble iron chelates[24]. Regardless of iron

having been provided as ferric EDTA versus ferric colloids (two-way ANOVA, $P > 0.1$), *cytb561a*

mRNA expression increased in thecates compared to slow swimmers by 89-fold with ferric

EDTA and 66.2-fold with ferric colloids (two-way ANOVA, $P < 0.005$) (Fig. 2C and S2 A-C). This

result supports the conclusion that thecates are a stable cell type that expresses *cytb561a* as

part of its differentiation regulon.

To determine the functional consequence of increased *cytb561a* expression in thecates,

we compared the growth of thecates and slow swimmers in the presence of 100 µM ferric EDTA

or ferric colloids (Fig. 2D). Thecates grew to a two-fold higher cell density in the presence of

ferric colloids (two-way ANOVA, $P < 10^{-4}$), yet slow swimmers showed no change (two-way

ANOVA, $P > 0.1$). This effect was observed at lower concentrations of iron (50 µM), but higher

concentrations of iron (≥200 µM), favored higher cell proliferation in ferric EDTA (Fig. S3A).

Thecates also grew better than slow swimmers with other ferric chelates, such as ferric EGTA

and ferric pyoverdine (Fig. S4B). Importantly, the differences in *S. rosetta* growth are very

unlikely due to indirect effects from the prey bacteria, for *E. pacifica* grew similarly in all iron

conditions, likely due to the small concentration of iron (3.43 ± 1.01 µM) that dissolved from the

ferric colloids (Fig. S3 C-E)**.**

The increased proliferation of thecates in the presence of ferric colloids did depend on

the expression of *cytb561a*. With an improved genome editing pipeline (see methods and Fig.

S4 A-B), we altered *cytb561a* expression by introducing a premature termination sequence[25] at

position 151 of *cytb561a* to incorporate missense mutations and a polyadenylation signal, which

diminished mRNA expression by 10-fold compared to wild-type (Fig. S2D, one-way ANOVA, $P =$

0.004). This mutant allele, *cytb561a^{PTS}*, eliminated the difference in cell proliferation between

slow swimmers and thecates (Fig. 2D, $P > 0.1$). By comparing the growth dynamics of

cytb561a^{PTS} to wild-type (Fig. S5), we also found that the enhancement of thecate growth with

ferric colloids was primarily due to a two-fold larger carrying capacity and a shorter doubling

time (17.9 h vs 13.2 h, two-way ANOVA, $P = 0.035$). Altogether, these results suggest that the

increased expression of *cytb561a* in thecates confers a cell-type-specific function to utilize

insoluble ferric colloids for faster and more extensive growth.

Choanoflagellates and animals share a core iron acquisition toolkit comprised of genes

broadly conserved across eukaryotes.

Although *cytb561a* expression was necessary for the increased proliferation of thecates

when grown with ferric colloids, we were uncertain how this iron reductase factored into the

pathway(s) for iron acquisition in *S. rosetta*, as iron transport pathways have not previously

been examined in choanoflagellates. Therefore, we compiled an inventory of iron import and

export proteins that have been characterized in model eukaryotes (e.g. humans[22], *S.*

cerevisiae[26], *P. tricornutum*[19]*, C. reinhardtii*[21], Fig. S6) to survey the distribution of those proteins

across Holozoa (the taxonomic group that includes Animalia, Choanoflagellata, Filasterea, and

Teretosporea) and a curated set of eukaryotes[27]. Overall, we found that nearly all of the proteins

for iron import, export, reduction, and oxidation are widely distributed among eukaryotes,

suggesting a deep ancestry of iron acquisition pathways from the last common eukaryotic

ancestor (Fig. 3A).

Our searches also revealed notable evolutionary patterns that correspond to the unique biology of certain eukaryotic lineages. For example, we found significant losses of iron toolkit genes in some lineages: Apicomplexa, a taxon that includes the intracellular parasites *Cryptosporidium parvum*, *Toxoplasma gondii*, and *Plasmodium falciparum* had a severely reduced set of iron acquisition genes, consistent with the origin of *de novo* iron acquisition pathways for siphoning iron from their hosts[28]. Moreover, we observed that some iron utilization genes are more taxonomically restricted than others: Genes first characterized in ascomycete yeasts were either primarily found in Fungi and Archaeplastida (e.g. iron transporter[29]) or only present in a few eukaryotes (e.g. iron permease[30]). Similarly, transferrin and phytotransferrin were respectively restricted to Holozoa and Archaeplastida, respectively, as previously shown[31]. Notably, the presence of transferrin in Animalia and Teretosporea indicated that transferrin was present in the last common ancestor of Holozoa, yet the transferrin receptor that facilitates the cellular internalization of iron-bound transferrin appears to have originated in Bilateria, highlighting the evolution of a mechanism in animals to share iron between cells. Finally, we also observed that the presence of genes encoding vacuolar iron transporters and ferritin, which are both involved in iron storage, was slightly anticorrelated (r = -0.380, P < 10^{-8}). Overall, this catalog of iron utilization proteins does indicate that eukaryotes have variably retained, amplified, or lost genes from an ancestral toolkit for the acquisition, storage, and export of iron.

Choanoflagellates and animals appeared to share a core pathway for acquiring iron from their external environment. Iron acquisition in animals has most extensively been studied in vertebrate gut epithelia[32]. The apical side of those epithelial cells absorbs dietary iron by reducing ferric cations to ferrous cations through the activity of duodenal cytochrome B561 (DCYTB) before divalent metal ion transporter (DMT1) brings ferrous cations inside of cells. On the basal end of gut epithelia, ferroportin (FPN) secretes ferrous cations into the bloodstream, where they are oxidized to ferric cations near the membrane by hephaestin (HEPH). In our catalog of iron utilization genes, all choanoflagellates possessed homologs of *DCYTB*, *DMT1*, and *FPN*, but *HEPH* (Fig. 3A, row 8–ferroxidase type1) was only present in *S. rosetta* and 9 other species (of 22 surveyed[33])–perhaps due to the lack of complete genomes for many of those species. Differences between choanoflagellates and animals were evident in iron storage mechanisms, as choanoflagellates mostly possessed vacuolar iron transport proteins, which have been studied in *S. cerevisiae*[34,35]; whereas, animals broadly conserved ferritin. As we searched for homologs of iron acquisition genes in *S. rosetta*, we found single copies of *dmt1*, *fpn*, and *heph* and identified two vacuolar iron transporters (*vit1* and *vit2*). Three cytochrome b561 genes were present, yet among all the conserved iron utilization genes, only *cytb561a*

exhibited strong differential expression between cell types (Fig. 3B), emphasizing its

cell-type-specific role in thecates.

Because the apico-basal localization of iron acquisition genes facilitates the

unidirectional import of iron in animal epithelia[32], we tested if iron transport in *S. rosetta* shared a

similar architecture (Fig. 3C). To do so, we used genome editing at endogenous loci to introduce

an epitope tag (ALFA-tag[36]) in all the iron utilization genes. Only Cytb561a*, Fpn,* and Heph were

visible in western blots of thecates (Fig. S7A), so we focused on those proteins to visualize by

immunofluorescence. In thecates, Cytb561a localized intracellularly toward the apical half of the

cell but not in any pattern resembling organelles[37], but Cytb561a was undetectable in slow

swimmers (Fig. 3C, S7B), consistent with its mRNA expression (Fig. 2C). In both slow

swimmers and thecates, Fpn and Heph localized near the apical membrane inside of the collar.

The similar co-localization of Fpn and Heph would be consistent with their coordinated function

as an efflux pump and oxidase as described in animals[32]. Importantly, the basal localization of

these proteins appears to be a feature of animal epithelia that is not shared with

choanoflagellates and may have evolved alongside the mechanisms to establish and maintain

cell polarity[38].

Based on the functions of homologous genes and the localization of Cytb561a, Fpn, and

Heph, we propose a model for iron acquisition in *S. rosetta* thecates that may extend to other

choanoflagellates (Fig. 3D). After internalizing ferric colloids, Cytb561a reduces ferric cations in

endosomes where we surmise that Dmt1 transports ferrous cations into cells–although Dmt1

was undetectable by immunohistochemistry (Fig. S7). As slow swimmers do not express

Cytb561a, *S. rosetta* may acquire iron directly from bacterial prey digested in food vacuoles or

rely on Cytb561b or Cytb561c to reduce ferric cations. In both slow swimmers and thecates,

Fpn exports ferrous cations at the apical end where Heph can oxidize it.

Cytb561 paralogs display distinct biochemical properties and global distributions.

The variation in the number of cytochrome b561 paralogs across eukaryotes led us to

question the function and evolution of the three cytochrome b561 paralogs that we identified in

S. rosetta. While the expression of *cytb561a* in thecates was clearly necessary for improved

growth in the presence of colloidal iron, slow swimmers still grew in those conditions as did

cytb561a[PTS] thecates (Fig. 2D). These observations and the steady mRNA expression of

cytb561b and *cytb561c* across cell types would be consistent with these paralogs sustaining a

baseline ability to acquire iron, even if we could not detect their protein products by

immunohistochemistry (Fig. S7). The potential for functional redundancy among these paralogs

also led us to consider if choanoflagellates and other eukaryotes display lineage-specific

expansions of this gene family that may have resulted in differing capacities to acquire iron.

To better compare the cytochrome b561 paralogs in *S. rosetta*, we first built a

phylogenetic tree[39] from an alignment[40] of Cytb561 proteins from Amorphea (Fig. 4A), which is

the eukaryotic supergroup that includes Holozoa and Amoebae[27,41]. The unrooted tree of

cytochrome b561 proteins robustly supported (ultrafast bootstrap[42] > 88) three distinct groups.

Groups B and C contained protein sequences from each major clade in Amorphea and its sister

group CrUMS (Collodictyonida, Rigifilida and Mantamonadida). Strikingly, sequences from

Holozoa dominated Group A, as a single protein from Amoebozoa was the only sequence from

outside of Holozoa that fell into this group. Notably, Group A not only contained mammalian

DCYTB proteins but also Cytb561a from *S. rosetta*, supporting the annotation of this gene as an

DCYTB ortholog. The Cytb561b and Cytb561c proteins from *S. rosetta* fell into Groups B and C,

respectively.

Because each of the *S. rosetta* paralogs was part of a different group of cytochrome

b561 proteins, we examined[43] their predicted structures[44,45] to evaluate if the deep evolutionary

divergence was reflected in their biochemical characteristics (Fig. 4B). Electrostatic maps of

their protein surfaces revealed differences in the iron binding site (Fig. 4B, arrows). Cytb561a

possessed a mix of positive and negative charges similar to the crystal structure of human

DCYTB that shows these charged residues bind iron and coordinated ligands[46]. The anionic

surface of the iron binding site in Cytb561c could also plausibly bind iron cations, but the

positively-charged pocket of Cytb561b may repel iron cations. With each paralog from *S. rosetta*

possessing distinct biochemical properties near the iron binding site and belonging to a different

Cytochrome b561 subgroup, we hypothesize that the improvement of thecate growth with ferric

colloids may not only be due to the mass action from more Cytb561 proteins by also the distinct

biochemical activity of Cytb561a.

If the biochemical activity and cell-type-specific expression of Cytb561 paralogs enable

choanoflagellates to acquire iron from different environmental sources, then we expect that the

expression of each paralog may be enriched in different ecological settings. To test this

hypothesis, we searched for each paralog in an open repository (Ocean Gene Atlas[47,48]) of

metagenomes and metatranscriptomes from marine environments. When we visualized the

distribution of each paralog, we found that they varied in both location and transcript abundance

but were similarly present in metagenomic reads (Fig. 4C) The most abundant and

cosmopolitan paralog was *cytb561c*. Although present at most of the sites, the transcript

abundance of *cytb561b* was ~10-fold lower than *cytb561c*. The abundance of *cytb561a* had a

similarly low abundance as *cytb561b,* yet its distinct presence near coastlines and the equator

resembled the locations of marine upwellings[49] (Fig. S8A).

Importantly, upwellings are a major source of remineralized iron colloids rising from

ocean depths[50,51], and upwelling velocities may serve as a better proxy for the presence of

colloidal iron than predictions of soluble iron concentrations[52]. Therefore, we correlated the

abundance of the genomic and transcript reads for each paralog to average vertical velocities at

a depth of 100 meters for each sample location (Fig. 4C, S8B). Of all the comparisons, the only

robust correlation was between *cytb561a* transcript abundance and vertical velocity (r = 0.64, *P*

< 10^{-4}), as the transcript abundances of the other paralogs exhibited only weak positive

correlations that were probably random (*P* > 0.3). The positive correlation between *cytb561a*

transcripts and upwelling velocities indicate ecological contexts where choanoflagellates may be

acquiring insoluble iron colloids for their growth. We cannot, however, determine if the

choanoflagellates in those regions are thecates expressing *cytb561a* as in *S. rosetta*, or

choanoflagellates that evolved a different regulatory mechanism that uncoupled *cytb561a*

expression from thecate development. Nonetheless, these observations connect *cytb561a*

expression to an environmental feature and places choanoflagellate biology in a global

ecological framework.

Iron is an essential micronutrient affecting the growth and productivity of

phytoplankton[53]. Field measurements and ocean scale models have found that iron particulates

are the major source of iron for 40% of the world's surface ocean waters[24]. In addition to

photolytic reduction[54,55] and bacterial siderophores[56,57], the ingestion of iron particles by

phagotrophic protists is a major mechanism to solubilize iron and can alleviate iron limitation for

cell-walled organisms that rely on obtaining iron in soluble forms[58,55,59]. As efficient

phagotrophs[60–63], choanoflagellates can ingest iron particulates, yet the need to express

cytb561a for *S. rosetta* thecates to utilize ferric colloids shows that gene regulation in the

context of life history transitions is a critical factor in determining the ability of a microeukaryote

to access essential resources from their environment. The complement of iron acquisition genes

may further enable or constrain phagotrophs to break down iron, for iron acquisition genes

display a variable distribution across eukaryotic lineages (Fig. 3A). Those genes may have also

evolved protein biochemical activities for different sources of iron, as shown by the distinctive

biochemical properties of cytochrome b561 paralogs (Fig. 4B). Thus, an integrative account of

dynamic life histories[64,65] and protein evolution[66] are necessary to determine the ecological roles

that microeukaryotes play in acquiring and distributing limiting nutrients in their environment[64,65].

Moreover, the synthesis of cytological, genomic, and ecological data may help to interpret how

the rise in oxygen that resulted in the depletion of soluble ferrous cations from the oceans

influenced eukaryotic evolution[66–68], including that emergence of animals[69].

The cell-type-specific expression of *cytb561a* not only illustrates how cellular

differentiation impacts the environmental function of a choanoflagellate but also informs how

cellular differentiation evolved as a defining feature of animal multicellularity[70–75].

Choanoflagellate cell types have been primarily defined by their morphology and motility[5,62]. In

addition to those cell biological characteristics, we show here that thecates have a distinct

function to utilize ferric colloids. The coupling of this function to cell differentiation stands in

contrast to the regulation of iron utilization in other microeukaryotes that transiently regulate iron

utilization genes in response to external iron concentrations[35,76,77]. The functional difference

between slow swimmers and thecates more closely resembles the stable differentiation of cell

types during animal development[78–80]. Taken together, these observations support models for

the origin of animal cell differentiation in which the last common holozoan ancestor differentiated

into unique cell types at each life history stage[81,70,72,74,82]. Evolution along the animal stem

lineage coupled cell differentiation to multicellular development, resulting in multicellular bodies

composed of functionally distinct cells[83]. Importantly, mechanisms to distribute resources from

cells that acquire nutrients from the external environment (e.g. epithelial cells[84]) to cells that

reside internally helped to transform the functions of various cell types into a common

organismal physiology[85]. As the evolution of transferrin and its receptor illuminates, the

multicellular physiology of animals has likely been cobbled together through the co-option of

mechanisms for nutrient acquisition and cellular trafficking.

Materials and Methods:

Culturing S. rosetta

To grow cell types of *S. rosetta* for the generation of transcriptomes, slow swimmer and rosettes were grown in 5% Sea Water Complete (SWC) Media[2,86] (Table S1), seeded at 10^4 cells/mL and grown for 48 hours at 22°C. Rosettes were induced with outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) harvested from the bacterium *Algoriphagus machipongonensis*[7]. Fast swimmers were prepared the same way as slow swimmers, but were grown for 72 hours at 22°C and transitioned to 30°C for 2 hours and 45 minutes. Thecates were grown from the strain HD1, a strain which is constitutively in the thecate cell type, in 10% Cereal Grass Media 3 (CGM3)[2,86] (Table S1), seeded at 10^4 cells/mL and grown for 48 hours at 22°C.

For iron acquisition experiments and standard culturing of *S. rosetta*, all cell types were grown in 25% Red Algae (RA) Media[87] (Table S1) with the feeder bacteria *Echinicola pacifica*. Cultures were grown at 18°C for maintaining cultures and shifted to 27°C one day prior to conducting iron acquisition experiments.

RNA extraction

In a previous paper[86], we developed a lysis buffer to extract RNA from *S. rosetta* that has subsequently been used in other work for RNA[88–90] and protein extraction[91]. Here we show that this buffer was developed to preferentially lyse *S. rosetta* in cultures that have an abundance of the prey bacterium *E. pacifica*. To preferentially lyse *S. rosetta*, we reasoned that sterol-based detergents, such as digitonin, would more effectively disrupt membranes with sterols, like those of *S. rosetta* and other eukaryotes[92] rather than bacterial membranes that largely lack the sterols[93]. Additionally, the lysis buffer contains RNase inhibitors (RNaseIN and heparin) and translation inhibitors to decrease the degradation of mRNA. We evaluated the efficacy of this buffer by tracking ribosomal RNA from *S. rosetta* and *E. pacifica* in lysed samples that were centrifuged to separate the supernatant and pellet, in which we found that *S. rosetta* ribosomal RNAs were enriched in the supernatant and bacterial ribosomal RNAs were enriched in the pellet (Fig. S1). The optimization of this procedure resulted in the following method to obtain RNA samples from each cell type of *S. rosetta*:

After counting the cell concentration in a culture of *S. rosetta* feeding on *E. pacifica*, a volume yielding 10^7 cells was centrifuged at 2600xg for 5 min at 4°C. The pellet from this sample was

resuspended in 100 µl of preferential lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 150 mM KCl; 5 mM

MgCl$_2$; 250 mM Sucrose; 1 mM DTT; 10 mM Digitonin; 1 mg/ml Sodium Heparin; 1 mM Pefabloc

SC; 100 µg/ml Cycloheximide; 0.5 U/µl Turbo DNase [Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No.

AM2239]; 1 U/µl SUPERaseIN [Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. AM2696]) and incubated on

ice for 10 min. Cells were triturated through a 30G needle ten times. Afterwards, the insoluble

debris was pelleted by centrifugation at 6,000 x g for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was

removed and adjusted to a volume of 100 µl with RNase-free water. Total RNA was purified on a

silica membrane with the RNA clean-up protocol from the RNAeasy kit (Qiagen, Cat. No.

74104).

RNA library preparation and sequencing

In preparation for sequencing, the quality of total RNA from *S. rosetta* samples was assessed by

Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 (Fig. S1C) with the Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit (Agilent, Cat. No.

5067-1511). Then total RNA (500 ng per sample) was purified by one round of polyA mRNA

selection with oligo-dT magnetic beads (NEB, Cat. No. S1550S), converted to cDNA using

KAPA mRNA HyperPrep kit (KAPA biosystems, Cat. No. KK8580), and indexed-adapter ligated

with KAPA single-indexed adapter kit (KAPA biosystems, Cat. No. KK8701). Final library quality

was determined by Bioanalyzer 2100 using the Agilent High Sensitivity DNA Kit (Agilent, Cat.

No. 5067-4626) and pooled together after normalizing samples based on their quantity from

qPCR. Sequencing was carried out by the QB3-Berkeley Genomics core (QB3 Genomics, UC

Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, RRID:SCR_022170), on the Illumina HiSeq 4000. All samples were

pooled and run on a single lane with 12.4 to 61.3 million reads per sample. Reads were

demultiplexed, checked for quality by fastqc (Babraham Bioinformatics).

RNA-seq quantification and gene enrichment analysis

RNA-seq reads from each sample were mapped to a reference *S. rosetta* transcriptome

(https://ftp.ensemblgenomes.ebi.ac.uk/pub/protists/release-58/fasta/protists_choanoflagellida1_

collection/salpingoeca_rosetta_gca_000188695/cdna/) using kallisto[94]. Transcript abundance

and differential expression were quantified with sleuth[95]. Gene enrichment for thecates was

quantified by selecting genes with $q < 0.01$ and $\log_2$ (fold-change + 0.5) > 1. The resulting genes

were assigned GO terms using DAVID Bioinformatics[15,16] where *S. rosetta* gene IDs could be

identified by "ENSEMBLE_GENE_ID". For ease of interpretation, assigned GO terms were

collapsed down using REVIGO[96] and further assigned to functional categories in *S. rosetta*

(TaxID: 946362) by GO Slim[18].

S. rosetta growth with different sources of iron

Media Preparation. To test the ability of *S. rosetta* cell types to differentially utilize iron sources, we developed a method to culture *S. rosetta* under iron limitation. We created an iron depleted media formulation named 4% Peptone Glycerol (PG) Media (Table S1). We added iron to this media from two different sources: Ferric EDTA was prepared by dissolving $FeCl_3$ and EDTA to a final concentration of 1.46 µM in artificial seawater (ASW [Ricca Chemical Company, Cat. No. R8363000-20F]) and sterile filtering through a 0.22 µm polyethersulfone (PES) filter. Ferric colloids were prepared by adding a small volume of 70% (v/v) ethanol to $FeCl_3(s)$ to sterilize the solid; after evaporating the liquid in a biological safety cabinet, 1.46 µM $FeCl_3$ was prepared in ASW. The solution was heated to 50°C for 10 minutes to precipitate ferric (oxyhydr)oxides, or ferric colloids[23].

Determining iron concentration in media. To determine the background concentration of soluble iron in our newly formulated media and the amount of labile iron liberated from the ferric colloids, we used a modified protocol[58] to measured soluble iron concentrations in 4% PG and 4% PG with 100 µM ferric colloids. To measure these iron concentrations, 50 mL of 4% PG media was incubated at 27°C for 6 hours with and without 100 µM ferric colloids. The media was then centrifuged at 4600xg for 15 minutes at room temperature. The top 45 mL of supernatant was taken for the following steps. To capture and concentrate the soluble iron in the supernatant, 125 µM 8-Hydroxyquinoline (oxine) was added to chelate labile iron, and 5 mL of 1M MES, pH 6 was added to aid in oxine's solubility in the media and its binding to iron, which is facilitated by lower pH. These solutions were incubated for 24 hours protected from light, and then filtered through a Sep-Pak C18 column (Waters, Cat. No. WAT036800) to bind oxine-iron complexes. The column was then washed with 5 mL water and eluted with 1.4 mL methanol. To measure iron concentrations in the eluate, 50 µL of eluate was measured with an colorimetric iron detection kit (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. No. MAK025-1KT) following the provided protocol. Iron concentration was determined by measuring absorbance at 595 nm on a plate reader.

Iron-limited *E. pacifica* pellets were prepared by growing *E. pacifica* in 4% PG for 72 hours at 225 rpm and 30°C, then pelleted, aliquoted, and frozen into 10 mg pellets, and stored at -80°C. *E. pacifica* pellets were resuspended in 1mL of media to achieve a 10mg/mL liquid bacteria stock to add to cultures.

Culturing with different iron sources. To set up the iron utilization assay, cultures grown in 25% RA were passaged at a 1:60 dilution into 25% RA and grown for 72 hours at 18°C. This culture was then passaged at a 1:60 dilution into 25% RA and grown for 24 hours at 27°C. Finally, this culture was passaged at a 1:30 dilution into 4% PG (which had no iron added) and

grown at 27°C for 24 hours. Cells from this final passage were twice washed by first centrifuging
the culture at 2600xg for 4 minutes and then resuspending the pellet in 30 mL sterile ASW. After
the final wash, the pellet was resuspended in 100 µL ASW and counted. These washed cells
were used to seed cultures at 10^4 cells/mL in 4% PG with the additions of 100 µM iron (ferric
EDTA or ferric colloids) and 50 µg/mL of iron-limited *E. pacifica* pellets (see above). The
resulting culture was grown at 27°C for 48 hours and harvested for each experiment.

qPCR

Primer design. Primers were designed against *cytb561a,* the experimental gene of interest and
cofilin, a highly expressed eukaryotic specific housekeeping gene with a consistent expression
between *S. rosetta* cell types, as shown by the RNAseq analysis. Primers for quantitative
polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) were designed by selecting 19-20 bp oligos spanning
exon-exon junctions from cDNA sequences, (downloaded from:
https://protists.ensembl.org/Salpingoeca_rosetta_gca_000188695/Info/Index). Primer
sequences as follows: *cytb561a* forward primer 5'-CATGGAAGAAGCGCATGGTG-3', reverse
primer 5'-GGGTCCGCAAGATCATTGAG-3', *cofilin* forward primer
5'-CAAGCTCCCCACGGACAAG-3', reverse primer 5'-GGGTCCATGCGAAGAAGAC-3'. In the
case of *cytb561a,* primers were selected downstream of the premature termination sequence
edited in by CRISPR/Cas9.

Primer validation. Target amplicons were amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) from
the cDNA of slow swimmer and thecate cultures (Fig. S2A) with the Luna Universal qPCR
Master Mix (NEB, Cat, No. M3003). The amplicons were run on a 1% (w/v) agarose gel in
Tris-Borate-EDTA (TBE) buffer to verify that the primer sets amplified only one amplicon. The
amplification efficiency of primer sets was characterized across a serial dilution of ssDNA
standards for each target (Fig. S2B-C). ssDNA standards were generated from PCR products
amplified with a forward primer that was 5' phosphorylated to promote Lambda exonuclease
digestion of that strand (NEB, Cat. No. M0262S) and a reverse primer with phosphorothioate
bonds between the first four 5' nucleotides to block digestion. Those PCR products were then
digested with Lambda exonuclease following NEB's protocol. ssDNA concentrations were
determined by Qubit ssDNA Assay Kit **(**Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. Q10212) by creating a standard
curve with the provided standards and then reading fluorescence (Ex = 500 nm / Em=540 nm)
on a plate reader (Molecular Devices, SpectraMax iD5). The ssDNA standards were serially

diluted from 10^5 to 10^0 copies/μL in a solution with 10 ng/μL of *S. rosetta* RNA (Total RNA after

removing mRNAs) to account for any matrix effects.

cDNA preparation. Samples from slow swimmer or thecate cultures were pelleted and lysed

using the preferential lysis protocol, and total RNA was purified by RNeasy MinElute Cleanup

Kit (Qiagen, Cat. No. 74204). cDNA was prepared by SuperScript IV Reverse Transcriptase

(Thermo FIsher, Cat. No. 18090010) following the provided protocol using oligo $d(T)_{20}$ for

synthesis. However, the incubation temperature for cDNA synthesis was increased to 60°C to

account for the high GC content of the *S. rosetta* genome.

qPCR. 3 μl of cDNA samples or ssDNA standards were added to a 20μl reaction with Luna

Universal qPCR Master Mix (NEB, Cat, No. M3003) according to the provided protocol. The

samples were amplified in a single run on the QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System (Thermo

Fisher, Cat. No. A28567).

Genome editing

Culturing cells for transfection. Mutant strains were generated with a modified protocol from a

previously published method[25]. Cultures of *S. rosetta* slow swimmers were maintained in 15%

RA/2% PYG (called 15/2, Table S1) at 22°C, and 48 hours prior to transfection, cultures were

seeded at 10^4 cells/mL in 80 mL of 15/2 Media in 300 cm^2 vented tissue culture flasks (VWR,

Cat. No. 10062-884) and grown at 22°C.

Cas9 RNP preparation. On the day of transfection, Cas9 bound to a guide RNA (Cas9 RNP)

was prepared by combining 2 μL of 100 μM guide RNA (gRNA) with 2 μL of 20 μM EnGen

SpyCas9 NLS (NEB, Cat. No. M0646T), and incubated at room temperature for 2-4 hours.

(Note: Our gRNA was ordered as synthetic RNA oligonucleotides from Integrated DNA

Technologies that came as an Alt-R CRISPR-Cas9 crRNA and an Alt-R CRISPR-Cas9

tracrRNA. These two oligonucleotides were annealed together to form gRNA).

Transfection. During the Cas9 RNP incubation, cells were harvested for transfection by

centrifuging the cultured cells at 2400xg for 3 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded,

and cells were resuspended in 50 mL of Cell Wash Buffer (420 mM NaCl; 50 mM $MgCl_2$; 30 mM

Na_2SO_4; 10 mM KCl; titrated to pH 8.0 with ~2.4 mM $NaHCO_3$). The cells were centrifuged again

at 2400xg and 4°C for 3 minutes. The supernatant was removed, and the pellet was

resuspended in 100 μL of Cell Wash Buffer. Cells were counted and diluted to $5x10^7$ cells/mL,

split into 100 μL aliquots, and centrifuged for 2 min at 800xg and room temperature. The

supernatant was removed and replaced with 100 μL priming buffer (40 mM HEPES-KOH, pH

7.5; 34 mM Lithium Citrate; 15% (w/v) PEG 8000; 50 mM Cysteine; 1.5 μM Papain). Cells were

primed for 45 minutes at room temperature. Afterwards, the priming was quenched with 10 µL of
50 mg/mL bovine serum albumin. The primed cells were centrifuged at 1200xg for 4 min at
room temperature. After removing the supernatant, the cells were resuspended in 25 µL ice cold
SF buffer (Lonza Cat. No. V4SC-2096). Nucelofection reactions were prepared by combining 16
µL ice cold SF buffer, 4 µL Cas9 RNP, 2 µL of repair oligo, and 2 µL of the resuspended and
primed cells. This reaction mix was loaded into a 96-well nucleofection plate (Lonza Cat. No.
AAF-1003S, AAF-1003B), and pulsed with CU 154 (Fig. S4). 100 µL of ice cold recovery buffer
(10 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.5; 900 mM Sorbitol; and 8% (w/v) PEG 8000) was added
immediately to each pulsed well and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature. Afterwards
the entire content from each nucleofection well was transferred into 2 mL of 15/2 Media with the
addition of 50 µg/mL *E. pacifica* pellet.

Strain isolation and Screening

We adapted the Cas12a DETECTR genotyping assay[97] to screen for cells with desired
mutations from Cas9 genome editing. Following overnight recovery post-nucleofection, cells
were counted and diluted to 45 cells/mL in 10% RA (Table S1) with 50 µg/mL *E. pacifica* pellet
and aliquoted into 96-well plates. Plates were then grown at 27°C for 72 hours to propagate
cells. Afterwards 12 µL from each well was added into 36 µL DNAzol Direct (20 mM potassium
hydroxide; 60% (w/v) PEG 200, pH 13.3-13.7– Note: It is important to test a range of pH values
to establish the optimal pH for your own use)[25] that was pre-aliquoted into 96-well PCR plates,
which we called the lysed sample. The lysed samples were then incubated at 80°C for 10
minutes. The target DNA was amplified in PCR reactions prepared with GoTaq Clear Master Mix
(Promega, Cat. No. M7123) using 2 µL of the lysed samples per 25 µL PCR reaction. Cycling
conditions followed Promega guidelines and melt temperatures for oligos were calculated using
(https://www.promega.com/resources/tools/biomath/tm-calculator/). During the PCR, a Cas12a
mastermix was assembled in two parts: First, Cas12a RNP: (13 µl water; 2 µl r2.1 buffer [NEB,
Cat. No. B6002S]; 2.5 µl 100 µM gRNA [ordered as a synthesized oligo]; 2 µl 100 µM
LbaCas12a [NEB, Cat. No. M0653T]) was incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature.
Second, the Cas12a RNP was combined with the rest of the components (for one 96-well plate:
486 µl water; 60 µl r2.1 buffer; 18 µl Cas12a RNP; 36 µl 5 µM ssDNA probe [IDT, Cat. No.
11-04-02-03]) and then incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature. 5 µL of the mastermix was
added to each 25 µL PCR and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour. The fluorescent signal was then
measured in the VIC channel on a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System. Wells with high
signal (≥10-fold above background) were recovered in 25% RA overnight at 27°C, counted,

diluted to 3 cells/mL in 10% RA with 50 µg/mL *E. pacifica* pellet, and plated in a 96-well plate

with 100 µL/well, which corresponds to 0.3 cells/well. Plates were grown at 27°C for 72-96

hours. Finally, these clonal isolates were screened by digesting amplicons with a restriction

enzyme (RE). 12 µl per isolate was added to 36 µl DNAzol, incubated at 80°C to make a lysed

sample. 2 µl of the lysed samples were added to 25 µl PCR reactions with GoTaq Green

mastermix (Promega, Cat. No. M7123). After amplification, 1 µl of RE was added to each 25 µl

PCR reaction, and incubated following manufacturers' protocols. RE digestions were run on 1%

agarose gels with wild-type or undigested controls. For positive RE digestion hits, PCR products

were Sanger sequenced to confirm the sequence of the edited site.

Growth curves

S. rosetta. We monitored cell density at times points over 48 hours to assess the population

dynamics of wild type and *cytb561^{PTS}* thecates in iron utilization assay conditions. Cells were

plated in 24-well plates with 100 µM ferric EDTA or ferric colloids sources in 4% PG or in

nutrient replete media (25% RA) as a control. At each time point, the entire contents of one well

was harvested by scraping the bottom and then transferring the liquid to a microfuge tube. Cells

were fixed with 5 µl of 37.5% paraformaldehyde (PFA) and then counted on a Reichert

Bright-Line Metallized Hemacytometer (Hausser Scientific, Cat. No. 1483). Growth curves were

fit to a logistic growth equation that explicitly models the lag time with a heaviside step function[9].

E. pacifica growth curves were set up in 4% PG media inoculated with 50 µg/mL iron-limited *E.*

pacifica pellet and a ferric EDTA titration in clear bottom 96-well plates, and grown for 48 hours

at 27°C. Growth was assessed by monitoring the optical density at 600 nm on a plate reader

with orbital shaking before every reading. Ferric colloids were not included in the growth curves

as iron particulates would shift optical density readings. To assess *E. pacifica* growth with ferric

colloids, 4% PG media was inoculated with 50 µg/mL iron-limited *E. pacifica* pellet and 100 µM

ferric EDTA or ferric colloids in 6-well plates and grown for 48 hours at 27°C. Wells were

scraped and 1 mL aliquots were centrifuged at 500xg for 2 minutes to settle iron particulates.

The top 500 µl of supernatant was gathered for measuring the optical density at 600 nm.

Immunofluorescence

545 Cultures of wild-type and ALFA-tagged strains were maintained in 25% RA at 18°C for thecates

546 and 22°C for slow swimmers, as higher temperatures helped to maintain slow swimmers. 24

547 hours prior to imaging, cultures were seeded at 10^4 cells/mL in 6 mL of 25% RA in 25cm^2 vented

548 tissue culture flasks (VWR Cat. No. 10062-874) and grown at 27°C. On the day of imaging, prior

to preparing cells, 50 µl of 10 mg/mL Poly D-lysine hydrobromide (MP Biomedicals, Cat. No. 102694) was added to each well of a glass bottom 96-well plate (Thermo Scientific, Cat. No. 165305) and incubated for ≥15 min at room temperature. To prepare cells, the supernatant of thecate cultures was decanted, and replaced with 6 mL filtered ASW, then scraped with a cell scraper, and centrifuged at 500xg for 5 minutes at room temperature. For swimmer cultures, the cells were centrifuged 500xg for 5 minutes at room temperature. The supernatant removed leaving 0.5 mL remaining, and resuspended in 5 mL filtered ASW and centrifuged 500xg for 5 min at room temperature. Both thecate and swimmer cultures follow the same protocol henceforth. The supernatant was removed, leaving 0.5 mL, and the tubes gently swirled to resuspend cells. The poly D-lysine coated wells were washed 3 times with 50 µl ASW, and then 50-100 µl of cells were added to each well using wide-bore pipette tips. Cells settled on the well surface for 15 minutes. All subsequent steps use gel loading tips. After settlement, the supernatant was removed leaving 25 µl behind to avoid drying and damaging delicate cell structures. 70 µl of Fix buffer (10 mM MES-KOH, pH 6.1; 138 mM KCl; 3 mM $MgCl_2$; 2 mM EGTA; 3% (v/v) PFA; 15% (w/v) sucrose) was slowly added to the top of each well and incubated for 5 min at room temperature. 70 µl of supernatant was removed from the opposite side from which solution was added. This will be referred to as a "wash". Next, wells were washed with Fix/tween buffer (Fix buffer with the addition of 0.07% (v/v) Tween-20) and incubated for 5 min at room temperature. Wells were then washed with a quench buffer (10 mM MES-KOH, pH 6.1; 138 mM KCl; 3 mM $MgCl_2$; 2 mM EGTA; 15% (w/v) sucrose; 0.3M glycine) and washed immediately with Permeabilization-MeOH buffer (8% (v/v) MeOH; 1% (v/v) Tween-20; in LICOR Intercept Blocking Buffer [LI-COR Biosciences Cat. No. 927-70001]) and incubated for 15 minutes. (Note: LICOR Intercept Blocking buffer increased detection of AFLA epitopes during testing.) After, wells were washed with Permeabilization buffer (1% (v/v) Tween-20; LICOR Intercept Blocking Buffer) and then washed twice in antibody mix (1:200 FluoTag-X2 anti-ALFA Alexa647 [Nanotag, Cat No. N1502-AF647-L]; 1:200 phalloidin Alexa546 [Invitrogen, Cat. No. A22283]; 1:500 alpha Tubulin Monoclonal Antibody, DM1A [Invitrogen, Cat. No. 62204]; 1:500 alpaca anti-mouse IgG1, recombinant VHH, Alexa488 [Chromotek, Cat. No. sms1AF488-1]) diluted in the Permeabilization buffer and incubated for 1 hour protected from light. Afterwards, wells were washed twice with PEM (100 mM PIPES-KOH, pH 6.9; 1 mM EGTA; 1 mM MgSO4) and immediately imaged.

Microscopy

Samples were imaged by widefield microscopy. The microscope was a Nikon Eclipse Ti2-E inverted microscope outfitted with a D-LEDI light source, Chroma 89401 Quad Filter Cube, and 60x CFI Plan Apo VC NA1.2 water immersion objective. Z-stacks of samples were imaged with two-fold binning (120 µm/pixel) on a Nikon Digital Sight 50 M Camera with 100-400 msec exposure times for each channel and variable illumination intensities to extend the dynamic range of signal without photobleaching samples. Images were processed in FIJI by cropping individual cells in 150x200 pixel bounds, projecting the maximal intensity, subtracting the background (75 pixel, sliding paraboloid radius), enhancing the contrast (saturation 0.02% of the pixels), and applying a minimum filter of 0.5 pixels. Merged images were combined using maximum intensity composite.

Western blots

Cultures were grown in 25% RA or 4% PG (without supplemented iron) for 24 hours at 27°C to test whether external iron conditions (replete or deplete) resulted in any post-translational regulation of protein expression. Cultures were scraped and then lysed according to the preferential lysis protocol, with the following modifications: TurboDNase and SUPERasein were replaced with 15 µl of Pierce universal nuclease (Thermo Scientific Cat. No. 88702) per 1mL buffer, and heparin and cycloheximide were removed. After clearing the lysate, Tween-20 was added to a final concentration of 1% (v/v), and the sample was incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature to aid in liberating membrane-bound proteins. Protein concentration was determined by Bradford assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat. No. 23236) and samples were normalized to the lowest concentration. To prepare for SDS-PAGE, approximately 20 µg or 40 µg of total protein for thecates or slow swimmers, respectively, was denatured with 4x Laemmli SDS loading buffer and incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature (Note: 80°C caused membrane proteins to crash out, so room temperature incubation was essential). Samples were loaded into a Novex wedgewell 10% Tris-Glycine Mini Gel (Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat. No. XP00105BOX) along with a 1:10 diluted PageRuler Plus Prestained Protein Ladder (Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat. No. 26619). Gels were run at 225 V for 30 minutes, and afterwards the gel was transferred to a 0.45 µM nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-rad Cat. No. 1620115) at 50 V for 30 minutes, then 100 V for 60 minutes in transfer buffer (25 mM tris base; 192mM glycine; 10% methanol) at 4°C. Afterwards the membrane was stained with total protein stain (LI-COR Biosciences Cat. No. 926-11010) and then imaged in the 700 nm channel with a 30 second exposure on a LI-COR Odysey Fc. Afterwards, the membrane was blocked in LICOR Intercept

Blocking Buffer (LI-COR Biosciences Cat. No. 927-70001) for 1 hour at 37°C and then overnight

at 4°C. The following day the membrane was immunostained with FluoTag-X2 anti-ALFA

LI-COR IRDye 800CW (NanoTag Biotechnologies Cat. No. N1502-Li800-L) diluted 1:10,000 in

LI-COR PBS block plus 0.2% Tween-20 for 2 hours at room temperature. (Note: Both the

LI-COR PBS block and anti-ALFA IRDye 800CW were essential for visualization, other blocks

and fluorophores lead to significantly lower signal.) The membrane was washed 3x in PBST

(PBS with 0.2% Tween-20) and then imaged in the 800 nm channel with a 10 minute exposure.

This western protocol was adapted from a previous study[91].

Protein database searches and tree construction

We compiled a list of iron acquisition proteins from these model organisms: *Homo sapiens*[22],

Saccharomyces cerevisiae[26], *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*[21], *Arabadopsis thaliana*[98], and

Phaeodactylum tricornutum[19]. For each protein, we retrieved the corresponding Pfam hidden

markov model (HMM) from Interpro (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/)[99]. Using HMMER v3.4

(hmmer.org[100]), we searched proteomes from EukProt v3[101], focusing on proteomes from "The

Comparative Set" (TCS), which consisted of 196 species of phylogenetic relevance with high

BUSCO completion. We supplemented the TCS with the transcriptomes of 18 choanoflagellate

species[33] and other Holozoa and Fungi. To count the number of unique proteins that conformed

to the HMM profile from 'hmmsearch', we aligned hits with 'hmmalign' and retained only one

sequence from hits with >99% identity (Note: this was important for removing multiple isoforms

and reference sequences from highly annotated genomes). We additionally filtered hits based

on length with 'esl-alimanip' to retain protein sequences that only possessed the HMM profile,

which eliminated multidomain proteins that only had the HMM profile as a one of its domains

(Table S3 for length filter thresholds). (Note: The number of hits prior to filtering can be found in

Table S3) For HMM profiles that yielded a high number of protein hits that were not well-filtered

(e.g. Transferrin Receptor), we aligned sequences with MAFFT-DASH[40], removed sites that

were uninformative or contained 90% gaps with ClipKIT[102] (kpic-gappy 0.9), and generated

phylogenetic trees with IQ-TREE[103] using ModelFinder[104] to choose the appropriate substitution

model for each set of protein alignments. This procedure was also used to determine the

phylogenetic relationships of Cytb561 paralogs (Fig. 4A), and the chosen substitution model

was LG+F+R7. Trees were visualized with iTOL[105].

Gene distribution maps and correlations with upwellings.

***cytb561* paralog search.** The abundance and location of *S. rosetta* cytb561 paralogs was searched for using the Ocean Gene Atlas[47,48]. Protein sequences of each paralog from *S. rosetta* were searched for in the MATOUv1+G (for metagenomes) and MATOUv1+T (for metatranscriptomes) databases, using tblastn with the following search parameters: expected threshold E-values < 1^{-10}, and abundance as percent of total reads. The Ocean Gene Atlas automatically assigns protein sequences to phyla and classifies them on expected organism size, such that the results could be filtered first by size (0.8-5 μm) and then by phyla to identify only choanoflagellate specific hits. Therefore to identify choanoflagellate specific hits and the location they were gathered from, three tables were gathered from each search: the distribution of E-values (E-values per hit and their assigned phyla), abundance matrix for the 0.8-5 μm fraction (the abundance as a fraction of total reads and the sample site ID for each hit), and environmental parameters for the 0.8-5 μm fraction (all measured and inferred environmental measurements for each hits sample location). From these three tables, choanoflagellate assigned hits, abundances, and sample locations were compiled.

Upwelling velocities. To identify average vertical velocities at the sample sites from the Tara Oceans Expedition[106], from which the Ocean Gene Atlas acquires its data, upward seawater velocities were gathered from the Copernicus Marine Services' Global Ocean Physics Analysis and Forecast model's (https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00016) dataset (cmems_mod_glo_phy-wcur_anfc_0.083deg_P1M-m). The coordinates for each sample site were compiled[106] and vertical velocities were gathered from the dates 10/31/2020 - 5/20/2024. Then the search was done using a modified script offered by the Copernicus Marine Services (https://help.marine.copernicus.eu/en/articles/7970637-how-to-download-data-for-multiple-points-from-a-csv). The vertical velocity at each sample site was then averaged across the 3.5 year range to account for temporal variation (Fig. S8B).

Correlations and maps. Choanoflagellate paralog abundances were tabulated with their sample site ID, sample coordinates, and average upwelling velocity (from above). First, the abundances and average vertical velocities were correlated by the Pearson function in Microsoft Excel. To calculate the associated *P* value for each Pearson correlation, a T statistic was calculated using the formula: $t = (r \bullet [n\text{-}2]^{\frac{1}{2}}) \bullet (1\text{--}r^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, where *r* is the calculated Pearson correlation, *n* is the sample number, *t* is the T statistic. This statistic was then input into the t distribution function (TDIST) in Excel, along with the degrees of freedom (*n*-2), to calculate the *P* values. Next, the abundances and average vertical velocities were plotted in a scatter plot to manually inspect the data for outliers. If a datum was suspected of being an outlier, a Dixon's Q

test was conducted for that datum with the formula: $Q = |gap|/range,$ where gap = the difference

between the suspected outlier and the next nearest datum, and range = the range of the data

set. The value is considered an outlier and removed if $Q > Q_{table}$, where Q_{table} is a reference

value determined by the sample size and confidence level. Of all tested outliers, only one datum

was removed, belonging to *cytb561a* transcript abundance at TARA site 52 (-16.96°, 53.99°),

with a Q = 0.8718 and where Q_{table} = 0.3323 for 99% confidence level for a sample size of 33.

Without this outlier removed the statistics for *cytb561a*'s correlation would be r = 0.09 and *P* =

0.58. Maps were plotted with the compiled table of paralog abundances and coordinates, using

matplotlib with modified scripts generated by ChatGPT (https://chat.openai.com).

Data Availability:

RNA sequencing data is available in the public repository NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database under requisition ID: GSE267344

Author Contributions:

FL and DSB conceived of the project, designed experiments, conducted research, performed data analysis, and wrote the manuscript. JMEE and VD generated strains and developed the genotyping pipeline. MCC and SE performed an early analysis of RNA-seq data.

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Figures:

Figure 1: Thecates from the choanoflagellate *S. rosetta* are a distinct cell type.

(A) *S. rosetta* differentiates into morphologically distinct cell types. This schematic shows four of the cell types from *S. rosetta* that were stably cultured to produce transcriptome profiles. All of these cell types display the common choanoflagellate cell architecture in which an apical flagellum is encircled by a collar of actin-filled microvilli (indicated on the slow swimmer) that enables choanoflagellates to phagocytose bacteria and particulate matter. In the study, the only provided prey bacterium was *E. pacifica.* When nutrients are abundant, slow swimmers (green) respond to bacterial and algal cues to develop into multicellular rosettes (blue) that form by serial cell division. Cultures of slow swimmers also form chains of cells through serial cell divisions, but those chains are easily disrupted by mechanical force. Under starvation, slow swimmers and rosettes become fast swimmers (grey), which have a reduced cell body and collar with a longer flagellum. Under sustained nutrient deprivation, fast swimmers differentiate into thecates (red), a type of cell that adheres to substrates by constructing an extracellular apparatus called a theca. Thecates still proliferate in low nutrient conditions by dividing into swimmers that build their own theca. By taking the supernatant of thecate cultures in high nutrient conditions, thecates can then differentiate into slow swimmers.

(B) The transcriptome profile of thecates stands apart from all other cell types. A principal component analysis of triplicate RNA-seq profiles from each cell type (panel A) shows that the 86% of the variance between samples is attributed to the thecate transcriptome profile. All other cell types cluster closely together.

(C) Genes with increased expression in thecates encode proteins that mediate signal transduction, nutrient acquisition, and gene regulation. Genes with transcript abundances that reliably ($q < 0.01$) changed more than two-fold in thecates were analyzed for the enrichment of Gene Ontology (GO) categories, focusing on GO molecular function categories (y-axis). Genes that were upregulated in thecates and associated with an enriched GO molecular function category were counted (x-axis). Each bar on the graph is colored by the *P*-value, which reflects the probability that a given category was represented by a random selection of genes from the *S. rosetta* genome.

Figure 2: Thecates utilize ferric colloids through the expression of an iron reductase, *cytb561a.*

(A) Thecates highly express an iron reductase. The transcript abundances (counts) from thecates were divided by the abundances from slow swimmers samples and $\log_2$ transformed

(x-axis) and the *P*-values for gene expression comparisons were corrected for multiple

comparisons (*q*, y-axis). Among the genes with transcript abundances that reliably (*q* < 0.01)

changed more than two-fold in thecates (red) compared to swimmers (green), PTSG_09715 is

in the 98th percentile. This gene, which is annotated as an iron reductase, encodes a single

domain: cytochrome b561 (Pfam 03188).

(B) A method to swap iron sources that support choanoflagellate growth. In preparation for iron

limitation assays, *S. rosetta* was passaged in low-nutrient media and depleted of iron. Cells

were then washed multiple times and inoculated with iron-limited feeder bacteria. At the same

time, ferric EDTA (Fe^{3+}•EDTA) or ferric colloids (Fe^{3+}) were provided. Cultures grew for 48 hours

at 27°C before assaying *cytb561a* expression (Fig. 2C and S2) and growth (Figs. 2D and S4)

(C) *Cytb561a* expression is part of the thecate regulon, and not determined by external iron

conditions. The expression of *cytb561a* was monitored by RT-qPCR in cultures of slow

swimmers (green) or thecates (red) that were grown with either ferric EDTA or ferric colloids.

The expression of *cytb561* was normalized to *cofilin* (PTSG_01554), a eukaryotic gene that

displays high, consistent expression across all *S. rosetta* cell types. Independent triplicates were

performed and *P*-values were calculated from a two-way ANOVA.

(D) Thecates require *cytb561* for increased proliferation with ferric colloids. To account for

different growth parameters between slow swimmers (green) and thecates (red), the cell density

of cultures grown with ferric colloids was normalized to those grown with ferric EDTA. With this

metric, a ratio greater than one indicates that the cell type displays increased growth with ferric

colloids; whereas, a ratio less than one indicates the converse. A premature termination

sequence introduced at position 151 in *cytb561* with CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing produced a

mutant allele (*cytb561^{PTS}*) with a ten-fold reduction in *cytb561a* mRNA levels and stop codons

that would truncate the protein translated from this transcript (Fig. S2 and Table 2). Unlike the

wild-type strain (circles), thecate cells with *cytb561a^{PTS}* displayed no improved growth with ferric

colloids (triangles).

Figure 3: Choanoflagellates and animals share core iron acquisition genes.

(A) Distribution of iron acquisition proteins across diverse eukaryotes. Iron acquisition proteins

characterized in model eukaryotes were compiled into a list to search a curated database of

proteomes predicted from the genomes and/or transcriptomes of diverse eukaryotes. The iron

acquisition proteins are sorted into these categories from the top to bottom rows: transporters,

reductases, oxidases, iron storage, and sharing/binding. Each column indicates a single

species, and major eukaryotic lineages are denoted by color. The number of unique protein hits identified in each species is shown in greyscale.

(B) Cell-type expression of iron acquisition genes identified *S. rosetta* cell types. Gene names are presented as accession numbers and newly denoted gene names, based on their homology with animal iron acquisition genes. Expression values are averaged triplicate values of transcripts per million (TPM) from cell type transcriptomes (Fig. 1). Of all genes and paralogs, *cytb561a* exhibits the most striking differential regulation.

(C) The localization of iron acquisition proteins in thecates and slow swimmers. An ALFA epitope was engineered into endogenous genetic loci at the carboxy terminus of the protein coding sequences. Although this tag was engineered into all iron acquisition genes (except the vacuolar transporters), only the proteins displayed in this panel were visible in western blots (Fig. S7). Immunofluorescent staining of each ALFA-tagged strain was performed with tubulin and phalloidin to serve as markers of the cellular architecture. Note that in slow swimmers, Cytb561a has no detectable expression, consistent with transcript abundance. Images of individual cells are representative of more than three independent staining experiments in which six or more images were captured of fields containing more than ten cells. Scale bar is 5 μm.

(D) Diagram of the proposed iron acquisition pathway in *S. rosetta*. Iron is internalized by phagocytic vesicles derived at the base of the collar. Inside, Cytb561a reduces iron for transport into the cytosol by Dmt1. Iron is then metabolized, incorporated, and utilized as needed by the cell. To maintain iron homeostasis, Fpn exports iron out of the cell, and Heph aids in maintaining a favorable concentration gradient for export.

Figure 4: Cytb561 paralogs possess distinct biochemical properties and appear at different oceanic locations.

(A) Phylogeny of iron reductases reveals Cytb561a is an ortholog of animal DCYTB. Each paralog of *S. rosetta* falls into distinct clades of cytochrome b561. Circles on each branch are proportional to bootstrap values greater than sixty. Scale bar indicates the average number of substitutions per site. Branch colors correspond to clades as shown in the legend.

(B) Predicted structures of paralogs show differences in the substrate-binding interface. Predicted electrostatic surfaces from AlphaFold predictions of Cytb561 paralogs show different charge distributions around the substrate binding pocket. Structure models angled 30° for viewing

(C) *cytb561a* transcript abundance correlates with marine upwellings. Maps (left panels) show the genomic (grey) and transcript (blue) abundance of each paralog. Plots show genomic

819 (middle panels) and transcript (right panels) abundance on the y-axis and average upwelling
820 velocities on the x-axis. Note, the x-axis for *cytb561c* transcript abundance is scaled differently
821 than for *cytb561a* and *cytb561b*. *r* indicates Pearson correlation and *P*-values were calculated
822 from a t-test.

Figure 1: Thecates from the choanoflagellate *S. rosetta* are a distinct cell type.

Figure 2: Thecates utilize ferric colloids through the expression of an iron reductase, *cytb561a*.

Figure 3: Choanoflagellates and animals share core iron acquisition genes.

Figure 4: Cytb561 paralogs possess distinct biochemical properties and appear at different oceanic locations.

Supplemental Figures:

Figure S1. A preferential lysis buffer enriches RNA from *S. rosetta* to improve transcriptomes.

(A) A schematic showing the separation of *S. rosetta* RNA from *E. pacifica* RNA.

(B) The preferential lysis procedure enriches RNA from *S. rosetta*. After performing preferential lysis, RNA was purified from the supernatant using Trizol LS reagent. The RNA from the pellet of preferential lysis, an unlysed sample of *S. rosetta* feeding on *E. pacifica*, or a sample of *E. pacifica* was purified with Trizol LS. The purified RNA samples were combined with an equal volume of formamide and incubated at 95°C for 5 minutes. After cooling to room temperature, the samples were run on a 2% (w/v) agarose gel in TBE buffer at 100 V. Afterwards, the gel was stained with SYBR Gold to detect RNA. In the gel, the supernatant (S) from whole lysates (W) mostly contains *S. rosetta* rRNA (28S and 18S); the pellet (P) contains E. pacifica rRNA (23S and 16S).

(C) Total RNA prepared for RNA-seq primarily contains rRNA from *S. rosetta.* Bioanalyzer traces with predicted prokaryotic and eukaryotic rRNA subunit sizes indicated. Replicate RNA samples used for sequencing demonstrate little to no carryover from bacterial contamination, as shown by the low amount of 16S and 23S rRNA.

Figure S2: Validated qPCR primers confirm the disruption of *cytb561a* expression with the *cytb561a^PTS^* allele.

(A) qPCR primers for *cytb561a* and *cofilin* produce a single amplicon. Gel image of PCR products using qPCR primers designed for *cytb561a* and *cofilin*. Note the diminished band from swimmer cDNA likely resulted from lower mRNA copies from slow swimmer cultures, as shown in Fig. 2C. Shadow at 75 bp is bleed-over from loading dye.

(B) Standard curve for qPCR primers for *cytb561a*. To generate a standard curve, a serial dilution of ssDNA standards was performed in triplicate. The concentration of the ssDNA standard was determined by Qubit. Cycle thresholds (Ct) were converted to transcript copy number by fitting a linear equation to the standard curve. This curve was used to determine the abundance of transcripts from three independent experiments.

(C) Standard curve for qPCR primers for *cofilin*. The graph is laid out as for panel B.

(D) *Cytb561a^PTS^* exhibits lowered *cytb561a* expression compared to wild-type thecates. We compared the normalized expression of *cytb561a* from the strain bearing the *cytb561a^PTS^* allele to wild-type strains. The wild-type strains were slow swimmers cultured with ferric EDTA or

thecates cultured with ferric colloids, for we anticipated that these two conditions would result in
the greatest difference in *cytb561a* expression.

Figure S3: *S. rosetta* cell types, but not their feeder bacteria, grow differently with variable iron
sources.

(A) Thecate cell types exhibit differential growth with low concentrations of ferric colloids
compared to slow swimming cell types. *S. rosetta* cell density of slow swimmer and thecate
cultures when grown with titrations of ferric EDTA or ferric colloids.

(B) A variety of ferric chelates differentially impact *S. rosetta* growth. Slow swimmers and
thecates exhibit different growth characteristics, so to better compare their growth with iron
bound to different chelators, we used a ratio of the final cell density of cultures grown with
iron-chelator complexes to the final cell density of cultures grown without any supplemental iron.
With this metric, a ratio greater than one indicates that the cell type displays increased growth
with the iron-chelator complex; whereas, a ratio less than one indicates the converse. All
conditions were tested at 100 µM Fe^{3+}, and pyoverdines and deferroxamine are bacterial
siderophores.

(C) *E. pacifica* feeder bacteria growth is easily rescued by low concentrations of iron. Optical
density at 600 nm (OD600) of *E. pacifica* measured approximately every 100 minutes for 48
hours. Note standard deviations overlap for all conditions except for a no iron control.

(D) *E. pacifica* grows similarly with ferric EDTA or ferric colloids. Because ferric colloids would
influence OD600 measurements in a standard growth curve experiment, *E. pacifica* cultures
were grown for 48 hours with 100 µM ferric EDTA or ferric colloids and then lightly centrifuged at
500xg for 2 minutes at room temperature to settle iron particulates. Afterwards, the supernatant
OD600 was measured.

(E) Ferric colloids release a small amount of labile iron. When media is prepared with 100 µM
ferric colloids, only 3.43 ± 1.01 µM iron is liberated without biological activity. The amount of iron
in 4% PG media alone was 0.27 ± 0.036 µM iron.

Figure S4: A screen for optimal nucleofection pulses to improve cargo delivery into *S. rosetta*.
(A) Nanoluc luminescence values from *S. rosetta* cultures transfected with different pulse codes.
Because of changes to the growth media for *S. rosetta*, we conducted a new screen for an
optimal nucleofection pulse. Cells were transfected with a plasmid that drives nanoluc
expression with a promoter cloned from elongation factor L. Pulse codes correspond to Lonza

4D-Nucleofector codes. The screen was performed in four independent trials. Dot indicates prior

pulse code used, asterisk denotes optimized pulse code.

(B) Re-ordered chart of luciferase activity from the pulse screen reveals the landscape to

optimize nucleofection pulses. After the first two trials for screening pulses, we hypothesized

that the letter and number codes for the nucleofection system are orthogonal parameters, so we

selected pulses for the third and fourth trials to more broadly sample the optimization landscape.

The maximum luminescence value for each pulse from one of the four trials was used to

visualize transfection efficiency as a function of the letter codes (x-axis) or pulse numbers

(y-axis). Dot indicates prior pulse code used, asterisk denotes optimized pulse code.

Figure S5: Thecates grow slight faster and to a larger population size with ferric colloids

(A-C) Growth curves of wild type and $cytb561a^{PTS}$ thecates show wild type thecates grow to a

larger population size when grown with ferric colloids. Growth curves of cultures grown in (A)

nutrient replete conditions (25% RA), (B) 4% PG with ferric EDTA, and (C) 4% PG with ferric

colloids. Cell densities were counted every 6 hours for 48 hours.

(D-F) Comparisons of growth curve parameters highlight the increase in carrying capacity as the

main factor for higher wild type thecate cell type growth with ferric colloids. (D) Carrying

capacity, (E) doubling time, and (F) lag time of the growth curves shown in figures (S5B) and

(S5C).

Figure S6: Simplified iron acquisition pathways in model eukaryotes.

(A) Mammals. Dietary iron is absorbed by the epithelium of the gut. Ferric cations are reduced

and imported at the apical end of epithelial cells. Ferrous cations are exported and oxidized at

the basal end into the bloodstream. Ferric cations are bound to transferrin in the bloodstream

and distributed to other cells in the body by receptor mediated endocytosis when transferrin

binds to the transferrin receptor.

(B) *Saccharomyces cerevisiae.* In the main iron import pathway, ferric cations are reduced, then

oxidized, and finally imported in its ferric form for increased substrate specificity. In a minor

secondary pathway ferrous cations can be imported in its reduced form by a low affinity

importer. Iron is stored intracellularly in vacuoles, via another iron specific transporter.

(C) *Phaeodactylum tricornutum.* Ferric cations can be reduced directly and imported, but they

can also be directly bound by phytotransferrin and endocytosed.

(D) *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii.* Ferric cations are first reduced, then oxidized, and finally imported in its ferric form for increased substrate specificity. Iron can also be directly bound by phytotransferrin, which is thought to be released into the periplasm.

Figure S7: Thecates detectably express Cytb561a, Fpn, and Heph in western blots.
(A) Western blot of thecates cultures of ALFA-tagged strains, grown in nutrient rich media (25% RA) and iron depleted media (4% PG). Strains are named after the ALFA-tagged gene.
(B) Western blot of swimmer cultures of alfa-tagged strains, grown in nutrient rich media (25% RA) and iron depleted media (4% PG). Arrow indicates faint Fpn band visible only in the 25% RA condition. The expression of Fpn in media with high iron concentrations and the lack of expression in low iron media is consistent with Fpn regulating homeostatic iron levels through post-transcriptional regulation.

Figure S8: Maps of marine upwelling velocities show increased upwelling near coastlines and the equator
(A) Global upwelling velocities at 100m depth averaged over a three year span, measured every 10° latitude and longitude. Missing values are due to shallow locations or landmasses.
(B) Upwelling velocities at 100m depth averaged over a three year span at every location sampled during the Tara Oceans Expeditions.

Table S1: Media table
Components and recipes for all media used: 5% seawater complete (SWC0, 10% cereal grass media (CGM3), 10% red algae (RA), 25% red algae (RA), 15% red algae, 2% peptone, yeast extract, glycerol (15/2), and 4% peptone, glycerol (PG).

Table S2: Strains, crRNAs, repair templates, and primers used in this study
The strains of *S. rosetta* used and created during this study, along with the crRNAs, repair templates, Cas12a screening gRNAs, and screening primers for generating each strain.

Table S3: List of paralog hits for each gene family and tabulation of number of hits per organism.
The Pfam ID of each HMM used to search for paralogs, along with the associated protein names used in Fig. 3A, and the length filtering criteria used, when applicable. The next sheet contains paralog hits filtered for uniqueness and length, which is the raw data used in Fig. 3A.

955 The last sheet is the same paralog heatmap, but without the additional length filtering, resulting
956 in more hits per proteome. Colors of species match Fig. 3A, as does the protein order.

Figure S1. A preferential lysis buffer enriches RNA from *S. rosetta* to improve transcriptomes.

Figure S2: Validated qPCR primers confirm the disruption of *cytb561a* expression with the *cytb561a^{PTS}* allele.

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Figure S5: Thecates grow slight faster and to a larger population size with ferric colloids

Figure S6: Simplified iron acquisition pathways in model eukaryotes.

1. Divalent Metal Transporter
2. Zinc Transporter
3. Iron Transporter
4. Iron Permease
5. Ferroportin
6. Cytochrome B561
7. Cytochrome B245
8. Ferroxidase Type 1
9. Ferroxidase Type 2
10. Ferritin
11. Vacuolar Iron Transport
12. Phytotransferrin
13. Transferrin
14. Transferrin Receptor

A

Thecates

B

Swimmers

Figure S7: Thecates detectably express Cytb561a, Fpn, and Heph in western blots.

A **Global Upwellings at 100m depth**

B **Tara Ocean Sample Site Upwellings at 100m depth**

-1.0   -0.5   0   0.5   1.0   x10^{-5}

**Average Upwelling
Velocity (m/s)**

**Figure S8: Maps of marine upwelling velocities show
increased upwelling near coastlines and the equator**

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