Extracellular rRNA profiling reveals the sinking and cell lysis dynamics of marine microeukaryotes

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Abstract

Marine plankton communities consist of numerous species, and their composition and physiological states are closely linked to ecosystem functions. Understanding biogeochemical cycles requires measuring taxon-specific lytic mortality, as the dissolved organic matter released contributes to rapid nutrient recycling and long-term carbon sequestration following microbial transformation. This study introduces a pioneering quantitative and comprehensive analysis of microeukaryotes in the dissolved constituents of seawater by using a cell-free rRNA (cf-rRNA) profiling method. Our experimental pipeline successfully recovered 83% of dissolved rRNA. The ratio of cf-rRNA to cell-associated rRNA was more than 10-fold higher in the mesopelagic layer than in the upper epipelagic layer, suggesting the mesopelagic zone as a hotspot for eukaryotic cell lysis, likely due to viral infections. Many protist lineages, including phytoplankton such as haptophytes, are less susceptible to cell lysis in the epipelagic layer yet are actively lysed in the mesopelagic zone. Notably, over 86% of the significantly lysed species in the mesopelagic layer showed a habitat preference for the epipelagic layer. These findings indicate that sinking from the surface and lysis in the mesopelagic are prevalent dynamics for various eukaryotes, possibly driven by a "viral shuttle."

Introduction

Protists, a diverse group of microscopic eukaryotes, are crucial components of marine ecosystems and biogeochemical cycles, playing roles in food webs, nutrient cycling, and carbon sequestration[1]. Studies on marine ecosystems and biogeochemical cycles have focused on specific lineages, such as diatoms and calcifying haptophytes, which can be distinguished by their microscopic morphology and chemotaxonomic pigment features. Recent studies based on high-throughput sequencing (HTS) have underscored the diversity of eukaryotic plankton, including protozooplankton, and the remarkable contributions of these species to natural assemblages[2,3]. Therefore, elucidating the complex interactions between diverse microorganisms is conducive to understanding marine systems[4,5].

Viruses are important members of marine microbial consortia as they control the abundance and composition of marine organisms via host cell lysis and biomolecule recycling[6]. According to field experiments, viral infection eliminates 20–40% of plankton populations daily[7-9]. Recent studies have uncovered a remarkable heterogeneity of eukaryotic viruses in marine environments, implying that plankton species suffer from environmental viral infections[10-12]. However, utilizing viral abundance and distribution profiles to assess the cell death of each plankton species is currently infeasible as most viruses detected in the environment lack host information.

The plankton mortality due to viral lysis has significant consequences for their biogeochemistry. The lytic processes cause cell contents to be released into the surrounding seawater as dissolved organic matter (DOM; defined as organic matter passing through a 0.2–0.7 μm filter). Besides, sloppy feeding by predators yields similar effects, as it converts large amounts of cell content to DOM[13,14], whereas zooplankton grazing incorporates whole prey cells into the biomass of higher trophic levels[15]. In this study, the term lytic cell degradation (LCD) was used to refer to all forms of DOM-producing mortality. The LCD can boost nutrient recycling on the surface water (a process termed "viral shunt") at the expense of reducing sinking carbon export to the deep ocean (biological carbon pump)[7,16]. Besides, viral infection can also trigger the aggregation and sinking export of infected cells without rupturing the cell walls, which results in the LCD in the deep ocean (a phenomenon known as "viral shuttle")[17-19]. However, the relationship between LCD and biological carbon export remains poorly understood.

Cell-free nucleic acids (DNA and RNA) are key DOM products released by LCD processes[20]. These nucleic acids exist in viral particles, extracellular vesicles, and free nucleotide molecules resulting from cell breakdown or excretion. RNA molecules comprise a major form of DOM that accounts for 60% of the dissolved organic phosphorus (DOP) in seawater, and their concentration exceeds that of DNA by up to 3–10 times[21-23]. Nucleic acids are seldom excreted spontaneously from living cells due to their high content of valuable elements such as nitrogen and phosphorus (C:N:P = 10:4:1)[20,24]. The high bioavailability and low structural stability render cf-RNA a labile DOM with a short half-life (a few hours to several days)[25]. These considerations imply that RNA in the DOM pool is continuously supplied from damaged cells via the LCD. Therefore, it provides information on recent or ongoing cell lysis events caused by viral infection and possibly sloppy feeding by zooplankton.

A recent milestone study demonstrated that viral lysis actively produces extracellular ribosomal RNA (cf-rRNA), which can serve as a proxy to evaluate the top-down control of prokaryotic populations[26]. Remarkably, when combined with HTS, this molecular marker allows for the simultaneous evaluation of the degree of viral lysis for hundreds to thousands of microbial species in an environment without information on virus–host relationships. Nevertheless, extracting sufficient RNA for quantification/sequencing from natural seawater filtrates remains methodologically challenging.

Concentration-based methods, such as tangential flow filtration and ultracentrifugation, are typically used to investigate cell-free nucleic acids in seawater[27,28]. These techniques require considerable time and effort, and the RNA is biased toward a specific molecular size or degraded during handling. A non-condensation method, which employs a lysis buffer and subsequent recovery onto a spin column, was also applied to extract RNA from a small volume (400 µL) of seawater filtrate[26]. However, as this method was explicitly designed for prokaryotic cf-rRNA profiling, it does not apply to eukaryotes due to the low density of eukaryotic cf-RNA, especially in oligotrophic and aphotic environments.

In this study, we established a novel method for extracting cell-free DNA/RNA from a large volume (> 40 mL) of dissolved seawater (filtrate of 0.2 µm pore filter) without concentration treatment. This method recovered > 80% of cf-rRNA, yielding sufficient rRNA pools for abundance and taxonomic analyses of eukaryotes, even from oligotrophic subtropical surface water and deep water characterized by a low density of plankton cells.

This method allowed us to obtain comprehensive profiles of the LCD of eukaryotic

plankton based on cell-associated (living) and cell-free (dead) fractions of rRNA

quantification and metabarcoding (Fig. 1).

Figure 1. The concept of this study. (A) A schematic diagram showing the evaluation of
taxon-specific mortality and vertical difference of microeukaryotes. (B) The
workflow to evaluate the mortality of marine protists by cell-free 18S rRNA
profiling. Abbreviations: EPI, Epipelagic (0–200 m depth); MES, Mesopelagic
(200–1,000 m); DOM, Dissolved organic matter; LCD, Lytic cell degradation
(cell degradation releasing cell contents to seawater); ca-rRNA, Cell-associated
rRNA; cf-rRNA, Cell-free rRNA.

Results

Feasibility of quantitative analysis of cell-free RNA in seawater

The extraction efficiency of RNA was $83.1 \pm 6.5\%$ (mean ± standard deviation, SD)

for the cf-fraction and $21.9 \pm 5.7\%$ (mean ± SD) for the cell-associated fraction (n = 3;

Fig. S1A) as measured by rRNA abundance. We confirmed the linearity of the extraction

volumes from 2.0×10^2 to 2.0×10^6 copy mL^{-1} of rRNA dissolved in seawater (log-log

linear regression: $r^2 = 0.995$, $p < 0.001$, slope = 1.012, n = 15; Fig. S1B).

Hydrographic conditions in the study sites

The study sites were located across the Kuroshio axis (Fig. 2A). Water mass structures

were clearly distinguished between the southern (stations 3 and E1) and northern sites

(stations 5, 6, and 8) using the T–S diagram; northern stations were characterized by lower

surface temperature and salinity (Fig. 2B). Northern stations had relatively higher chlorophyll *a* fluorescence signals than southern stations (Fig. 2C).

Figure 2. Location and environment of the study area. (A) A map of the sampling sites. The background image represents chlorophyll *a* concentration archived from MODIS-Aqua (monthly mean of October 2022, 4 km level 3 product). The dashed arrow indicates the position of the Kuroshio Current obtained from the Japan Coast Guard website (periods between October 10 and 17, 2022). (B) Temperature–salinity (T-S) diagram of all sampling sites. The sampling depths in the epipelagic and mesopelagic are indicated in the white and yellow circles, respectively. (C) Vertical profiles of fluorescence (relative unit of Seapoint chlorophyll fluorometer), seawater density (sigma-T), 18S rRNA abundance in different forms (cell-associated and cell-free fractions), and the abundance ratio of cell-free to cell-associated 18S rRNA (cf-rRNA/ca-rRNA).

Vertical abundance profiles of cell-associated and cell-free 18S rRNA

The abundance of 18S rRNA, as evidenced by ddPCR, varied across forms and depths (Fig. 2C). Cell-associated rRNA represented relatively high values in the euphotic (surface and SCM) layers ($1.05 \pm 0.45 \times 10^5$ copies mL^{-1}, mean $\pm$ SD, n = 10), but lower values in the mesopelagic layers ($7.57 \pm 6.54 \times 10^2$ copies mL^{-1}, n = 5). Cell-free rRNA showed higher values in the euphotic layers ($9.16 \pm 9.05 \times 10^3$ copies mL^{-1}) while lower values in the mesopelagic layers ($6.23 \pm 5.05 \times 10^2$ copies mL^{-1}). The ratio of the absolute abundances of cf-rRNA to ca-rRNA (cf-rRNA/ca-rRNA) ranged between 0.02–0.30 (0.08 on average) and 0.10–2.95 (1.23 on average) in euphotic and in mesopelagic layers, respectively.

Taxonomic composition of cell-associated and cell-free 18S rRNA

After removing rare and non-protist amplicon sequencing variants (ASVs), the sequencing analysis yielded 3,749 protist ASVs. The proportion of protist sequences to the total eukaryotic rRNA reads was 91.9% for cf-rRNA and 93.2% for ca-rRNA.

Based on the protist ASV composition, the original seawater samples were primarily clustered by sampling depth (surface epipelagic and deep mesopelagic zones; ANOSIM, R = 0.45, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 3). These groups were further categorized into cell-associated and cell-free rRNA forms (ANOSIM; R = 0.25, $p < 0.01$). Sampling locations were less important in explaining taxonomic composition differences (ANOSIM, R = 0.03, $p = 0.21$).

Eukaryotic taxa were classified into three groups based on their emergence patterns (Fig. 3). Group 1 comprised ubiquitously distributed and relatively abundant lineages, such as Prymnesiophyceae (Haptophyta), Dinophyceae (Dinoflagellata), Spirotrichea (Ciliophora), Choanoflagellatea (Choanoflagellata), and Acantharea (Radiolaria). Group 2 was characterized by lineages with moderate contributions, including Mediophyceae, Bacillariophyceae, Chrysophyceae (Gyrista), and Mamiellophyceae (Chlorophyta). Group 3 was marked by lineages representing low relative abundance yet emerged endemically or sporadically in specific samples.

Figure 3. Heatmap and cluster analysis showing the taxonomic composition of protists. The heatmap indicates the log-transformed relative abundance of protist 18S rRNA at the class level (PR2_Lv5). Samples were clustered based on ASV-level taxonomic composition (not on the class level) in the left dendrogram. In the top dendrogram, protist clades were clustered based on their emerging patterns across samples at the class level. Protist classes with maximum contributions < 0.1% across all the samples were not shown.

Differentially abundant (DA) ASVs in each rRNA form and habitat

After removing less prevalent ASVs, 1,082 ASVs were used for DA analysis. We detected 138 DA ASVs in epipelagic samples, 94 of which were significantly enriched in the cf-fraction (significantly lysed) and 44 in the ca-fraction (significantly intact; Fig. 4A–B). A total of 190 DA ASVs (171 lysed and 19 intact) were observed in mesopelagic samples. Vertical habitat comparison identified 661 DA ASVs; 437 and 224 were significantly enriched in upper epipelagic and deep mesopelagic samples, respectively.

The subdivision Ciliophora was the most abundant in terms of the number of lysed ASVs at both epipelagic and mesopelagic depths (Fig. 4B). Dinoflagellata and

Haptophyta_X were the two most abundant lineages in intact ASVs in the epipelagic zone,

although they were the second- and third-most lysed lineages in the mesopelagic zone.

Figure 4. Differential abundance analysis assessing cell lysis and habitat characterization
of protist communities. (A) MA-plot showing the average abundance (x-axis)
and fold changes (y-axis) of all the ASVs. The upper and lower panels denote
the differential abundances between cell-free and cell-associated fractions (i.e.,
cell-lysis index, CLI) in the epipelagic and mesopelagic, respectively. The
middle panel indicates the abundance changes between epipelagic and
mesopelagic communities (i.e., epipelagic enrichment index, EEI) of the cell-
associated rRNA. (B) Pie charts summarizing the eukaryotic taxonomy
(PR2_Lv4; subdivision level) with significant differences in each comparison.

Taxon specificity of prosperous and lytic depths

When comparing the ASVs that emerged in both the epipelagic and mesopelagic

samples, 6 of the 12 eukaryotic subdivisions tested (Dinoflagellata, Ciliophora,

Haptophyta_X, Gyrista, Choanoflagellata, and Cryptophyta_X) displayed significantly

higher CLI (cell-lysis index) in mesopelagic samples (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, $p < 0.01$,

n = 8–156; Fig. 5A). The mean and median CLI values were higher in the mesopelagic

region for other lineages, although the difference was not statistically significant or could

not be estimated. All 12 major lineages showed a larger number of lysed DA ASVs in the

mesopelagic zone than in the epipelagic zone (Fig. 5B).

The distribution of EEI values, a proxy for the preferred habitat depth, differed among

eukaryotic groups. The protist lineages, which mainly consisted of phototrophic lineages

such as Haptophyta_X, Gyrista (50% were diatoms), and Chlorophyta_X, showed

unimodal density distributions with high ASV abundances in epipelagic layers (Fig. 5C).

Conversely, heterotrophs such as Ciliophora and Radiolaria showed bimodal distributions,

indicating that the lineages consisting of ASVs adapted to either mesopelagic or

epipelagic habitats. Bimodal patterns were also observed for Dinoflagellata and

Cryptophyta_X.

Figure 5. Taxon-specific lysis and habitat preference of protists. (A) Boxplot
summarizing the lysis index of protist ASVs in each lineage (subdivision
level) in the epipelagic (EPI) and mesopelagic (MES) zones (open circle,
average; centerline, median; box limits, 25%–75% quantiles; whiskers, 1.5
× interquartile range). The *p*-value of the difference between EPI and MES
< 0.01 is marked with an asterisk and bolded. (B) Number of ASVs and their
lytic status of each lineage at each depth. (C) Density charts summarizing
the epipelagic enrichment index (EEI) of protist ASVs in each clade. Values
in the brackets indicate the number of ASVs in each lineage. A lineage
having a bimodal distribution (i.e., comprising ASVs adapted to the

epipelagic and mesopelagic zones) is marked with an asterisk and bolded. ASVs with zero values in either CLI (A and B) or EEI (C) measures were removed from all plots and statistics. Protist lineages having fewer than five ASVs were not shown.

Characteristics of lysed eukaryotes in the deep sea

A significant positive correlation was detected between EEI (epipelagic enrichment index) and CLI_{MES} (CLI in the mesopelagic communities; Spearman's rank test, $\rho = 0.78$, $p < 0.001$, n = 670; Fig. 6A). By comparing the DA ASVs of the EEI and CLI_{MES} categories, we found that 147 ASVs were shared between the two measures, corresponding to 86.0% of the DA ASVs in CLI_{MES} and 33.6% in EEI. The intersecting ASVs were mainly Ciliophora (29.9%), Dinoflagellata (27.9%), and Haptophyta_X (14.3%; Fig. 6B).

The Sankey diagram shows an overall link between habitat depth and cell-lysis depth for protist ASVs (Fig. 6C). The majority (66.0%) of the ASVs significantly lysed in the epipelagic zone were originated from those ubiquitously distributed between the surface and deep (i.e., non-significant ASVs of the EEI measure), whereas 86.0% of the ASVs lysed in the mesopelagic zone were composed of epipelagic-specific ASVs.

The ASVs with a preference for epipelagic, mesopelagic, and both habitats comprised 67.9%, 1.4%, and 30.7% of the average relative contribution of cf-rRNA in the epipelagic zone, respectively (Fig. 6D). The average contribution of cf-rRNA in the mesopelagic zone was composed of ASVs in the epipelagic (7.8%), mesopelagic (33.6%), and both habitats (58.6 %).

Figure 6. Detection of actively lysed microeukaryotes in the deep sea. (A) Relationship between the cell-lysis index in the mesopelagic communities (CLI_{MES}) and the epipelagic enrichment index (EEI), a prosperity measure of sunlit habitats. Differentially abundant ASVs in both the CLI_{MES} and EEI are shown in green. (B) Inter-relationship and the taxonomic composition (subdivision level) of ASVs preferring the epipelagic habitat and actively lysed in the mesopelagic zone. (C) Sankey diagram displaying the number of ASVs classified into each habitat depth and lysis depth. (D) Relative read frequency of protist ASVs having different habitats (EPI, EPI+MES, and MES) in each sample category (different depths and forms of 18S rRNA). ASVs with zero values in either measure were removed for all the plots.

Discussion

A quantitative assessment of intact and lysed eukaryotes

We established a simple method of extracting cell-free (pass through a 0.2 µm filter) RNA by directly capturing nucleic acids in a silica-membrane column. This method successfully recovered >80% of the rRNA dissolved in seawater over a wide concentration range, enabling quantitative and comprehensive analysis of dead and lysed microorganisms (Fig. 2A and 2B). This method demonstrated that over 90% of the cell-

free 18S-rRNA was derived from protists (single-celled organisms such as phytoplankton and protozoa) rather than from multicellular organisms such as zooplankton and fishes. RNA is a highly labile molecule with a turnover time of a few hours to a few days due to its high bioavailability [25]. Thus, cf-rRNA provides information on the taxonomy and degree of recent or ongoing cell lysis. Our results suggested that marine protists, likely formed via LCD processes, were the primary source of labile DOM in the study area.

rRNA metabarcoding of the cellular fraction revealed that Prymnesiophyceae (Haptophyta) and Dinophyceae (Dinoflagellata) were the most active and ubiquitous phytoplankton lineages in the surface zone of the study sites (Fig. 3). However, Dinophyceae may include heterotrophic species, and their contributions may be overestimated in rRNA-based phytoplankton communities. Microscopic analysis further confirmed the dominance of haptophytes and dinoflagellates, with average contributions of 35.4% and 40.0%, respectively, to the total identifiable phytoplankton cell count (Fig. S2). Our results are consistent with previous observations showing that haptophytes are highly abundant (up to 1.01×10^4 copies mL^{-1} of the 18S rRNA gene), contributing to 35–42% of the total chlorophyll a biomass in the Kuroshio ecosystem in autumn[29,30].

Enhanced eukaryotic cell lysis in the mesopelagic zone

The concentration of cf-rRNA was much lower than that of ca-rRNA in the surface but comparably high in the mesopelagic zone, resulting in apparent increases in the cf-rRNA:ca-rRNA ratio in the mesopelagic zone (Fig. 2C). The low cf-rRNA:ca-rRNA ratio in the surface zone may be partly explained by the rapid consumption of dissolved ribosomes due to high bacterial abundance. However, a previous study demonstrated comparable rates of plankton-derived DOM consumption between surface and deep seawaters[31]. Thus, the release of cellular contents, including ribosomes, via eukaryotic cell lysis is likely enhanced in the mesopelagic layer. Increases in lytic activity and the subsequent remineralization of organic molecules in the mesopelagic zone have also been reported in previous studies in different environments [18,32].

This assertion is supported by the DA analysis results, which evaluated the degree of cell lysis for each protist ASV at each depth by comparing the rRNA composition between the living (cell-associated) and dissolved (cell-free) fractions. We detected a higher number of significantly lysed ASVs and a lower number of significantly intact (i.e., less

susceptible to cell lysis) ASVs in the mesopelagic zone than in the surface ecosystems (Fig. 4). We also uncovered a distinct taxonomic signature in CLI measurements between epipelagic and mesopelagic zones, indicating depth-resolved differences in the cell-lysis dynamics of protists. Notably, diverse lineages represented not only by the protozoan Ciliophora but also by phytoplankton-including taxa Dinoflagellata and Haptophyta_X comprised significantly lysed ASVs in the mesopelagic layer (Fig. 4B). A comprehensive comparison revealed that both dominant and minor lineages, such as Choanoflagellata and Cryptophyta, were more susceptible to cell lysis in the mesopelagic layer than in the surface layer (Fig. 5A). These results consistently indicate that eukaryotic cell lysis was promoted below the sunlit epipelagic zone.

The lytic activity also differed within the mesopelagic zone, as indicated by higher cf-rRNA:ca-rRNA ratios in the upper (300 m) than in the middle mesopelagic layer (500 m; Fig. 2C). This might be attributed to the accumulation of sinking particles in the upper mesopelagic zone owing to the vertical density gradient of seawater. Approximately 1–40% of photosynthetically fixed carbon is exported to the deep layer as cell aggregates or fecal pellets (biological carbon pump)[33]. However, a substantial fraction (ca. 30–90%) of the particle flux was shown to slow down or stop sinking in the upper mesopelagic zone, presumably because of the steep increase in seawater density[34]. The CTD profile showed steep density gradients of 100–300 m at the study sites (Fig. 2C). Therefore, organic particles exported from the surface layer might have been retained and intensively lysed in the upper mesopelagic zone.

Surface eukaryotes were lysed in the deep ocean

We showed that the mesopelagic zone (300–500 m) is a hotspot for viral lysis, and various lineages were actively lysed in this layer. These results prompt the question: What is the source of the protists intensively lysed in the deep sea? To address this, we investigated the relationship between preferred habitat depth and lysis measures for each ASV. Expectedly, heterotrophic lineages, such as Ciliophora, Radiolaria, and Choanoglagellata, were clustered into epipelagic-preferred and mesopelagic-preferred ASVs (Fig. 5C), indicating that these heterotrophic lineages are ubiquitous in the water column at the subdivision or class level but exhibit distinct habitat depths at the ASV level. Dinoflagellata and Cryptophyta also consist of surface- and deep-specific ASVs, likely

reflecting their diverse trophic strategies (i.e., autotrophs, heterotrophs, and mixotrophs)

within lineages[35].

Notably, we found a significant positive correlation between cellular activity in the

epipelagic and lytic mortality in mesopelagic zone across all microeukaryotes (Fig. 6A).

Remarkably, most (86.0%) ASVs differentially (significantly) lysed in the mesopelagic

phase were epipelagic-preferred species (Fig. 6B and 6C). Although they contributed

33.6% of the total cf-rRNA reads in the mesopelagic region, mesopelagic-preferred ASVs

comprised only 1.8% of the differentially lysed ASVs (Fig. 6D). These results clearly

indicate that a large majority of eukaryotic species lysed in the mesopelagic zone were

not inhabiting it but were transported there from the upper surface layer via the biological

carbon pump.

Cell sinking and destruction dynamics can be explained by "viral shutte" and

subsequent cell lysis. For instance, previous *in situ* observations showed that viral

infection in the surface layer enhanced the sinking of infected cells of the haptophyte

Gephyrocapsa huxleyi, which were subsequently lysed in the mesopelagic zone[18]. A

laboratory experiment also demonstrated that viral infection facilitated the aggregate

formation of infected diatom cells, likely by producing proteinaceous extracellular

polymers[36]. However, these studies focused on limited phytoplankton species with known

viral isolates. Our analysis suggests that virus-induced vertical export ("viral shuttle")

and subsequent lysis at depth are prevalent dynamics for various protist species, including

heterotrophs. Additional information on virus–host interactions and other biological

factors, such as sloppy feeding, is required to confirm this theory. However, our

conclusion is supported by a previous study showing that plankton-infecting viruses in

the mesopelagic region are mainly transported from the surface zone with the sinking of

infected cells[10].

The study area is influenced by the subtropical Kuroshio Current, characterized by low

nutrient availability in the surface layer. Although oligotrophic regions typically have

lower export fluxes than productive eutrophic regions, the transfer efficiency of biological

carbon pumps is generally high in these regions, possibly due to low zooplankton

degradation and high viral activity[33,37]. A recent observation in the same area reported that

small phytoplankton and fecal pellets contributed to efficient carbon export[38]. Our results

and previous findings underscore the importance of surface microeukaryotic communities

in the biogeochemical cycles of oligotrophic oceans.

We revealed the importance of the mesopelagic zone in eukaryotic cell lysis and the

epipelagic zone as the source of these cells using a newly established cell-free RNA

analysis method. Dissolved RNA is a component of labile DOM that accounts for < 0.1%

of the ocean DOC inventory yet 84% of the carbon turnover (flux of 15–25 Pg C yr^{-1})[39].

Viral lysis and sloppy feeding, which can be detected using our method, are estimated to

contribute to approximately 45% of the labile DOC supply[39], highlighting the need to

unravel the source organisms and the underlying mortality mechanisms. Most labile DOC

produced in the surface mixed layer is oxidized to CO_2 via respiration and released into

the atmosphere. In contrast, labile DOC released in the deep layer can be sequestered over

a decadal timescale as dissolved inorganic carbon or refractory DOC because it is less

susceptible to vertical mixing and photodegradation[39,40]. Thus, the export of plankton

proliferating in the surface layer to the mesopelagic zone and their subsequent

degradation may significantly impact the ocean carbon inventory on geological

timescales. Ongoing ocean warming may modify the fate of fixed carbon in ocean

biogeochemical cycles via shoaling the mixed layer depth, changes in the phytoplankton

community, or decreases in viral infectivity[41,42]. Our findings provide a new perspective

for evaluating the interplay between marine microorganisms and biogeochemical cycles

in the ocean.

Material and methods

Sample collection

Field sampling was conducted at five stations near the Kuroshio off south Kyushu, Japan, during the KS-22-15 cruise (October 16–27, 2022) of the *R/V Shinsei Maru* (JAMSTEC). Seawater samples were collected from the surface (10 m), deep chlorophyll *a* maximum (SCM, 35–93 m), and mesopelagic (300 m or 500 m) layers using Niskin bottles attached to a CTD-RMS system (Table S1).

Samples for the cell-associated and cell-free rRNA analyses were prefiltered with a 144 µm pore-size mesh to remove metazoa. Then seawater (300 mL) was filtered through the 47 mm diameter 0.2 µm pore size polycarbonate filter (Isopore) with a gentle vacuum (< 0.013 MPa) to separate into cell-associated and cell-free rRNA fractions. The filter samples (cell-associated RNA) were soaked in 600 µL buffer RLT (Qiagen) containing 1% *β*-mercaptoethanol and 0.2 g of muddled 0.1 mm glass beads. Forty milliliters of the filtrates (cell-free rRNA) were subsampled into 50 mL Falcon tubes (Watson). The filter and filtrate samples were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in a deep freezer.

Nucleic acid extraction and cDNA synthesis

Cell-associated RNA samples were extracted using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's protocol, with some modifications. We used buffer RLT instead of buffer RLT Plus (Qiagen), which includes detergents, as the lysis buffer because it yielded a higher RNA concentration in a preliminary experiment. The ice-cold lysis buffer was agitated with a bead beater at 2,500 rpm thrice for 50 s before starting the protocol.

To extract cell-free RNA from the seawater filtrate samples (< 0.22 µm), we used the Wizard Enviro Total Nucleic Acid (TNA) Kit (Promega), according to the manufacturer's instructions with an elution volume of 40 µL. This kit was developed to capture and concentrate viral TNA from a large volume of wastewater (> 40 mL) using a column-based aspiration system[43].

Genomic DNA removal and first-strand cDNA synthesis were conducted for the extracted nucleotides using SuperScript IV VILO Master Mix with the ezDNase enzyme kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's specifications.

Performance evaluation of cell-free RNA extraction method

We conducted an RNA spike-in extraction experiment to assess the extraction
efficiency of cell-free (dissolved) rRNA using a Wizard Enviro TNA Kit. Purified
ribosomes from *Escherichia coli* strain B (New England Biosciences, cat. P0763S) were
suspended in artificial seawater, and the solution was subjected to TNA extraction and
cDNA synthesis using the abovementioned procedure. For comparison, the same
ribosomal solution was used directly for cDNA synthesis. We also evaluated the
performance of the ca-rRNA extraction protocol using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen).
All experiments were performed in triplicate.

The concentration of cDNA synthesized from *E. coli* 16S rRNA was quantified using
a digital PCR system (QIAcuity One 5plex, Qiagen) in a Nanoplate 8.5K 96-well plate.
A specific primer pair, 16S_EC442F and 16S_EC636R, was designed and used in the
QIAcuity EG PCR Kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions (Table S2).

Droplet digital PCR

A QX200 Droplet Digital PCR (ddPCR) system (Bio-Rad) was used to quantify
eukaryotic rRNA. This system enables absolute quantification of the target sequence
without a standard curve by counting the nucleic acid molecules encapsulated in discrete
nanodroplets. We used the primer pair E572F and E1009R to target the V4 region of the
small subunit of the 18S rRNA gene (Table S2)[44]

The 20 µL reaction mixtures containing primers (0.4 µM in final concentration), the
cDNA template, and the ddPCR EvaGreen Supermix (2X; Bio-Rad) were prepared and
then loaded into a DG8 Cartridge, followed by 70 µL of Droplet generation Oil. Droplets
produced using a droplet generator (Bio-Rad) were transferred to 96-well PCR plates.
The amplifications were performed using a thermal cycler with the following conditions:
95 °C for 5 min, denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, and annealing/extension at 54 °C for 2
min for 40 cycles. After amplification, the plate was analyzed using a QX200 Droplet
Reader (Bio-Rad).

SSU rRNA metabarcoding

Amplicon sequencing was performed as described previously[45]. Briefly, the V4 region
of the 18S rRNA gene was amplified in triplicate from the cDNA template using the

universal eukaryotic primer set E572F/E1009R (Comeau et al., 2011) attached to Illumina

overhang adapters using KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix. The thermal cycling condition

was as follows: a pre-denaturation step at 98 °C for 30 s, followed by 30 cycles of

denaturation at 98 °C for 10 s, annealing at 61 °C for 30 s, and extension at 72 °C for 30

s, with a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. Triplicate PCR products of approximately

440 bp in length were mixed after purification using Agencourt AMPure XP beads

(Beckman Coulter). Amplicon libraries were prepared using the Nextera XT Index Kit

V2 and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq platform using 300 bp paired-end sequencing.

Sequencing processing

Sequence data were analyzed using QIIME2 (ver. 2023.9)[46] with the DADA2 plugin[47].

Before being imported into the pipeline, raw reads were processed using fastp[48] to remove

low-quality reads and adapter sequences. Primer sequences were removed from the

quality-controlled reads with the "cutadapt trim-paired" command, then the paired-end

reads were merged and further subjected to denoising, dereplication, and chimera removal

to generate amplicon sequencing variants (ASVs) with the "dada2 denoise-paired"

command. Rare ASVs that appeared in less than ten sequences across all samples or those

found in only one sample were excluded. Taxonomy was assigned to remaining ASVs

based on a pre-trained naive Bayes classifier (trained against the PR2 reference database

version 4.14.0) using the "q2-feature-classifier" plugin[49]. ASVs classified as non-protist

lineages (metazoans, prokaryotes, and unclassified) were excluded from the table. The

read count of each sample was rarefied to 25,878 using random sampling.

Ecological analyses

To show the taxonomic composition of the microeukaryotes, a heatmap was created

based on the log-transformed relative abundance of 18S rRNA at the class level

(PR2_Lv5). Hierarchical clustering based on the Ward method with a Euclidean distance

measure was performed to evaluate similarities across taxa. Samples were also clustered

based on the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity of the ASV-level taxonomic composition (not at

the class level) using Ward's D2 method. Statistical differences in sample groups (depths,

forms, and sample sites) were assessed for ASV abundance using an analysis of

similarities (ANOSIM) with 9,999 permutations. All statistical analyses were conducted

using the R package "vegan" (https://cran.ism.ac.jp/web/packages/vegan).

Analysis of DA ASVs

Differences in ASV abundance between the two sample categories were tested using

edgeR (version 4.0.16)[50] in R. ASVs that appeared in fewer than four samples were

removed from the dataset. Read counts of each ASV were adjusted based on the trimmed

mean of M-values (TMM) normalization factor and the negative binomial dispersion as

estimated through the 'calcNormFactors' and 'estimateDisp' functions. We fit a

generalized linear mode to normalize read counts using the 'glmFit' command after

adding a small prior count of 0.125 to avoid undefined ASVs when either of the counts is

zero. Then, statistics of differential abundance were assessed using the 'glmLRT'

command. ASVs with a False Discovery Rate (FDR) < 0.1 and an absolute value of $\log_2$-

fold change (logFC) > 2 were considered significantly differentially abundant (or less

abundant) ASVs (DA ASVs).

We performed DA analysis on three sets of comparisons: (1) cf- and ca-rRNA forms

in epipelagic samples, (2) cf- and ca-rRNA forms in mesopelagic samples, and (3)

epipelagic and mesopelagic samples of ca-rRNA. The logFC values between the cf- and

ca-rRNA forms were defined as the cell-lysis index (CLI), and those between the

epipelagic and mesopelagic layers were defined as the epipelagic enrichment index (EEI).

Habitat distribution analysis

To test the bimodality of the EEI measure (i.e., whether a protist lineage consists of

ASVs adapted to different depths), the function 'Modes' in the R package

"LaplacesDemon" (https://github.com/LaplacesDemonR) was used. This function

determines the number and value of local maxima in the Gaussian kernel density

distribution of variables with at least 10% of the distribution area. We regarded a protist

lineage (subdivision level, PR2_Lv4) with at least one mode in each depth category

(epipelagic and mesopelagic zones) as a multi-habitat lineage.

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Author contributions

H.E. designed this study, joined the research cruise, and conducted the fieldwork. H.E., Y.Y., N.T. performed the laboratory experiments. H.E. performed the bioinformatics analysis. All the authors contributed to interpreting the data and writing the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability

The sequencing data have been deposited in DDBJ Sequence Read Archive (DRA) under accession number DRA018638 (BioSample accessions SAMD00780584–SAMD00780643). Custom scripts and associated data files used in this study are available on GitHub (https://github.com/HisashiENDO/Kuroshio_cf-rRNA).

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