Genetic tool development in marine protists:

Emerging model organisms for experimental cell biology

Drahomíra Faktorová[1,#,*], R. Ellen R. Nisbet[2,#, %], José A. Fernández Robledo[3,#], Elena Casacuberta[4,#], Lisa Sudek[5,#], Andrew E. Allen[6,7], Manuel Ares Jr.[8], Cristina Aresté[4], Cecilia Balestreri[9], Adrian C. Barbrook[2], Patrick Beardslee[10], Sara Bender[11], David S. Booth[12], François-Yves Bouget[13], Chris Bowler[14], Susana A. Breglia[15], Colin Brownlee[9], Gertraud Burger[16], Heriberto Cerutti[10], Rachele Cesaroni[17], Miguel A. Chiurillo[18], Thomas Clemente[10], Duncan B. Coles[3], Jackie L. Collier[19], Elizabeth C. Cooney[20], Kathryn Coyne[21], Roberto Docampo[18], Christopher L. Dupont[7], Virginia Edgcomb[22], Elin Einarsson[2], Pía A. Elustondo[15,$], Fernan Federici[23], Veronica Freire-Beneitez[24,25], Nastasia J. Freyria[3], Kodai Fukuda[26], Paulo A. García[27], Peter R. Girguis[28], Fatma Gomaa[28], Sebastian G. Gornik[29], Jian Guo[5,8], Vladimír Hampl[30], Yutaka Hanawa[31], Esteban R. Haro-Contreras[15], Elisabeth Hehenberger[20], Andrea Highfield[9], Yoshihisa Hirakawa[31], Amanda Hopes[32], Christopher J. Howe[2], Ian Hu[2], Jorge Ibañez[23], Nicholas A.T. Irwin[20], Yuu Ishii[33], Natalia Ewa Janowicz[30], Adam C. Jones[11], Ambar Kachale[1], Konomi Fujimura-Kamada[34], Binnypreet Kaur[1], Jonathan Z. Kaye[11], Eleanna Kazana[24,25], Patrick J. Keeling[20], Nicole King[12], Lawrence A. Klobutcher[35], Noelia Lander[18], Imen Lassadi[2], Zhuhong Li[18], Senjie Lin[35], Jean-Claude Lozano[13], Fulei Luan[10], Shinichiro Maruyama[33], Tamara Matute[23], Cristina Miceli[36], Jun Minagawa[34,37], Mark Moosburner[6,7], Sebastián R. Najle[4,38], Deepak Nanjappa[21], Isabel C. Nimmo[2], Luke Noble[39,**], Anna M.G. Novák Vanclová[30], Mariusz Nowacki[17], Isaac Nuñez[23], Arnab Pain[40,41], Angela Piersanti[36], Sandra Pucciarelli[36], Jan Pyrih[24,30], Joshua S. Rest[42], Mariana Rius[19], Deborah Robertson[43], Albane Ruaud[23,***], Iñaki Ruiz-Trillo[4,44,45], Monika A. Sigg[12], Pamela A. Silver[46,47], Claudio H. Slamovits[15], G. Jason Smith[48], Brittany N. Sprecher[35], Rowena Stern[9], Estienne C. Swart[17,***], Anastasios D. Tsaousis[24,25], Lev

Tsypin[49,50], Aaron Turkewitz[49], Jernej Turnšek[6,7,46,47], Matus Valach[16], Valérie Vergé[13], Peter

von Dassow[23,51], Tobias von der Haar[24], Ross F. Waller[2], Lu Wang[52], Xiaoxue Wen[10], Glen

Wheeler[9], April Woods[48], Huan Zhang[35], Thomas Mock[32,*], Alexandra Z. Worden[5,53,*] &

Julius Lukeš[1,*]

[1]*Institute of Parasitology, Biology Centre, Czech Academy of Sciences and Faculty of*

    Sciences, University of South Bohemia, České Budějovice, Czech Republic

[2]*Department of Biochemistry, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK*

[3]*Bigelow Laboratory for Ocean Sciences, East Boothbay, USA*

[4]*Institut de Biologia Evolutiva, CSIC-Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Barcelona, Spain*

[5]*Monterey Bay Aquarium Research Institute, Moss Landing, USA*

[6]*Integrative Oceanography Division, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of*

    California, San Diego, USA

[7]*Microbial and Environmental Genomics, J. Craig Venter Institute, La Jolla, USA*

[8]*Molecular, Cell and Developmental Biology, University of California, Santa Cruz, USA*

[9]*The Marine Biological Association, Plymouth and School of Ocean and Earth Sciences,*

    University of Southampton, Southampton, UK

[10]*School of Biological Sciences, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, USA*

[11]*Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation, Palo Alto, USA*

[12]*Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Berkeley, USA*

[13]*Sorbonne Université, CNRS UMR7621, Observatoire Océanologique, Banyuls sur Mer,*

    France

[14]*Institut de Biologie de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure (IBENS), Ecole Normale Supérieure,*

    CNRS, INSERM, Université PSL, Paris, France

[15]*Centre for Comparative Genomics and Evolutionary Bioinformatics, Dalhousie*

University, Halifax, Canada

[16]*Department of Biochemistry and Robert-Cedergren Centre for Bioinformatics and*

Genomics, Université de Montréal, Montreal, Canada

[17]*Institute of Cell Biology, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland*

[18]*Center for Tropical and Emerging Global Diseases, University of Georgia, Athens, USA*

[19]*School of Marine and Atmospheric Sciences, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, USA*

[20]*Department of Botany, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada*

[21]*University of Delaware College of Earth, Ocean and Environment, Lewes, USA*

[22]*Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, USA*

[23]*Facultad Ciencias Biológicas, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Fondo de*

Desarrollo de Areas Prioritarias, Center for Genome Regulation and Millennium

Institute for Integrative Biology (iBio), Santiago de Chile, Chile

[24]*School of Biosciences, University of Kent, Canterbury, Kent, UK*

[25]*Laboratory of Molecular and Evolutionary Parasitology, University of Kent, UK*

[26]*Graduate School of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Tsukuba, Ibaraki,*

Japan

[27]*Department of Mechanical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston,*

USA

[28]*Department of Organismic and Evolutionary Biology, Harvard University, Cambridge,*

USA

[29]*Centre for Organismal Studies, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany*

[30]*Department of Parasitology, Faculty of Science, Charles University, BIOCEV, Vestec,*

Czech Republic

[31]*Faculty of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan*

[32]*School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK*

[33]*Graduate School of Life Sciences, Tohoku University, Sendai, Miyagi, Japan*

[34]*Division of Environmental Photobiology, National Institute for Basic Biology, Okazaki,*

Aichi, Japan

[35]*Department of Marine Sciences, University of Connecticut, Groton, USA*

[36]*School of Biosciences and Veterinary Medicine, University of Camerino, Camerino, Italy*

[37]*Department of Basic Biology, School of Life Science, Graduate University for Advanced*

Studies, Okazaki, Aichi, Japan

[38]*Instituto de Biología Molecular y Celular, CONICET, and Facultad de Ciencias*

Bioquímicas y Farmacéuticas, Universidad Nacional de Rosario, Rosario, Argentina

[39]*Center for Genomics and Systems Biology, New York University, New York, USA*

[40]*Biological and Environmental Science and Engineering Division, King Abdullah*

University of Science and Technology, Thuwal, Saudi Arabia

[41]*Center for Zoonosis Control, Global Institution for Collaborative Research and*

Education, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

[42]*Department of Ecology and Evolution, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, USA*

[43]*Lasry Center for Biosciences, Clark University, Worcester, USA*

[44]*Departament de Genètica Microbiologia i Estadística, Universitat de Barcelona,*

Barcelona, Spain

[45]*Catalan Institution for Research and Advanced Studies, Barcelona, Spain*

[46]*Department of Systems Biology, Harvard Medical School, Boston, USA*

[47]*Wyss Institute for Biologically Inspired Engineering, Harvard University, Boston, USA*

[48]*Department of Environmental Biotechnology, Moss Landing Marine Laboratoriess, Moss*

Landing, USA

[49]*Department of Molecular Genetics and Cell Biology, University of Chicago, Chicago,*

USA

[50]*Department of Biology, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, USA*

[51]*Instituto Milenio de Oceanografia de Chile, Concepción, Chile*

[52]*Institute of Oceanography, Minjiang University, Fuzhou, China*

[53]*Ocean EcoSystems Biology Unit, Marine Ecology Division, Helmholtz Centre for Ocean*

Research, Kiel, Germany

[%] Present address: *School of Biosciences, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington, UK*

[$]Present address: *AGADA Biosciences Inc., Halifax, Canada*

[**]Present address: *Institute de Biologie de l'ENS, Département de biologie, École Normale*

Supérieure, CNRS, INSERM, Paris, France

[***]Present address: *Max Planck Institute for Developmental Biology, Tübingen, Germany*

[#]Equal contribution

[*]Corresponding authors: dranov@paru.cas.cz (DF); t.mock@uea.ac.uk (TM);

azworden@geomar.de (AZW); jula@paru.cas.cz (JL)

ABSTRACT

Diverse microbial ecosystems underpin life in the sea. Among these microbes are many

unicellular eukaryotes that span the diversity of the eukaryotic tree of life. However, genetic

tractability has been limited to a few species, which do not represent eukaryotic diversity or

environmentally relevant taxa. Here, we report on the development of genetic tools in a range

of protists primarily from marine environments. We present evidence for foreign DNA

delivery and expression in 13 species never before transformed and advancement of tools for

8 other species, as well as potential reasons for why transformation of yet another 17 species

tested was not achieved. Our resource in genetic manipulation will provide insights into the

ancestral eukaryotic lifeforms, general eukaryote cell biology, protein diversification and the

evolution of cellular pathways.

INTRODUCTION

The ocean represents the largest continuous planetary ecosystem, hosting an enormous

variety of organisms, which include microscopic biota such as unicellular eukaryotes

(protists). Despite their small size, protists play key roles in marine biogeochemical cycles

and harbor tremendous evolutionary diversity[1,2]. Notwithstanding their importance for

understanding the evolution of life on Earth and their role in marine food webs, as well as

driving biogeochemical cycles to maintain habitability, little is known about their cell biology

including reproduction, metabolism, and signalling[3]. Most of the biological knowledge

available is based on comparison of proteins from cultured species to homologs in genetically

tractable model taxa[4-7]. A major impediment to understanding the cell biology of these

diverse eukaryotes is that protocols for genetic modification are only available for a small

number of species[8,9] that represent neither the most ecologically relevant protists nor the

breadth of eukaryotic diversity.

The development of genetic tools requires reliable information about gene

organisation and regulation of the emergent model species. Over the last decade, genome[4-6]

and transcriptome sequencing initiatives[7] have resulted in nearly 120 million unigenes being

identified in protists[10], which facilitates the developments of genetic tools used for model

species Insights from these studies enabled the phylogenetically-informed approach[7] for

selecting and developing key marine protists into model systems in the Environmental Model

Systems (EMS) Project presented herein. Forty-one research groups took part in the EMS

Project, a collaborative effort resulting in the development of genetic tools that significantly

expand the number of eukaryotic lineages that can be manipulated, and which encompass

multiple ecologically important marine protists.

Here, we summarize detailed methodological achievements and analyse results to

provide a synthetic 'Transformation Roadmap' for creating new microeukaryotic model

systems. Although the organisms reported here are diverse, the paths to overcome difficulties

share similarities, highlighting the importance of building a well-connected community to

overcome technical challenges and accelerate the development of genetic tools. The 13

emerging model species presented herein, and the collective set of genetic tools from the

overall collaborative project, will not only extend our knowledge of marine cell biology,

evolution and functional biodiversity, but also serve as platforms to advance protistan

biotechnology.

RESULTS

Overview of taxa in the EMS Initiative

Taxa were selected from multiple eukaryotic supergroups[1,7] to maximize the potential of

cellular biology and to evaluate the numerous unigenes with unknown functions found in

marine protists (**Fig. 1**). Prior to the EMS initiative, reproducible transformation of marine

protists was limited to only a few species such as *Thalassiosira pseudonana*, *Phaeodactylum*

tricornutum, and *Ostreococcus tauri* (**Suppl. Table 1**). The EMS initiative included 39

species, specifically, 6 archaeplastids, 2 haptophytes, 2 rhizarians, 9 stramenopiles, 12

alveolates, 4 discobans, and 4 opisthokonts (**Fig. 1**). Most of these taxa were isolated from

coastal habitats, the focus area of several culture collections[7]. More than 50% of the selected

species are considered photoautotrophs, with another 35% divided between heterotrophic

osmotrophs and phagotrophs, the remainder being predatory mixotrophs. Almost 20% of the

chosen species are symbionts and/or parasites of marine plants or animals, 5% are associated

with detritus, and several are responsible for harmful algal blooms (**Suppl. Table 2**).

178   While some transformation systems for protists have been developed in the past[8,9,11],

the challenge for this initiative was to develop genetic tools for species which not only

require different cultivation conditions but are also phenotypically diverse. It should be noted

that not all major lineages were explored. For example, amoebozoans did not feature in this

aquatic-focused initiative, in part because they tend to be most important in soils, at least

based on current knowledge, and manipulation systems exist for members of this eukaryotic

supergroup, such as *Dictyostelium discoideum*[12]. The overall EMS initiative outcomes are

summarized in Figure 1 and Table 1. We provide detailed protocols for 13 taxa, for which no

transformation systems have been previously reported (Category A), and 8 taxa, for which

existing protocols[9,11,13-19,20,21] were advanced (Category B) (**Figs. 2, 3 and 4; Table 1; Suppl.**

Tables 1-5 and Online Methods). We also review an already published EMS transformation

protocol[22] in 1 species (Category C), and we discuss unsuccessful transformation attempts for

17 additional taxa (**Fig. 1; Online Methods**). Finally, we synthesize our findings in a

roadmap for the development of transformation systems in protists (**Fig. 5**).

Archaeplastids. Prasinophytes are important marine green algae distributed from polar to

tropical regions. They form a sister group to chlorophyte algae, and together, these two

groups branch adjacent to land plants, collectively comprising the Viridiplantae, which are

part of the Archaeplastida[1,23] (**Fig. 1**). Genome sequences are available for the

picoprasinophytes (<3 μm cell diameter) tested herein, specifically, *Micromonas commoda*,

M. pusilla, *Ostreococcus lucimarinus* and *Bathycoccus prasinos*. As part of the EMS

initiative, we report on the first genetic tools for *Bathycoccus*, a scaled, non-motile genus, and

Micromonas, a motile, naked genus with larger genomes than *Bathycoccus* and

Ostreococcus[22]. We also report on the first genetic tools for *Tetraselmis striata* and

Ostreococcus lucimarinus. The latter was transformed based on an adapted homologous

recombination system for *Ostreococcus tauri*[24,25].

O. lucimarinus (RCC802) and *B. prasinos* (RCC4222) were transformed using

protocols adapted from *O. tauri*[24,25]. Briefly, using electroporation for transfer of exogenous

genes, *O. lucimarinus* was transformed using a DNA fragment encoding the *O. tauri* high-

affinity phosphate transporter (*HAPT*) gene fused to a luciferase gene and a kanamycin

selection marker (**Table 1; Suppl. Table 3**), which resulted in transient luciferase expression

24 h after electroporation (**Table 1; Fig. 3a**). After 2 weeks of growth in low-melting agarose

plates containing G418 (1 mg/ml), 480 colonies were obtained, picked, and grown in artificial

seawater with the antibiotic neomycin. Of these, 76 displayed luminescence $\geq$ 2.5 fold above

background (80 Relative Luminescence Units, RLU), with widely variable levels (200 to

31020 RLU), likely reflecting either variations in the site of integration and/or the number of

integrated genes (**Fig. 3a; Suppl. Fig. 1; Online Methods**).

The *O. tauri* construct did not work in *B. prasinos,* while the use of the *B. prasinos*

histone *H4* and *HAPT* sequences in an otherwise identical construct and conditions was

successful. Although luciferase expression was not detected 24 h after electroporation, 48

G418-resistant colonies were obtained 2 weeks later, 20 being luminescent when grown in

liquid medium. Analysis of 14 resistant transformants revealed that the luciferase sequence

was integrated into the genome of 5 luminescent clones, and one non-luminescent clone (**Fig.**

3b; Online Methods), suggesting that the chromatin context at integration sites in the latter

was not favourable to luciferase expression.

Although transformation methods successful for *Bathycoccus* and *Ostreococcus* failed

in *Micromonas*, Lonza nucleofection was successful with *M. commoda* (CCMP2709) (**Table**

1; Fig. 3c) using 2 different codon-optimized plasmids, one encoding the luciferase gene

(NanoLuc, Promega) flanked by an exogenous promoter and terminator sequence from the $5'$-

and $3'$- untranslated regions (UTRs) of histone *H3* in *Micromonas polaris* (CCMP2099), and

the other encoding an enhanced fluorescent protein *(eGFP)* gene flanked by endogenous

promoter and terminator sequences from ribosomal protein S9 (**Suppl. Table 5**). Sensitivities

to antibiotics were established (**Suppl. Table 3**). Constructs did not include a selectable

marker, as we aimed to introduce and express foreign DNA while developing conditions

suitable for transfection that supported robust growth in this cell wall-lacking protist (**Table**

1). Transformants revealed a significantly higher level of eGFP fluorescence than wild type

cells, with 1.3% of the population showing fluorescence per cell 45-fold higher than both the

non-transformed portion of the culture and the wild type cells (**Fig. 3c; Online Methods**).

Additionally, the RLU was 1500-fold higher than controls when using the luciferase-bearing

construct, such that multiple experiments with both plasmids confirmed expression of

exogenous genes in *M. commoda*.

T. striata (KAS-836) was transformed using microprojectile bombardment (**Suppl.**

Fig. 2a). Two selectable marker genes were tested, consisting of a putative promoter and 5'

UTR sequences from the *T. striata* actin gene and either the coding sequences of the

Streptoalloteichus hindustanus bleomycin gene (conferring resistance to zeocin) or the

Streptomyces hygroscopicus bar gene (conferring resistance to glufosinate) (**Table 1; Suppl.**

Fig. 2a; Online Methods). The terminator sequence was obtained from the *T. striata*

glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene. Linearized plasmids were coated on gold

particles and introduced into *T. striata* cells by using the PDS-1000/He Particle Delivery

System (BioRad). Transformants were successfully selected on half-strength f/2 at 50%

salinity agar plates containing either 150 µg/ml zeocin or 150 µg/ml glufosinate.

***Haptophytes* (incertae sedis).** Haptophytes are a group of photosynthetic protists that are

abundant in marine environments and include the major calcifying lineage, the

coccolithophores. Genome sequences are available for *Emiliania huxleyi*[6] and

Chrysochromulina tobin[26], and there is one report of nuclear transformation of a calcifying

coccolithophore species[27] but transformation of *E. huxleyi,* the most prominent

coccolithophore, has not been achieved yet[27]. Here, as part of the EMS initiative, a stable

nuclear transformation system was developed for *Isochrysis galbana*, a species that lacks

coccoliths, but represents an important feedstock for shellfish aquaculture[28].

I. galbana (CCMP1323) was transformed by biolistic bombardment with the pIgNAT

vector, which contains nourseothricin *N*-acetyltransferase (*NAT*, for nourseothricin

resistance) driven by the promoter and terminator of *Hsp70* from *E. huxleyi* (CCMP1516).

Twenty four hours after bombardment, cells were transferred to liquid f/2 medium at 50%

salinity containing 80 µg/ml nourseothricin (NTC) and left to grow for 2-3 weeks to select for

transformants (**Table 1**). The presence of *NAT* in NTC-resistant cells was verified by PCR

and RT-PCR (**Fig. 4a; Suppl. Fig. 2b; Online Methods**) and the sequence was verified. To

confirm NTC resistance was a stable phenotype, cells were sub-cultured every 2-4 weeks at

progressively higher NTC concentrations (up to 150 µg/ml) in the above-mentioned media.

Cells remained resistant to NTC for approximately 6 months, as confirmed by PCR screening

to identify the presence of the *NAT* gene.

***Rhizarians*.** Rhizarians include diverse non-photosynthetic protists, as well as the

photosynthetic chlorarachniophytes that acquired a plastid *via* secondary endosymbiosis of a

green alga[4]. Uniquely, they represent an intermediate stage of the endosymbiotic process,

since their plastids still harbor a relict nucleus (nucleomorph). Here, we report on an

advanced transformation protocol for the chlorarachniophyte *Amorphochlora (Lotharella)*

amoebiformis for which low-efficiency transient transformation has previously been achieved

using particle bombardment[14].

A. amoebiformis (CCMP2058) cells were resuspended in 100 µl of Gene Pulse

Electroporation Buffer (BioRad) with 20-50 µg of the reporter plasmid encoding eGFP-

RubisCO fusion protein under the control of the native *rbcS1* promoter and subjected to

electroporation (**Table 1**). Cells were immediately transferred to fresh ESM medium and

incubated for 24 h. Transformation efficiency was estimated by the fraction of cells

expressing eGFP, resulting in 0.03-0.1% efficiency, as enumerated by microscopy, showing

an efficiency up to 1000-fold higher than in the previous study[14] (**Table 1**). Stable

transformants were generated by manual isolation using a micropipette, and a transformed

line has maintained eGFP fluorescence for at least 10 months without antibiotic selection

(**Fig. 2; Fig. 4b; Online Methods**).

Stramenopiles. Stramenopiles are a diverse lineage harboring important photoautotrophic,

mixotrophic (combining photosynthetic and phagotrophic nutrition) and heterotrophic taxa.

As the most studied class in this lineage, diatoms (Bacillariophyceae) were early targets for

the development of reverse genetics tool[11,29]. Diatoms are estimated to contribute

approximately 20% of annual carbon fixation[30] and, like several other algal lineages, are used

in bioengineering applications and biofuels[31]. Although other cold-adapted eukaryotes have

yet to be transformed, here we present a protocol for the Antarctic diatom *Fragilariopsis*

cylindrus[32]. A first transformation protocol has also been developed for *Pseudo-nitzschia*

multiseries, a toxin-producing diatom[33]. Here we also present work for non-diatom

stramenopiles, including the first transformation protocol for the eustigmatophyte

Nannochloropsis oceanica, and an alternative protocol for the labyrinthulomycete

Aurantiochytrium limacinum[20], both of which are used for biotechnological applications.

Furthermore, we report on advances for CRISPR/Cas-driven gene knockouts in

Phaeodactylum tricornutum[8,13] and a more efficient bacterial conjugation system for

Thalassiosira pseudonana[13].

Microparticle bombardment was used on *F. cylindrus* (CCMP1102) which was

grown, processed and maintained at 4 °C in 24 h light. Exponential phase cells were

harvested onto a 1.2 µm membrane filter which was then placed on an 1.5% agar Aquil plate

for bombardment with beads coated with a plasmid containing zeocin resistance and *eGFP*,

both controlled by an endogenous fucoxanthin chlorophyll *a/c* binding protein (FCP)

promoter and terminator (**Table 1; Suppl. Table 3; Online Methods**)[34]. Transformation was

performed using 0.7 µm tungsten particles and the biolistic particle delivery system

PDS1000/He (BioRad). Rupture discs for 1350 and 1550 pounds per square inch (psi) gave

the highest colony numbers with efficiencies of 20.7 colony forming units (cfu)/10^8 cells and

30 cfu/10^8 cells, respectively. Following bombardment, the filter was turned upside down and

left to recover for 24 h on the plate, then cells were rinsed from the plate/filter and spread

across five 0.8% agar Aquil plates with 100 µg/ml zeocin. Colonies appeared 3 to 5 weeks

later. PCR on genomic DNA showed that 100% and 60% of colonies screened positive for

the bleomycin gene (*ShBle*) for zeocin resistance and the gene encoding eGFP, respectively.

Confirmed by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) and microscopy, eGFP was

localized to the cytosol and was distinguishable from plastid autofluorescence (**Fig. 2**).

Additional confirmation by PCR and RT-PCR (**Fig. 4c**) revealed that the *ShBle* and *eGFP*

genes were present in the genomes of transformants after multiple transfers (> 10) 2 years

later, indicating long-term stability.

Bacterial conjugation methods were improved in *T. pseudonana* (CCMP1335) using

the silaffin precursor *TpSil3p* (**Table 1; Online Methods**) as the target gene. *TpSil3p* was

fused to *eGFP* flanked by an FCP promoter and terminator, cloned into a pTpPuc3 episomal

backbone, and transformed into mobilization plasmid-containing EPI300 *E. coli* cells

(Lucigen). The donor cells were grown in SOC medium at 37 °C until OD_{600} of 0.3–0.4,

centrifuged and resuspended in 267 µl SOC medium. Next, 200 µl of donor cells were mixed

with *T. pseudonana* cells, co-cultured on pre-dried 1% agar plates, dark incubated at 30 °C

for 90 min, then at 18 °C in constant light for 4 h, followed by selection in 0.25% agar plates

containing 100 µg/ml NTC. Colonies were observed after 2 weeks, inoculated into 300 µl L1

medium and supplemented with 200 µg/ml NTC to reduce the number of false positives.

Positive transformants were identified by colony PCR screening (**Suppl. Fig. 3**) and

epifluorescence microscopy (**Fig. 2**).

The diatom *Pseudo-nitzschia multiseries* (15093C) and other members of this genus

form buoyant linear chains with overlapping cell tips during active growth, and were

unconducive to punctate colony formation on agar, where their growth is generally poor. To

address this challenge, a low-gelation-temperature agarose seawater medium (LGTA) was

developed to facilitate growth, antibiotic selection, and cell recovery. *P. multiseries* exhibited

growth inhibition at relatively low concentrations under NTC, formaldehyde, and zeocin

(**Suppl. Table 3**). Biolistic transformation of two other *Pseudo-nitzschia* species had been

demonstrated at low efficiency[35]. To complement this approach and explore potentially

higher efficiency methods for transformation with diatom episomal plasmids, we modified

the existing conjugation-based method[13]. The published conjugation protocol was modified to

enhance *P. multiseries* post-conjugation viability by reducing SOC content. An episomal

version of the Pm_actP_egfp_actT expression cassette was transfected into *E. coli*

EPI300+pTAMOB and used for conjugation (**Table 1; Online Methods**). After 48 h in L1

medium, cells were plated in LGTA and eGFP-positive cells were observed 7 days later (**Fig.**

2). PCR revealed the presence of plasmids in all eGFP positive colonies (**Suppl. Fig. 4**).

Similarly, conjugation with the episome pPtPUC3 (bleomycin selection marker)-containing

bacterial donors was followed under zeocin selection (200 µg/ml). After 7 days, only viable

cells (based on bright chlorophyll fluorescence) contained the episome, as confirmed by PCR.

Propagation of transformants after the first medium transfer (under selection) has so far been

unsuccessful.

Stable transformation of *A. limacinum* (ATCC MYA-1381) was achieved by knock-in

of a resistance cassette composed of *ShBle* driven by 1.3 kb promoter and 1.0 kb terminator

regions of the endogenous glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene carried in a

pUC19-based plasmid (18GZG) along with the native 18S rRNA gene, and by knock-in of a

similar construct containing a *eGFP:ShBle* fusion (**Suppl. Fig. 5**). Approximately 1 x 10^8

cells were electroporated, adapting the electroporation protocol used for *Schizochytrium*[36].

The highest transformation efficiency was achieved using 1 µg of linearized 18GZG plasmid

with 2 pulses, resulting in a time constant of ~5 ms (**Table 1; Online Methods**). Expression

of the fusion protein was confirmed by both the zeocin-resistance phenotype and the

detection of eGFP (**Fig. 2**). Six 18GZG transformants derived from uncut and linearized

plasmids were examined in detail. All maintained antibiotic resistance throughout 13 serial

transfers, first in selective, and subsequently in non-selective media, and then again in

selective medium. Integration of the plasmid into the genome was confirmed by PCR as well

as by Southern blots using a digoxigenin-labeled *ShBle* gene probe, showing that 4

transformants had integrations by single homologous recombination, while in 2

transformants, additional copies of the antibiotic resistance cassette were integrated by non-

homologous recombination elsewhere in the genome (**Suppl. Fig. 5**).

Electroporation of *N. oceanica* (CCMP1779) was optimized based on observation of

cells treated with fluorescein-conjugated 2000 kDa dextran and subsequent survival (**Table**

1; Online Methods). A sorbitol concentration of 800 mM and electroporation at between 5

and 9 kV/cm resulted in highest cell recovery. These conditions were used during

introduction of plasmids containing the gene for the blue fluorescent reporter *mTagBFP2*

under the control of cytomegalovirus (CMV), the cauliflower Mosaic Virus 35S, or the VCP1

promoter previously described from *Nannochloropsis* sp.[37]. Transient expression of blue

fluorescence (compared to cells electroporated simultaneously under the same conditions

without plasmid) appeared within 2 h, lasted for at least 24 h, and disappeared by 48 h in

subsets of cells electroporated with *mTagBFP2* under the control of CMV (**Suppl. Fig. 6**).

The transient transformation was more effective when a linearized plasmid was used

compared to a circular plasmid (**Table 1**). VCP1 did not induce blue fluorescence with a

circular plasmid, while 35S gave inconsistent results with either circularized or linearized

plasmids.

For *P. tricornutum* (CCAP1055/1), we adapted the CRISPR/Cas9 system[8] for

multiplexed targeted mutagenesis. Bacterial conjugation[13] was used to deliver an episome

that contained a Cas9 cassette and 2 single-guide RNA (sgRNA) expression cassettes

designed to excise a 38 bp-long domain from the coding region of a nuclear-encoded,

chloroplastic glutamate synthase (*Phatr3_J24739*) and introduce an in-frame stop codon after

strand ligation (**Table 1; Online Methods**). The GoldenGate assembly was used to clone 2

expression cassettes carrying sgRNAs into a *P. tricornutum* episome that contained a *Cas9-*

2A-ShBle expression cassette and the centromeric region CenArsHis (**Suppl. Fig. 7**). After

their addition to a *P. tricornutum* culture, plates were incubated in a growth chamber under

standard growth conditions for 2 days and transformed *P. tricornutum* colonies began to

appear after 2 weeks. Only colonies maintaining *Cas9-2A-ShBle* sequence on the delivered

episome were able to grow on selection plates because *Cas9* and *ShBle* were transcriptionally

fused by the 2A peptide[38] (**Suppl. Fig. 7**). Gel electrophoresis migration and sequencing of

the genomic target loci confirmed the 38 bp-long excision and premature stop codon (**Fig.**

4d).

Alveolates. This species-rich and diverse group is comprised of ciliates, apicomplexans, and

dinoflagellates (**Fig. 1**). As a link between apicomplexan parasites and dinoflagellate algae,

perkinsids are key for understanding the evolution of parasitism, and also have potential

biomedical applications[17]. Techniques currently exist for transformation of only a small

number of ciliates, perkinsids and apicomplexans[39]. Here, we present a first transformation

protocol for *Karlodinium veneficum* (CCMP1975), a phagotrophic mixotroph that produces

fish-killing karlotoxins[40]. Experiments were also performed on *Oxyrrhis marina* (CCMP

1788/CCMP 1795), a basal-branching phagotroph that lacks photosynthetic plastids and

Crythecodinium cohnii (CCMP 316), a heterotroph used in food supplements. For both of

these taxa first evidence of DNA delivery was achieved (**Table 1; Suppl. Results; Supp.**

Fig. 15; Online Methods), a goal recently achieved for *C. cohnii* using electroporation[19].

Additionally, we report on improved transformation systems for *Perkinsus marinus*

(PRA240) and *Amphidinium carterae* (CCMP1314) chloroplast, published recently as part of

the EMS initiative[15].

K. veneficum (CCMP1975) was transformed based on electroporation and cloning the

selectable marker gene aminoglycoside 3'-phosphotransferase (*nptII/neo*; note that *nptII/neo*

is used synonymously with amino 3'-glycosyl phosphotransferase gene conferring resistance

to kanamycin, neomycin, paromomycin, ribostamycin, butirosin and gentamicin B) into the

backbone of the dinoflagellate-specific expression vector DinoIII-*neo*[41], which confers

resistance to neomycin and kanamycin (**Table 1**). In brief, DinoIII-*neo* was linearized and

electroporated using the Nucleofector optimization pulse codes, buffer SF/Solution I (Lonza),

and 2 μg/μl of linearized DinoIII-*neo*. Electroporated cells were selected under 150 μg/ml

kanamycin 3 days post-electroporation. Fresh seawater with kanamycin was added every 2

weeks to the cultures and new subcultures were inoculated monthly. After 3 months, DNA

and RNA were isolated from the resistant cultures as previously reported[42] and cDNA was

synthesized using random hexamers. Out of 16 transformations, 2 cell lines (CA-137, DS-

138) showed stable growth under kanamycin selection. CA-137 developed dense cultures

after 3 months, and the resistance gene was detected in both DNA and RNA by nested PCR

and RT-PCR, respectively (**Fig. 4e; Suppl. Fig. 8; Online Methods**).

We improved the transformation protocol[16,17] of *P. marinus,* a pathogen of marine

mollusks, fish, and amphibians[43] (**Suppl. Table 5**). We co-expressed 2 genes and efficiently

selected transient and stable transformants using FACS (**Table 1; Figs. 2** and **4f; Suppl. Fig.**

9; Online Methods). In addition, we established the integration profile of ectopic DNA once

introduced into the *P. marinus* genome. We did not see evidence of integration through

homologous recombination and observed a propensity for plasmid fragmentation and

integration within transposable elements sites. An optimized alternative protocol for

transformation using glass bead abrasion was also developed. Two versions of the previously

published *Moe* gene promoter[16] were tested. Whereas the 1.0 kb promoter version induced

expression after 2 or 3 days, the truncated version (0.5 kb) took 7 days for expression to be

detected. Resistance genes to zeocin, blasticidin and puromycin have all been shown to

confer resistance to transformed *P. marinus*; however, selection regimes are still relatively

slow and inefficient, indicating further room for improvement[17].

We also report a new vector for the transformation of the *A. carterae* chloroplast, a

photosynthetic dinoflagellate. *A. carterae,* like other dinoflagellates with a peridinin-

containing chloroplast, contains a fragmented chloroplast genome made up of multiple

plasmid-like minicircles[40]. The previous transformation protocols made use of this to

introduce two vectors based on the psbA minicircle[15]. Here, we show that other minicircles

are also suitable for use as vectors. We created a new artificial minicircle, using the atpB

minicircle as a backbone, but replacing the *atpB* gene with a codon-optimized

chloramphenicol acetyl transferase (**Table 1; Online Methods**). This circular vector was

introduced by biolistics to *A. carterae* (**Suppl. Fig. 10a**). Following selection with

chloramphenicol, we were able to detect transcription of the chloramphenicol acetyl

transferase gene via RT-PCR (**Fig. 4g**). This result suggests that all 20 or so minicircles in the

dinoflagellate chloroplast genome would be suitable for use as artificial minicircles, thus

providing a large pool of potential vectors.

Discobans. This diverse group, recently split into Discoba and Metamonada[44], includes

heterotrophs, photoautotrophs, predatory mixotrophs, as well parasites. Discobans include

parasitic kinetoplastids with clinical significance, such as *Trypanosoma brucei*, *T. cruzi* and

Leishmania spp., for which efficient transformation protocols are available[45]. However, such

protocols are missing for aquatic species. Here, we describe available transformation

protocols for the kinetoplastid *Bodo saltans* and the heterolobosean *Naegleria gruberi*. The

former was isolated from a lake, but identical 18S rRNA gene sequences have been reported

from marine environments[46]. The latter is a freshwater protist that represents a model

organism for closely related marine heterolobosean amoebas. Furthermore, we provide

advanced methods that build on prior EMS results[18] for the diplonemid *Diplonema*

papillatum.

B. saltans (ATCC 30904) was transformed with a plasmid containing a cassette

designed to fuse an endogenous *EF-1α* gene with *eGFP* for C-terminal tagging. This cassette

includes downstream of *eGFP*, a *B. saltans* tubulin intergenic region followed by the

selectable marker *nptII/neo* gene, conferring resistance to neomycin. *EF-1α* genes exist in

tandem repeats. The homologous regions that flank the cassette were chosen as targets for

inducing homology-directed repair, however, they target only one copy of the gene. As

transcription in *B. saltans* is polycistronic[46], insertion of the tubulin intergenic region into the

plasmid is essential for polyadenylation of the *EF1-α/GFP* fusion and *trans*-splicing of the

nptII/neo gene (**Suppl. Table 5**). Selection of transfected cells began with 2 µg/ml of

neomycin added 24 h after electroporation, and this concentration was gradually increased

over 2 weeks to 5 µg/ml (**Table 1; Online Methods**). Cells were washed and subcultured

into fresh selection medium every 4 days, and neomycin-resistant cells emerged 7-9 days

post-electroporation. The eGFP signal was detected 2 days post-electroporation, albeit with

low intensity. This may be due to the inefficient translation of *eGFP* since it has not been

codon-optimized for *B. saltans* (**Fig. 2**). Genotyping analysis 9 months post-transfection

confirmed the presence of the *nptII/neo* gene and at least partial plasmid sequence (**Fig. 4h;**

Suppl. Fig. 10b). However, plasmid integration into the *B. saltans* genome through

homologous recombination is still unconfirmed. This suggests either off-target plasmid

integration or episomal maintenance.

For *N. gruberi* (ATCC 30224) two plasmids were designed. The first one carried the

hygromycin B resistance gene (*hph*) with an actin promoter and terminator, along with an

HA-tagged *eGFP* driven by the ubiquitin promoter and terminator. The second plasmid

carried the *nptII/neo* gene instead. For each individual circular plasmid, 4 µg was

electroporated (**Table 1; Online Methods**). About 48 h after electroporation, dead cells were

removed from the suspension and viable cells were washed with PBS. Afterwards, 300 µg/ml

of hygromycin B or 700 µg/ml of neomycin was added to the fresh media. One to 4 weeks

later, resistant clones were recovered and expression of *eGFP* and/or hygromycin was

confirmed by western blotting (**Suppl. Fig. 11**). Expression of *eGFP* was observed by

epifluorescence microscopy (**Fig. 2; Suppl. Fig. 11**) with ~80% of transformants maintaining

hygromycin B or neomycin resistance in addition to expressing *eGFP*.

D. papillatum (ATCC 50162) was transformed by electroporation using 3 μg a *SwaI*-

linearised fragment (cut from p57-V5+NeoR plasmid) containing the V5-tagged *nptII/neo*

gene flanked by partial regulatory sequences derived from the hexokinase gene of the

kinetoplastid *Blastocrithidia* (strain p57) (**Table 1; Online Methods**) using a published

protocol[18]. About 18 h after electroporation, 75 μg/ml G418 was added to the medium and

after 2 weeks 7 neomycin-resistant clones were recovered. Transcription of *nptII/neo* was

verified in 4 clones by RT-PCR (**Suppl. Fig. 12**) and the expression of the tagged *nptII/neo*

protein was confirmed in 2 clones by western blotting using the α-V5 antibody (**Fig. 4i**).

Opisthokonts

The opisthokont clade Holozoa includes animals and their closest unicellular relatives

choanoflagellates, filastereans, ichthyosporeans, and corallochytreans. The establishment of

genetic tools in non-metazoan holozoans promises to help illuminate the cellular and genetic

foundations of animal multicellularity[47]. Genomic and transcriptomic data are available for

multiple representatives characterized by diverse cell morphologies, some of which can even

form multicellular structures[46]. Untill recently, only transient transformations had been

achieved for some opistokonts such as the filasterean *Capsaspora owczarzaki*[48], the

ichthyosporean *Creolimax fragrantissima*[49] and the choanoflagellate *Salpingoeca rosetta*[21].

Through the EMS initiative, we report on the first evidence for transient transformation of the

ichthyosporean *Abeoforma whisleri*, isolated from the digestive tract of mussels, and review a

recently published stable transformation protocol for *S. rosetta* achieved by using the

selectable puromycin N-acetyl-transferase gene (**Fig. 2**)[22].

All *A. whisleri* life stages are highly sensitive to a variety of methods for

transformation. However, we developed a 4D-nucleofection-based protocol using 16-well

strips, wherein PBS-washed cells were resuspended in 20 µl of buffer P3 (Lonza) containing

40 µg of carrier plasmid (empty pUC19) and 1-5 µg of the reporter plasmid (*A. whisleri* H2B

fused to mVenus fluorescent protein, mVFP) (**Table 1; Online Methods**), and subjected to

code EN-138 (Lonza). Immediately after the pulse, cells were recovered by adding 80 µl of

marine broth (Gibco) prior to plating in 12-well culture plates previously filled with 1 ml

marine broth. After 24 h, ~1% of the culture was transformed based on the fraction of cells

expressing *mVFP* in the nucleus (**Figs. 2** and **4j**).

Microbial eukaryotes in natural planktonic communities

Model organisms are typically selected based on criteria such as relative ease of isolation and

asexual cultivation in the laboratory, however these attributes may not correlate with the

capacity for uptake and expression of the exogenous DNA. We explored whether natural

marine planktonic pico- and nanoeukaryote communities would take up DNA in a culture-

independent setting. Microbial plankton from natural seawater was concentrated and

electroporated with plasmids containing mTagBFP2 under the control of CMV or 35S

promoters (**Suppl. Results; Online Methods**). In most trials, blue fluorescent cells were rare

if detected at all (compared to control samples). However, in one natural community tested, a

photosynthetic picoeukaryote population exhibited up to 50% of cells with transient

expression of blue fluorescence when the CMV promoter was used (**Suppl. Fig. 13**). This

suggests it might be possible to selectively culture eukaryotic microorganisms based on

capacity to express exogenous DNA.

Discussion

The collaborative effort by the EMS initiative facilitated identification and optimization of

the steps required to create new protist model systems, which culminated in the synthetic

'Transformation Roadmap' (**Fig. 5**). Our genetic manipulation systems for aquatic (largely

marine) protists will enable deeper insights into their cell biology, with potentially valuable

outcomes for aquatic sciences, evolutionary studies, nanotechnology, biotechnology,

medicine, and pharmacology. Successes and failures with selectable markers, transformation

conditions, and reporters were qualitatively compared across species (**Suppl. Tables 3** and **4;**

Table 1; Figs. 2, 3 and **4; Online Methods**).

For some of the selected species, the first step was to identify cultivation conditions

for robust growth in the laboratory to either generate high cell densities or large culture

volumes for obtaining sufficient biomass required for a variety of molecular biology

experiments. Unlike established microbial model species, cultivation of marine protists can

be challenging especially under axenic conditions or for predatory taxa that require co-

cultivation with their prey. Nevertheless, 13 out of 35 species were rendered axenic prior to

the development of transformation protocols. For the remaining species, we were unable to

remove bacteria and therefore had to make sure that transformation signals were coming from

the targeted protist rather than contaminants (**Suppl. Table 2**). Subsequent steps included the

identification of suitable antibiotics and their corresponding selectable markers (**Table 1;**

Suppl. Table 3), conditions for introducing exogenous DNA (**Table 1; Suppl. Table 4**), and

selection of promoter and terminator sequences for designing transformation vectors (**Table**

1; Online Methods – Suppl. Table 5 and Suppl. Notes 1).

As exemplified in the new model systems provided herein (**Table 1; Figs. 2, 3** and **4**),

a variety of methods were used to test whether exogenous DNA was integrated into the

genome or maintained as a plasmid, and whether the introduced genes were expressed.

Approaches to show the former included inverse PCR, Southern blotting and whole genome

sequencing, whereas approaches to demonstrate the latter included various combinations of

PCR, RT-PCR, western blotting, epifluorescence microscopy, FACS, antibody-based

methods, and/or growth assays in the presence of antibiotics to confirm transcription and

translation of introduced selection and reporter genes (e.g. *eGFP*, *YFP*, *mCherry*). For

fluorescent markers, it was first ensured that the wild type, or manipulated controls cells, had

no signals conflicting with the marker (**Figs. 2** and **3c**), an important step because

photosynthetic protists contain chlorophyll and other autofluorescent pigments. Overall

transformation outcomes for each species were parsed into three groups according to the level

of success or lack thereof (A = first transformation protocol for a given species; B =

advanced protocol based on prior work; C = published protocol based on the EMS initiative)

and are discussed according to their phylogenetic position (**Fig. 1**).

Our studies did not result in a universally applicable protocol because transformability

and a range of other key conditions varied greatly across taxa and approaches, such as

intrinsic features of the genome and differences in cellular structure and morphology. In

general, electroporation proved to be the most common method for introducing exogenous

DNA stably into cells. This approach was utilized for naked cells and protoplasts, yet

frequently also worked, albeit with lower efficiency, on cells protected by cell walls.

Linearized plasmids were most effective for delivery, and 5' and 3' UTRs-containing

promotors of highly expressed endogenous genes provided the strongest expression of

selective reporters and markers. If successful, teams usually continued with fluorescence-

based methods. Furthermore, large amounts of carrier DNA usually facilitated successful

initial transformations (e.g. *M. commoda*, *A. whisleri*) or improved existing protocols (*S.*

rosetta[21]). We also provide the contact details of all co-authors who are assigned to particular

species (**Suppl. Table 6**).

Some lineages were difficult to transform, especially dinoflagellates and

coccolithophores. Here, even if DNA appeared to be delivered (**Suppl. Table 5**), expression

of the transformed genes could not be confirmed. Examples include the dinoflagellates *C.*

cohnii and *Symbiodinium microadriaticum,* and the coccolithophore *E. huxleyi*. Thus, at least

these 3 species need concerted future efforts.

The combination of results presented herein together with previously published

protocols from the EMS initiative[50] significantly expands the segment of extant eukaryotic

diversity amenable to reverse genetics approaches. Out of the 39 microbial eukaryotes

selected for the initiative, exogenous DNA was delivered and expressed in more than 50% of

them. The transformation systems enable us for the first time to shed light on the function of

species-specific genes, which likely reflect key adaptations to specific niches in dynamic

ocean habitats.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank M. Salisbury and D. Iacono, C. Poirier, M. Hamilton, C. Eckmann, H. Igel, C.

Yung and K. Hoadley for assistance; and V. K. Nagarajan, M. Accerbi, and P. J. Green who

carried out *Agrobacterium* studies in *Heterosigma akashiwo*; and N. Kraeva, C. Bianchi and

V. Yurchenko for the help with designing the p57-V5+NeoR construct. We are also grateful

to the protocols.io team (L. Teytelman and A. Broellochs) for their support and thank four

anonymous reviewers for their constructive criticisms of our manuscript. This collaborative

effort was supported by the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation EMS Program of the

Marine Microbiology Initiative (grant numbers: GBMF4972 and 4972.01 to F.Y.B.;

GBMF4970 and 4970.01 to M.A. & A.Z.W.; GBMF3788 to A.Z.W.; GBMF 4968 and

4968.01 to H.C.; GBMF4984 to V.H.; GBMF4974 and 4974.01 to C. Brownlee; GBMF4964

to Y. Hirakawa; GBMF4961 to T. Mock; GBMF4958 to P.S.; GBMF4957 to A.T.;

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The project was conceived and designed by A.C.J., J.Z.K., S.B., D.F., J.L., R.E.R.N.,

J.A.F.R., E.C., L.S., A.Z.W., T. Mock, A.E.A., F.Y.B, C. Brownlee, C. Bowler, H.C., T.C.,

J.L.C., K.C., C.L.D., V.E., V.H., Y. Hirakawa., C.J.H., P.J.K., N.K., S.L., C.M., J.M., I.R.T.,

P.A.S., C.H.S., G.J.S., A.D.T., P.V.D., A.T. and R.F.W. Data analysis was carried out by

M.A.J., C.A., C. Balestreri, A.C.B., P.B., D.S.B., S.A.B., G.B., R.C., M.A.C., D.B.C.,

E.C.C., R.D., E.E., P.A.E., F.F., V.F.B., N.J.F., K.F., P.A.G., P.R.G., F.G., S.G.G., J.G., Y.

Hanawa, E.R.H.C., E.H., A. Highfield, A. Hopes, I.H., J.I., N.A.T.I., Y.I., N.E.J., A.K.,

K.F.K., B.K., E.K., L.A.K., N.L., I.L., Z.L., J.C.L., F.L., S.M., T. Matute, M.M., S.R.N.,

D.N., I.C.N., L.N., A.M.G.N.V., M.N., I.N., A. Pain, A. Piersanti, S.P., J.P., J.S.R., M.R.,

D.R., A.R., M.A.S., E.C.S., B.N.S., R.S.,T.V.H., L.T., J.T., M.V., V.V., L.W., X.W., G.W.,

A.W. and H.Z. The manuscript was written by D.F., R.E.R.N., J.A.F.R., E.C., L.S., T. Mock,

A.Z.W. and J.L. with input from all authors.

COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT

643   The authors declare no competing interests.

645 **REFERENCES**
646
647
1. Worden, A. Z., Follows, M. J., Giovannoni, S. J., Wilken, S., Zimmerman, A. E. &

Keeling, P. J. Rethinking the marine carbon cycle: Factoring in the multifarious lifestyles

of microbes. *Science* **347**, 1257594 (2015).

2. de Vargas, C. et al. Eukaryotic plankton diversity in the sunlit global ocean. *Science* **348**,

1261605 (2015).

3. Collier, J. L. & Rest, J. S. Swimming, gliding, and rolling toward the mainstream: cell

biology of marine protists. *Mol. Biol. Cell.* **30**, 1245-1248 (2019).

4. Curtis, B. A. et al. Algal genomes reveal evolutionary mosaicism and the fate of

nucleomorphs. *Nature* **492**, 59–65 (2012).

5. Armbrust, E. V. et al. The genome of the diatom *Thalassiosira pseudonana*: ecology,

evolution, and metabolism. *Science* **306**: 79-86 (2004).

6. Read, B. A. et al. Pan genome of the phytoplankton *Emiliania* underpins its global

distribution. *Nature* **499**, 209-213 (2013).

7. Keeling P. J. et al. The Marine Microbial Eukaryote Transcriptome Sequencing Project

(MMETSP): illuminating the functional diversity of eukaryotic life in the oceans through

transcriptome sequencing. *PLoS Biol*. **12**, e1001889 (2014).

8. Nymark, M., Sharma, A. K., Sparstad, T., Bones, A. M. & Winge, P. A. CRISPR/Cas9

system adapted for gene editing in marine algae. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 24951 (2016).

9. Hopes, A., Nekrasov, V., Kamoun, S. & Mock, T. Editing of the urease gene by

CRISPR-Cas in the diatom *Thalassiosira pseudonana*. *Plant Methods* **12**, 49 (2016).

668 10. Carradec, Q. et al. A global atlas of eukaryotic genes. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 373 (2018).

669 11. Apt, K. E., Kroth-Pancic, P. G. & Grossman, A. R. Stable nuclear transformation of the

670  diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*. *Mol. Gen. Genet*. **252**, 572-579 (1996).

671 12. Paschke, P. et al. Genetic engineering of *Dictyostelium discoideum* cells based on

672  selection and growth on bacteria. *J. Vis. Exp.* **143**, e58981 (2019).

673 13. Karas, B. J. et al. Designer diatom episomes delivered by bacterial conjugation. *Nat.*

674  *Commun.* **6**, 6925 (2015).

675 14. Hirakawa, Y., Kofuji, R. & Ishida, K. Transient transformation of a chlorarachniophyte

676  alga, *Lotharella amoebiformis* (chlorarachniophyceae), with *uidA* and *egfp* reporter

677  genes. *J. Phycol*. **44**, 814–20 (2008).

678 15. Nimmo, I. C. et al. Genetic transformation of the dinoflagellate chloroplast. *eLife* **8**,

679  e45292 (2019).

680 16. Fernández Robledo, J. A., Lin, Z. & Vasta, G. R. Transfection of the protozoan parasite

681  *Perkinsus marinus. Mol. Biochem. Parasitol*. **157**, 44-53 (2008).

682 17. Sakamoto, H., Hirakawa, Y., Ishida, K. I., Keeling, P. J., Kita, K. & Matsuzaki M.

683  Puromycin selection for stable transfectants of the oyster-infecting parasite *Perkinsus*

684  *marinus. Parasitol. Int*. **69**, 13-16 (2018).

685 18. Kaur, B. et al. Transformation of *Diplonema papillatum*, the type species of the highly

686  diverse and abundant marine micro-eukaryotes Diplonemida (Euglenozoa). *Env.*

687  *Microbiol*. **20**, 1030-1040 (2018).

19. Diao, J., Song, X., Zhang, X., Chen, L. & Zhang W. Genetic engineering of

Crypthecodinium cohnii to increase growth and lipid accumulation. *Front Microbiol*. 9,

492 (2018).

20. Sakaguchi K. et al. Versatile transformation system that is applicable to both multiple

transgene expression and gene targeting for thraustochytrids. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*

78: 3193-3202 (2012).

21. Booth, D., Middleton, H. & King, N. Choanoflagellate transfection illuminates their cell

biology and the ancestry of animal septins. *Mol. Biol. Cell.* **29**, 3026-38 (2018).

22. Wetzel, L. A. et al. Predicted glycosyltransferases promote development and prevent

spurious cell clumping in the choanoflagellate *S. rosetta. eLife* **7,** e41482 (2018).

23. van Baren, M. J. et al. Evidence-based green algal genomics reveals marine diversity and

ancestral characteristics of land plants. *BMC Genomics* **17**, 1–22 (2016).

24. Lozano, J. C. et al. Efficient gene targeting and removal of foreign DNA by homologous

recombination in the picoeukaryote *Ostreococcus*. *Plant J*. **78**, 1073-1083 (2014).

25. Van Ooijen, G., Knox, K., Kis, K., Bouget, F. Y. & Millar, A. J. Genomic transformation

of the picoeukaryote *Ostreococcus tauri. J. Vis. Exp*. **65**, e4074 (2012).

26. Hovde, B. T. et al. Genome sequence and transcriptome analyses of *Chrysochromulina*

tobin: Metabolic tools for enhanced algal fitness in the prominent order Prymnesiales

(Haptophyceae). *PLoS Genet*. **11**, e1005469 (2015).

27. Endo, H., Yoshida, M., Uji, T., Saga, N., Inoue, K. & Nagasawa, H. Stable nuclear

transformation system for the coccolithophorid alga *Pleurochrysis carterae. Sci. Rep.* **6**,

22252 (2016).

28. Dörner, J., Carbonell, P., Pino, S. & Farias, A. Variation of fatty acids in *Isochrysis*

galbana (T-Iso) and *Tetraselmis suecica*, cultured under different nitrate availabilities. *J.*

Fish. Aquacult. **5**, 1-3 (2014).

29. Dunahay, T. G., Jarvis, E. E. & Roessler, P. G. Genetic transformation of the diatoms

Cyclotella cryptica and *Navicula saprophila. J. Phycol.* **31**, 1004–1012 (1995).

30. Field, C. B., Behrenfeld, M. J., Randerson, J. T. & Falkowski, P. Primary production of

the biosphere: Integrating terrestrial and oceanic components. *Science* **281**, 237-240

(1998).

31. Mishra, M., Arukha, A. P., Bashir, T., Yadav, D. & Prasad, G. B. K. S. All new faces of

diatoms: Potential source of nanomaterials and beyond. *Front. Microbiol.* **8**, 1239 (2017).

32. Mock, T. et al. Evolutionary genomics of the cold-adapted diatom *Fragilariopsis*

cylindrus. Nature **541**, 536–540 (2017).

33. Brunson, J. K. et al. Biosynthesis of the neurotoxin domoic acid in a bloom-forming

diatom. *Science* **361**, 1356-1358 (2018).

34. Kroth, P. G. Genetic transformation: A tool to study protein targeting in diatoms.

Methods Mol. Biol. **390**, 257–267 (2007).

35. Sabatino, V., Russo, M. T., Patil, S., d'Ippolito, G., Fontana, A. & Ferrante, M. I.

Establishment of genetic transformation in the sexually reproducing diatoms Pseudo-

nitzschia multistriata and *Pseudo-nitzschia arenysensis* and inheritance of the transgene.

Marine Biotech. **17**, 452-462 (2015).

36. Ono, K., Aki, T. & Kawamoto, S. Method for introducing a gene into

labyrinthulomycota. US Patent 7,888,123 (2011).

37. Kilian, O., Benemann, C. S., Niyogi, K. K. & Vick, B. High-efficiency homologous

recombination in the oil-producing alga *Nannochloropsis* sp. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*

108, 21265-21269 (2011).

38. Duda, K. et al. High-efficiency genome editing via 2A-coupled co-expression of

fluorescent proteins and zinc finger nucleases of CRISPR/Cas9 nicase pairs. *Nucl. Acids.*

Res. **42**, e84 (2014).

39. Donald, R. G. & Roos, D. S. Stable molecular transformation of *Toxoplasma gondii*: a

selectable dihydrofolate reductase-thymidylate synthase marker based on drug-resistance

mutations in malaria. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **90**, 11703-11707 (1993).

40. Barbrook, A. C., Howe, C.J. & Nisbet, R.E.R. Breaking up is hard to do: the complexity

of the dinoflagellate chloroplast genome. *Perspect. Phycol*. **6**, 31-37 (2019).

41. Sprecher, B. N., Zhang, H. & Lin, S. Nuclear gene transformation in the dinoflagellate

Oxyrrhis marina. *Microorganisms* **8**, 126 (2020).

42. Zhang, H., Campbell, D. A., Sturm, N. R., Rosenblad, M. A., Dungan, C. F. & Lin, S.

Signal recognition particle RNA in dinoflagellates and the perkinsid *Perkinsus marinus*.

Protist **164**, 748-761 (2013).

43. Chambouvet, A. et al. Cryptic infection of a broad taxonomic and geographic diversity

of tadpoles by Perkinsea protists. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **112**, E4743-4751 (2015).

44. Adl, S. M. et al Revision to the classification, nomenclature and diversity of eukaryotes.

J. Euk. Microbiol. **66**, 4-119 (2019).

45. Matthews, K. R. 25 years of African trypanosome research: From description to

molecular dissection and new drug discovery. *Mol. Biochem. Parasitol.* **200**, 30-40

(2015).

46. Opperdoes, F. R., Butenko, A., Flegontov, P., Yurchenko, V. & Lukeš, J. Comparative

metabolism of free-living *Bodo saltans* and parasitic trypanosomatids. *J. Eukaryot.*

Microbiol. **63**, 657-678 (2016).

47. Richter, D. J., Fozouni, P., Eisen, M. & King, N. Gene family innovation, conservation

and loss on the animal stem lineage. *eLife* **7**, 1–43 (2018).

48. Parra-Acero, H. et al. Transfection of *Capsaspora owczarzaki*, a close unicellular

relative of animals. *Development* **145**, 162107 (2018).

49. Suga, H. & Ruiz-Trillo, I. Development of ichthyosporean sheds light on the origin of

metazoan multicellularity. *Dev. Biol.* **377**, 284-292 (2013).

50. Waller, R. F. et al. Strength in numbers: collaborative science for new experimental

model systems. *PLoS Biol.* **16**, e2006333 (2018).

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. | Phylogenetic relationships and transformation status of marine protists. A

schematic view of the eukaryotic tree of life with effigies of main representatives. Colour-

coordinated species we have attempted to genetically modify are listed below. Current

transformability status is schematized in circles indicating: DNA delivered and shown to be

expressed (yellow; for details see text and Table 1); DNA delivered, but no expression seen

(grey); no successful transformation achieved despite efforts (blue). The details of

transformation of species that belong to "DNA delivered" and "Not achieved yet" categories

are described in the **Suppl. Table 5**.

Fig. 2. | Epifluorescence micrographs of transformed marine protists

Representative images of transformants and wild-type cell lines of 10 selected protist species.

Colored boxes behind species names refer to phylogenetic supergroup assignments given in

Fig. 1. Representative data of at least two independent experiments are shown. The

fluorescent images show the expression of individual fluorescent marker genes introduced via

transformation for all organisms shown, except in the case of *A. amoebiformis*. For the latter,

red depicts the natural autofluorescence of photosynthetic pigments in the cell, while the

additional green spheres in the transformant fluorescence panel shows introduced GFP

fluorescence (see **Suppl. Fig. 15C** for a trace of these different regions in the cell). Scale bars

are as follows: 10 µm for *A. amoebiformis*, *T. pseudonana*, *A. limacinum*, *B. saltans*, *N.*

gruberi, *A. whisleri*, and *S. rosetta*; 15 µm for *P. marinus*; 20 µm for *F. cylindrus*; 100 µm

for *P. multiseries*.

Fig. 3. | Various methods were used to demonstrate successful transformation in

different archaeplastid species – Luminescence and Fluorescence.

Luminescence and Fluorescence (by FACS and epifluorescence microscopy) were used to

verify expression of introduced constructs in three archaeplastids - *O. lucimarinus*, *B.*

prasinos, and *M. commoda* (**a, b, c**). For the latter, red in the image depicts the natural

autofluorescence of photosynthetic pigments in the cell, while green shows introduced eGFP

fluorescence and blue shows the DAPI stained nucleus; the overlay shows colocalization of

eGFP and nucleus signals. See Supplementary Fig. 15d for a trace of these different regions

in the cell. NS, not significant; trans., transformed. Representative data of at least two

independent experiments are shown. For detailed figure description see **Suppl. Notes 2**.

Fig. 4. | Various methods were used to demonstrate successful transformation in

different species - RT-PCR, western blot and sequencing.

Western blot, RT-PCR or sequencing (in case of Cas9-induced excision by CRISPR) were

used to verify expression of introduced constructs in one haptophyte – *I. galbana* (**a**), one

rhizarian – *A. amoebiformis* (**b**), two stramenopiles – *F. cylindrus* and *P. tricornutum* (**c, d**),

three alveolates – *K. veneficum*, *P. marinus* and *A. carterae* (**e, f, g**), two discobans – *B.*

saltans and *D. papillatum* (**h, i**) and one opisthokont – *A. whisleri* (**j**). Note that *nptII/neo* is

used synonymously with amino 3'-glycosyl phosphotransferase gene (*aph(3')*) conferring

resistance to kanamycin and neomycin. Representative data of at least two independent

experiments are shown. For detailed figure description see **Suppl. Notes 2**.

Fig. 5. | '**Transformation Roadmap' for the creation of genetically tractable protists.**

(**a**) **Vector design and construction for microeukaryotes of interest and a natural**

community. (**b**) **Transformation approaches**. Different symbols represent methods (e.g.

chemical, physical or biological) for introducing DNA/RNA/protein into a living cell. (**c**)

Protocol. Key methodological steps for successful transformation are listed in an abbreviated

form (for particular examples, see Table 1 and text).

Table 1: Parameters used for successful transformation as shown in Figs. 2, 3 and 4.

For additional information see **Suppl. Tables 5, 7 and 8** and **Suppl. Notes 1** and

protocols.io. For contacting laboratories working with particular species, see details given in

Suppl. Table 6.

ONLINE METHODS

Studied species and used transformation methods.

For the full list of vector sequences and maps see **Suppl. Notes 1** and for detailed description

of **Figs. 3 and 4** see **Suppl. Notes 2.** Antibiotic concentrations effective for selection of

transformats can be found in **Suppl. Table 3**, the details of the transformation methods

applied to this study in **Suppl. Table 4** and contact details for individual laboratories in

Suppl. Table 6. Full list of protists (including details of culture collection) and links to the

complete step-by steps transformation protocols and published vector sequences are listed in

Suppl. Table 5. The protocols.io links listed in **Table 1** and **Suppl. Table 5** are summarized

in **Suppl. Tables 7** and **8.**

Life Sciences Reporting Summary

Further information is available in the Life Sciences Reporting Summary.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors

as well as the other authors upon request (for the contacts see **Suppl. Table 6**). Source data

for **Fig. 3, Fig. 4** and **Suppl. Figs. 9B, C; 11A** and **12B, C** are available online.

Fig. 1

Archaeplastids

Ostreococcus lucimarinus	●	A	○ ⊙ ⌇	R		
Bathycoccus prasinos	●	A	○ ⌇	R		
Micromonas commoda	●	A	○ ⌇			
Micromonas pusilla	●		○ ⌇ ✕ ✕ ✕			
Tetraselmis striata	●	A	○ ⊙ ⌇	R		
Pyramimonas parkeae	●		○ ⌇ ✕ ✕ ✕ ✕			

Haptophytans

Isochrysis galbana	●	A	○ ⊙ ⌇	R	
Emiliania huxleyi	●		○ ✕		

Rhizarians

Amorphochlora amoebiformis	●	B[14]	○ ⊙ ⌇	
Bigelowiella natans	●		○ ✕ ✕	

Stramenopiles

Fragilariopsis cylindrus	●	A	○ ⊙ ⌇	R	
Thalassiosira pseudonana	●	B[9,13]	○ ✕ ✕	R	
Seminavis robusta	●		○ ✕ ✕		
Pseudo-nitzschia multiseries	●	A	○ ⊙ ⌇		
Heterosigma akashiwo	●		○ ⌇		
Aurantiochytrium limacinum	●	B[20]	○ ⌇	R	
Caecitellus sp.	●		⌇		
Nannochloropsis oceanica	●	A	○ ⌇		
Phaeodactylum tricornutum	●	B[9,11]	○ ⊙ ⌇	R	

Alveolates

Euplotes crassus	●		⌇ ○ ✕ ✕ ✕
Euplotes focardii	●		⌇ ✕ ✕ ✕
Chromera velia	●		⌇ ○ ✕ ✕
Perkinsus marinus	●	B[16,17]	○ ⌇ ⊙ R
Oxyrrhis marina	●	A	⌇ ⊙
Hematodinium sp.	●		○ ✕ ✕
Fugacium (Symbiodinium) kawagutii	●		○ ✕ ✕
Alexandrium catenella	●		○ ✕ ✕

Breviolum (Symbiodinium) sp. etc.

Breviolum (Symbiodinium) sp.	●		○ ✕	
Crypthecodinium cohnii	●	B[19]	⌇ ✕ ✕	
Amphidinium carterae (chloroplast)	●	B[15]	○ ⊙ ✕ ✕ ○	R
Karlodinium veneficum	●	A	○ ⌇	R

Discobans

Bodo saltans	●	A	○ ⌇	R
Diplonema papillatum	●	B[18]	○ ⌇	R
Eutreptiella gymnastica	●		○ ⌇ ✕ ✕	
Naegleria gruberi	●	A	○ ⌇	R

Opisthokonts

Pirum gemmata	●		⌇ ✕ ✕	
Sphaeroforma arctica	●		○ ✕ ✕	
Abeoforma whisleri	●	A	○ ⌇	
Salpingoeca rosetta	●	C[21,22]	○ ⌇	R

Natural Communities

Pico-Eukaryotes	●	A	○ ⌇

TRANSFORMATION STATUS

- ● DNA delivered and expressed
- ● DNA delivered
- ● Not yet achieved

A First successful transformation of a particular species

B Alternative transformation / or improvement of the existing transformation method

C Review of an already published / existing protocol

CONSTRUCT

- ○ Homologous
- ○ Heterologous
- ⌇ Labeled DNA
- ⌇ mRNA
- FITC–Dextran

DELIVERY SYSTEM

- Chemical
- Electroporation
- Conjugation
- Biolistics
- Glass beads abrasion
- Microinjection

R Resistance selection   CRISPR/Cas9   ✕ Did not work

Fig. 2

Transformed cells

Fluorescence   Bright field

Wild-type

Fluorescence   Bright field

Perkinsus marinus

Bodo saltans

Naegleria gruberi

Abeoforma whisleri

Salpingoeca rosetta

Amorphochlora amoebiformis

Fragilariopsis cylindrus

Thalassiosira pseudonana

Pseudo-nitzschia multiseries

Aurantiochytrium limacinum

Fig. 3

a — Luminescence — *Ostreococcus lucimarinus*

Luminescence (RLU): 35000, 25000, 15000, 5000

Transformant name: G5, B7, G6-1, H2, C2, G6-2, B10, C10 | WT | H2O

G418 resistant and luminescent clones | WT | H2O

Ladder, 3299 bp

b — *Bathycoccus prasinos*

Luminescence (RLU): 2500, 2000, 500

Transformant name: A1, A3, A5, A7, A9, A11, B1, B2, WT, H2O

Ladder

1, 2 — 756 bp
3, 4 — 2204 bp

c — Fluorescence — *Micromonas commoda*

Wild Type | Transformed
Chlorophyll fluores. — Gate 1
Gate 1 cells only | Gate 1 cells only
eGFP fluores.
Forward Angle Light Scatter (FALS)
Transformed cells

eGFP fluorescence (520/35 nm): 60, 40, 20, 0
No pulse | Non-Trans. | All Trans. | High (eGFP)
Pulse EW-113
n.s.
***
*** , $p<0.001$
n.s., not significant

Transformation efficiency (% cells): 10, 5
All | High
Transformed (eGFP)

Fig. 4

RT-PCR

a *Isochrysis galbana* — Transgene: *NAT*

c *Fragilariopsis cylindrus* — Transgene: *eGFP* (-488), Transgene: *ShBle* (-421), Endogenous gene: *rhodopsin* (-553)

e *Karlodinium veneficum* — Transgene: *nptII/neo*

g *Amphidinium carterae* — Transgene: *CAT* (-560)

h *Bodo saltans* — Transgene: *nptII/neo*

j *Abeoforma whisleri* — *mVenus*, *H2B*

Western Blots

b *Amorphochlora amoebiformis* — anti-GFP

f *Perkinsus marinus* — anti-GFP, anti-HIS H3

i *Diplonema papillatum* — anti-V5, anti-α-tubulin

CRISPR/Cas9

d *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*

| Colonies: | screened: 30 | Cas9 activity: 29 | 38-bp excision:19 | Excision Rate: | 63.3% |

Fig. 5

a

Vector construction

b

Transformation approaches

Chemical — Lipofection · Calcium phosphate · Dendrimers

Physical — Glass beads abrasion · Biolistics · Cuvette · Microfluidics (Electroporation) · Microinjection

Biological — Conjugation

c

Protocol

Organism

• Description (life cycle stages)
• Strain
• Growth conditions and media
• Maximum cell density
• Autofluorescence
• Genome/transcriptome availability
• Cryopreservation

Resistance markers

• Antibiotics tested
• Assay used
• Resistance/sensitivity (IC_{50})

Constructs

• Construct name
• Origin
• Annotation
  - Promoter
  - UTRs
  - Flanking regions
  - Resistance
• Nature
  - Autonomously replicating
  - Integrative
  - Transiently

Transformation

• Method
• Parameters
  - Buffer composition
  - Program
• Cell stage and density
• DNA concentration
• Drug selection
  - Concentration
  - Time
• Efficiency

Transformants

• Clones examined
• Proof of nucleic acid uptake
  - Isolation of total DNA
  - PCR verification
  - Southern blot
• Plasmid maintenance
  - Chromosomal integration
  - Episomal
• Transcription
  - RT-PCR
  - Northern blot
• Translation
  - Western blot
  - Epifluorescence microscopy
  - Protein localization
• Phenotype
  - Growth curve
  - Description

Table 1: Parameters used for successful transformation as shown in Figs. 2, 3 and 4.

For additional information, see protocols.io links, Suppl. Table 5 and Supplementary Notes 1. For contacting laboratories working with particular species, see details given in Suppl. Table 6.

Species	Transformation Method/ Device	Cell number (input)	Vector;Amount (µg)	Promotor	Regulatory elements	Drug selection (µg/ml)	Time selection (Day)	Efficiency (%)	Transformation status (Stable/ Transient)	Reporter	Evidence of transformation	protocols.io link
Archaeoplastids												
Ostreococcus lucimarinus (RCC802)	Electroporation Genepulser II	1-2x10^9	Plasmid PotLuc; Linear; 5	HAPT, Histone H4 *O. tauri*	None	G418 (1000)	10-21	<0.0001	S	Luc	G418 resist, Luminescence, PCR	https://www.protocols.io/view/selection-of-stable-transformants-in-ostreococcus-zj2f4qe https://www.protocols.io/view/transient-luciferase-expression-in-ostreococcus-ot-hcib2ue https://www.protocols.io/view/transient-transformation-of-ostreococcus-species-o-g86bzze
Bathycoccus prasinos (RCC4222)	Electroporation Genepulser II	1-2x10^9	Fusion PCR; *pHAPT: pLucpH4:KanM*; Linear; 5	HAPT, Histone H4 Endogenous	None	G418 (1000)	10-21	<0.0001	S	Luc	G418 resist, Luminescence PCR	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.g86bzze http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.zj2f4qe http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.hcib2ue
Micromonas commoda (CCMP 2709)	Electroporation Lonza-Nucleofector	3 x 10^7	RPS9pro^{Mco}-eGFP-NLS-RPS9ter in pUC05-AMP; Circular; 10-20	Endogenous, ribosomal protein S9;	Endogenous, ribosomal protein S9;	n/a	2-6	5.6±1.3	T*	eGFP	Per cell eGFP Fluorescence, Fluorescence microscopy	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.8p9hvr6
	Electroporation Lonza-Nucleofector	3 x 10^7	H3pro^{Mpo}-LUC-H3ter in pUC05-AMP; Circular; 10-20	Histone H3 5' UTR from *M. polaris*	Histone H3 3' end formation -histone stem loop from *M. polaris*	n/a	3	n/a (Luc. assay is bulk, not per cell)	T*	NanoLuc®	Luminescence	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.8p8hvrw
Tetraselmis striata (KAS-836)	Biorad Biolistics PDS-1000/He biolistics system	2.0x10^7	pACTpro:Ble; Linear; 1.0	Actin, *T. striata*	Actin, *T. striata*	Zeocin (150)	21-28		S		Zeocin resist, PCR	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.hjtb4nn
Haptophytes												
Isochrysis galbana (CCMP 1323)	Biolistics PDS-1000/He	1-2x10^6	pIgNAT; Circular; 1.0	Hsp70 *E. huxleyi*	Heterologous	Nourseothricin (80-150)	14	<0.0001	S	None	Nourseothricin resistance, PCR, RT-PCR	https://www.protocols.io/view/biolistic-transformation-of-isochrysis-galbana-2pugdnw https://www.protocols.io/view/method-for-electroporation-of-isochrysis-galbana-c-hmab42e
Rhizarians												
Amorphochlora (Lotharella) amoebiformis (CCMP 2058)	Electroporation Gene Pulser Xcell	0.5-1×10^7	GFP-Rubisco; Circular; 30-50	rbcS1, Endogenous	rbcS1 Endogenous	*Manual selection of fluorescent cells	n/a	n/a	S/T	GFP	Fluorescence, Western blot	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.35hgq36
Stramenopiles												
Fragilariopsis cylindrus (CCMP 1102)	Biorad Biolistics PDS-1000/He biolistics system	5x10^7	pUC:FCP:ShBle:FCP:e GFP; Circular; 1.0	FCP, Endogenous	None	Zeocin (100)	21 – 49	0.00003 (30 cfu/10^8 cells)	S	eGFP	Zeocin resist, Fluorescence, PCR, RT-PCR	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.z39f8r6 https://www.protocols.io/view/biolistic-transformation-of-polar-diatom-fragilari-z39f8r6
Thalassiosira pseudonana (CCMP 1335)	Bacterial conjugation	4x10^7	TpSII3p-eGFP in pTpPuc3; Circular; n/a	Endogenous	Endogenous	Nourseothricin (100 in plates, 200 in liquid culture)	~14	~10	T	eGFP	Nourseothricin resistance, colony PCR, fluorescence	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.nbzdap6 http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.7ghhjt6
Pseudo-nitzschia multiseries	Conjugation	1x10^5	Pm_actP_egfp_actT; pPtPUC3	Pm actin; Pt fcpB,	None, other than contained in Promoter/term	Manual selection of fluorescent cells in LGTA; zeocin [200],	24h, 7	<0.1%	T	eGFP, shble	Fluorescence, vector targeted PCR on gDNA	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.4pzgvp6
Aurantiochytrium limacinum (ATCC MYA-1381)	Bio – Rad Gene Pulser (165-2076) NEPA21	1×10^8	18GZG 18GeZG plasmid; Linear; 1-10	Endogenous GAPDH	None	Zeocin (100)	5-7	44 per µg of DNA	S	eGFP, shble	Zeocin resist., PCR, Southern, Fluorescence	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.8xyhxpw
Nannochloropsis oceanica (CCMP 1779)	Electroporation Genepulser II	1x10^9	pMOD, Linear/Circular; 0.1-1	CMV	None	None	0.1-1	20 (linear) 1-2 (circular)	T	mTagBFP2	Fluorescence, PCR, RT-PCR	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.h3nb8me
Phaeodactylum tricornutum	Bacterial-conjugation	4x10^7	hCas9-2A-shble PtpBR episome	FcpF-hCas9 psRNA-sgRNA	Cen6-Arsh4-His3 centromere	Phleomycin (50)	10-16	1.25e^{-5} ~500 cfu	S	shble (Cas9) yfp VENUS	Phleoycin resistance, PCR maintained	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.4bmgsk6 http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.7gihjue

Organism	Method	Cells	Construct	Promoter	Terminator	Selection	Sel. time	Efficiency	Stability	Reporter	Detection	Protocol
(CCAP1055/1)			100uL E.coli OD$_{600}$=0.9			Zeocin (100)					episome, PCR Cas9 target site	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.7gnhjve
Alveolates												
Perkinsus marinus (ATCC PRA240)	Electroporation LONZA-Nucleofector Glass beads abrasion (425-600 µm)	5-7x10^7	pPmMOE-GFP; Linear-Circular (1:1); 5	Endogenous	Endogenous	FACS Blasticidin(50-200) Puromycin (10-50) Bleo (50-200)	Drug: 20-60 FACS: 3	0.01-5	S	GFP, mCherry	Fluorescence Sequencing, PCR, Western blot	https://www.protocols.io/view/oyster-parasite-perkinsus-marinus-transformation-u-gv9bw96 https://www.protocols.io/view/glass-beads-based-transformation-protocol-for-perk-g36byre https://www.protocols.io/view/fluorescence-activated-cell-sorting-facs-of-perkin-hh2b38e
Oxyrrhis marina (CCMP 1788, CCMP 1795)	Electroporation Gene Pulser Xcell; Chemical (CaCl$_2$)	1-5×10^6 1x10^5	Fluorescently labelled DNA (5-25 µg) or FITC-dextran; mCherry	n/a Endogenous hsp90	n/a Endogenous hsp90	n/a	n/a	0.5-5%	T	mCherry	Fluorescence	https://www.protocols.io/view/electroporation-of-oxyrrhis-marina-vcne2ve https://www.protocols.io/view/transfection-of-alexa488-labelled-dna-into-oxyrrhi-ha8b2hw https://www.protocols.io/view/electroporation-transformation-of-fitc-dextran-int-3cmgiu6 https://www.protocols.io/view/co-incubation-protocol-for-transforming-heterotrop-hmzb476
Crypthecodinium cohnii (CCMP 316)	Electroporation LONZA-Nucleofector		Stained DNA (739 bp); Linear; 1	None	None	n/a	n/a	<0.001	T	Fluorescence	Fluorescence	https://www.protocols.io/view/transfection-of-crypthecodinium-cohnii-using-label-z26f8he
Amphidinium carterae (chloroplast) (CCMP 1314)	Biorad Biolistics PDS-1000/He biolistics system	2.5x10^7	pAmpAtpBChl; Circular; 0.5	Endogenous	Endogenous	Chloramphenicol (20)	3 onwards	n/a	S	Ab res	RT-PCR, PCR Phenotype	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.4r2gv8e
Karlodinium veneficum (CCMP 1975)	Electroporation	4x10^5	linear-DinollI-*neo*; Linear; 2	Endogenous	Endogenous	Kanamycin (150)	7	0.0005	S (3 mon)	n/a	RT-PCR, PCR	https://www.protocols.io/view/nucleofector-protocol-for-dinoflagellates-using-lo-qm8du9w
Discobans (Euglenozoans and Heteroloboseans)												
Bodo saltans (submitted to ATCC)	Electroporation Nepa21	1-1.5x10^7	Bs-EF1- α C- terminal tagging; Linear; 3-5	Endogenous	Endogenous	G418 (5)	7-9		S	GFP	Fluorescence, PCR, RT-PCR	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.s5jeg4n http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.7fchjiw
Diplonema papillatum (ATCC 50162)	Electroporation LONZA-Nucleofector	5x10^7	p57-V5+Neo^R; Linear; 3	Endogenous	Endogenous	G418 (75)	7-14	~5.5	S	n/a	Western blot (resistance marker), RT-PCR	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.4digs4e
Naegleria gruberi (ATCC 30224)	Electroporation BioRad Gene Pulser xCell	5x10^6	pNAEG-HYG; Circular; 4	Endogenous	Endogenous	Hygromycin (300) Neo (700)	15-28	80	T	GFP	Western blot (resistance marker), Fluorescence,	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.hpub5nw http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.7w4hpgw
Opisthokonts												
Abeoforma whisleri (ATCC PRA-279)	Electroporation LONZA-Nucleofector	3x10^5	Awhis_H2Bvenus+ pUC19; Circular; 1-5+ 40 carrier	Endogenous	Endogenous	n/a	10-15	1	T	Venus	Fluorescence, RT-PCR	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.zexf3fn
Salpingoeca rosetta (ATCC PRA-390)	Electroporation LONZA-Nucleofector	4x10^5	SrActmCherry-CCTLL + pUC19; Circular; 1-10 + 40 carrier	Endogenous	Endogenous	Puromycin (80)	10-12		S	mCherry	Gene Expression (Luc, Fluorescence)/resistance	http://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.h68b9hw