

This is a repository copy of Comparison of independent evolutionary origins reveals both convergence and divergence in the metabolic mechanisms of symbiosis.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/153912/

Version: Accepted Version

#### Article:

Sørensen, M.E.S., Wood, A.J., Minter, E.J.A. et al. (3 more authors) (2020) Comparison of independent evolutionary origins reveals both convergence and divergence in the metabolic mechanisms of symbiosis. Current Biology, 30 (2). 328-334.e4. ISSN 0960-9822

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2019.11.053

Article available under the terms of the CC-BY-NC-ND licence (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

#### Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/

### Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



# Comparison of independent evolutionary origins reveals both convergence and divergence in the metabolic mechanisms of symbiosis

Megan E. S. Sørensen<sup>1</sup>, A. Jamie Wood<sup>2</sup>, Ewan J. A. Minter<sup>1</sup>, Chris D. Lowe<sup>3</sup>, Duncan D. Cameron<sup>1</sup>, Michael A. Brockhurst<sup>1</sup>

- Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield S10
   UK
- 2. Department of Biology, University of York, York YO10 5DD, UK
- Centre for Ecology and Conservation, University of Exeter, Penryn Campus,Cornwall TR10 9FE, UK

Lead contact Michael Brockhurst (m.brockhurst@sheffield.ac.uk)

## Summary

1

2 Through the merger of once independent lineages, symbiosis promotes the 3 acquisition of new traits and the exploitation of inaccessible ecological niches [1,2], 4 driving evolutionary innovation and important ecosystem functions [3–6]. The 5 transient nature of establishment makes study of symbiotic origins difficult, but 6 experimental comparison of independent originations could reveal the degree of 7 convergence in the underpinning mechanisms [7,8]. We compared the metabolic 8 mechanisms of two independent origins of the Paramecium bursaria-Chlorella 9 photosymbiosis [9–11] using a reciprocal metabolomic pulse-chase method. This 10 showed convergent patterns of nutrient exchange and utilisation for host-derived nitrogen in the Chlorella genotypes [12,13] and symbiont-derived carbon in the P. 11 12 bursaria genotypes [14,15]. Consistent with a convergent primary nutrient exchange, 13 partner-switched host-symbiont pairings were functional. Direct competition of hosts 14 containing native or recombined symbionts against isogenic symbiont-free hosts 15 showed that the fitness benefits of symbiosis for hosts increased with irradiance but 16 varied by genotype. Global metabolism varied more between the Chlorella than the 17 P. bursaria genotypes, and suggested divergent mechanisms of light management. 18 Specifically, the algal symbiont genotypes either produced photo-protective 19 carotenoid pigments at high irradiance or more chlorophyll, resulting in 20 corresponding differences in photosynthetic efficiency and non-photochemical 21 quenching among host-symbiont pairings. These data suggest that the multiple 22 origins of the *P. bursaria-Chlorella* symbiosis use a convergent nutrient exchange, 23 whereas other photosynthetic traits linked to the functioning of the photosymbiosis have diverged. While convergence enables partner-switching among diverse strains, 24

phenotypic mismatches resulting from divergence of secondary-symbiotic traits could
 mediate host-symbiont specificity in nature.

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

## **Results and Discussion**

Independent evolutionary origins of a beneficial symbiotic relationship suggests that a strong selective advantage has, on multiple occasions, overcome the inherent conflict between the self-interest of the partners [16,17]. Independent origins of symbiosis appear to be common and have been reported in diverse symbiotic relationships [18–21]. Experimental comparison of independent origins could reveal the degree of convergence versus divergence in the underpinning mechanisms [7,8]. A convergent nutrient exchange would suggest evolutionary constraint and limited viable routes to symbiosis, but may allow partner-switching between independent lineages, whereas divergence would tend to drive host-symbiont specificity. Here we use the experimentally tractable microbial symbiosis between the heterotrophic ciliate Paramecium bursaria and the photosynthetic green alga Chlorella sp [9]. These species engage in a facultative photosymbiosis that is widely distributed in freshwater habitats [22], wherein ~100-600 algal cells live inside a ciliate cell and provide products of photosynthesis in exchange for organic nitrogen [14,23]. This symbiotic interaction has originated multiple times and forms two distinct biogeographical clades, specifically, the European clade and the American/Japanese clade [10,11]. Using a representative of each clade [the strain 186b originally isolated in the UK and strain HA1 originally isolated in Japan (Table S1); clade identity was confirmed by diagnostic PCR (Figure S1)] we first tested whether these strains used convergent biochemical mechanisms of carbon (from the photosynthetic endosymbiotic Chlorella) for nitrogen (acquired by the protist host though the

ingestion and digestion of free-living bacteria) exchange [14]. To do this, we devised a reciprocal, temporally-resolved, metabolomic pulse chase experiment that simultaneously monitored nitrogen and carbon assimilation in the symbiont and host, respectively. Specifically, using <sup>15</sup>N-labelled bacterial necromass, we traced isotopic enrichment derived from N assimilated through P. bursaria digestion in Chlorella metabolites. In parallel, using <sup>13</sup>C-lablled HCO<sub>3</sub> we traced isotopic enrichment derived from C fixed by *Chlorella* photosynthesis in *P. bursaria* metabolites. The quantity of every individual metabolite in each sample was determined using Liquid Chromatography Time of Flight Mass Spectrometry (LC-ToFMS). This allowed the metabolic fate of resources exchanged between symbiotic partners to be quantified over time, allowing comparison of symbiotic metabolism between the strains. We used Random Forest models, a form of computational learning involving the construction of an extensive array of possible compatible decision trees, to identify which metabolites were associated with isotopic enrichment. Among Chlorella metabolites we observed a shared <sup>15</sup>N isotopic enrichment response among strains (i.e. high-ranking score in both strains) in 46% of all metabolites (78 % of nitrogencontaining metabolites), suggesting that both *Chlorella* strains directed the exchanged nitrogen through metabolism in similar ways (Figure 1). Similarly, we observed a shared <sup>13</sup>C enrichment response in 75 % of *P. bursaria* metabolites (78% of carbon-containing metabolites), suggesting a high degree of convergence between the *P. bursaria* host strains in how they utilised the C derived from their algal symbionts (Figure 1). The pattern of shared enrichment among strains was consistently high for both <sup>15</sup>N and <sup>13</sup>C isotopic enrichment across all sampled timepoints, suggesting a conserved nutrient exchange (Figure 1). Smaller proportions of

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

metabolites showed an asymmetric response (i.e., were high-ranked in one strain
but low-ranked in the other; for <sup>15</sup>N enrichment, 20.55% in 186b *Chlorella* and 9.55%
in HA1 *Chlorella*; for <sup>13</sup>C enrichment 13.17% in 186b *P. bursaria* and 3.42% in HA1 *P. bursaria*), suggesting only limited divergence in utilisation of exchanged
metabolites has occurred between these host-symbiont clades.

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

Co-enriched metabolites with the strongest enrichment over time were identified using LC-ToFMS (simultaneously resolving the monoisotopic mass and chromatographic retention time for each M/Z). For <sup>15</sup>N co-enrichment in *Chlorella* (Table S2), we identified metabolites associated with the amino acid and purine pathways, which have both previously been suggested as probable N exchange metabolites in this symbiosis [12,24–27]. Targeted analyses of these pathways were used to calculate the enrichment dynamics in the constituent metabolites. These dynamics indicated that an amino acid is the more likely N exchange metabolite from P. bursaria to Chlorella in both clades. Although our first sampling time-point was not early enough to permit direct observation of metabolite exchange itself, downstream enrichment profiles suggest that the most likely candidate exchange metabolite is arginine (see Figure S4), an amino acid known to support growth of Chlorella as its sole N source [28]. In addition, we observed co-enrichment in larger, N-rich metabolites, including chlorophyll precursors, which most likely represent the largest N-sinks for *Chlorella*, thus becoming enriched in <sup>15</sup>N as a function of N demand. For <sup>13</sup>C enrichment in *P. bursaria* (Table S3), we identified metabolites involved in carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, suggesting that symbiont derived C was directed to carbon storage, as well as enrichment in central and amino acid metabolism, which are likely to have a high turnover of carbon and represent strong carbon sinks.

For some carbohydrate storage metabolites, we observed stronger differences in <sup>13</sup>C enrichment between light conditions in the 186b compared to the HA1 strain (Figure S3), indicating strain differences in the rate of flux through some of co-enriched pathways.

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

103

100

101

102

The pulse-chase analysis suggests that these *P. bursaria-Chlorella* strains, representing independent origins of the symbiosis, show convergent utilisation of partner-derived nutrients, and we hypothesised therefore that partner-switched hostsymbiont pairings would be functional. To test this, we performed a reciprocal crossinfection experiment whereby the P. bursaria host strains were cured of their native algal symbiont, and subsequently re-infected with either their native algal symbiont or the reciprocal non-native algal symbiont. We then directly competed each hostsymbiont pairing against its respective symbiont-free host strain across a light gradient. Note that reinfection of aposymbiotic host populations by symbionts occurs over far longer timescales (i.e. several weeks) than the competition assay, such that this process is unlikely to affect relative fitness estimates. We used flow cytometry to quantify the proportion of green (with symbiont) versus white (symbiont-free) host cells at the start and end of the growth cycle to calculate the selection rate [23], thus providing a direct measure of the fitness effect of symbiosis for hosts. All the symbiont pairings showed a classic photosymbiotic reaction norm, such that the relative fitness of hosts with symbionts versus hosts without symbionts increased with increasing irradiance (Figure 2), and more steeply in the HA1 host background (host genotype by light environment interaction, ANOVA,  $F_{3.31}$  = 29.34, P< 0.001). This confirms that both host genotypes could derive the benefits of symbiosis from

either of the symbiont genotypes, but that the fitness effect of symbiosis varied between strains.

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

124

125

These light-dependent differences in the fitness of the host-symbiont pairings suggest that the HA1 and 186b strains may have diverged in aspects of their metabolism and physiology besides the primary symbiotic nutrient exchange. To characterise potential differences in global metabolism between the HA1 and 186b host-symbiont strains, we performed untargeted metabolomics analyses on the unlabelled metabolites from the separated *Chlorella* and *P. bursaria* fractions of both the native host-symbiont pairings. We observed a range of metabolites that differentiated the 186b and HA1 Chlorella strains (Table S4), and metabolism differed more between strains than it did between light conditions within strains (Figure 3 panels A-D). Notably, the HA1 Chlorella strain displayed higher levels of several carotenoids than the 186b *Chlorella* strain, particularly at high irradiance, whereas the 186b Chlorella strain displayed higher levels of metabolites involved in chlorophyll and ubiquinol metabolism than the HA1 Chlorella strain at both low and high irradiance (Figure 3 panels E-J). Fewer metabolites distinguished the global metabolism of the *P. bursaria* strains (Table S4). In all cases these metabolites were present at higher levels in the 186b P. bursaria strain compared to the HA1 P. bursaria strain (Figure S2), and neither strain's metabolism varied significantly with irradiance (Figure S2). The identified metabolites that distinguished the strains were associated with a range of functions, including amino acid metabolism, amino sugars, and sphingolipid metabolism. Several other metabolites, although present in the host fraction, are likely to have been secreted into the host cytoplasm by the algal symbiont or be derived from the bacterial necromass. These include a zeatin

candidate, which may play a role in *Chlorella* signalling, and several metabolites identified as putative antibiotics.

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

150

149

The clear differences in global metabolism between the algal strains suggests that they may vary in their photophysiology. To test this, we measured several key photochemical parameters in the native and partner-switched host-symbiont pairings acclimated to a range of light levels. For two measures of photosynthetic efficiency — Fv/Fm (the intrinsic efficiency of photosystem II [PSII], Figure 4A) and Φ<sub>PSII</sub> (the proportion of the light absorbed by chlorophyll associated with PSII that is used in photochemistry, Figure 4B) [29] — we observed a significant host genotype by symbiont genotype by light environment interaction [for  $F_vF_m$  ANOVA,  $F_{7.232}$  = 86.41. P<0.001; for  $\Phi_{PSII}$  nlme model intercept summary ANOVA,  $F_{11,24}$  = 11.66, P<0.001 (see Data S1 for full statistical output)]. In the HA1 P. bursaria host, the pattern of photosynthetic efficiency across the light gradient did not vary with algal strain, whereas in the 186b P. bursaria host, the native 186b Chlorella showed lower photosynthetic efficiency than the HA1 Chlorella at low growth irradiance, but the pattern was reversed at high growth irradiance. These patterns are consistent with the observed differences in carotenoid metabolism among the *Chlorella* strains: The HA1 Chlorella produced more carotenoids at high irradiance than the 186b Chlorella; because carotenoids perform a role in photoprotection they can therefore decrease the light energy that reaches the photosystems thus limiting photosynthesis.

170

171

172

173

Non-photochemical quenching is used by photosynthetic organisms to safely deal with excess and potentially damaging light energy and was estimated using the normalised Stern-Volmer coefficient (NSV). The intercept of the NSV response

(Figure 4C) across the actinic light gradient was significantly affected by host genotype, suggesting differences among the host genotypes in their ability to photoprotect algal symbionts (ANOVA,  $F_{1,34}$  = 4.74, P<0.05). Meanwhile, both symbiont genotype and growth irradiance affected the first coefficient (ANOVA,  $F_{3,32}$  = 5.56, P<0.01); and symbiont genotype affected the second coefficient (ANOVA,  $F_{1,34}$  = 8.932, P<0.01) (see Data S1 for full statistical output). Higher levels of NSV and steeper NSV reaction norms for the 186b *Chlorella*, particularly in its native host background, are consistent with the greater investment in photosynthetic machinery observed in the metabolome, allowing this genotype to better dissipate excess light energy as heat whilst not compromising photosynthetic efficiency.

Mixotrophic photosymbioses are common and play a vital role in biogeochemical cycling in terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems [30–32]. Their breakdown, often driven by environmental change, can be rescued by partner-switching to restore symbiotic function [33,34]. Our findings suggest that convergence among independent symbiotic origins upon a shared primary symbiotic nutrient exchange enables partner-switching between genetically divergent clades. This stands in contrast to the diversity of exchange metabolites used in photosymbioses more broadly. For example, just amongst photosymbiotic cnidaria (i.e. corals, anemones, jellyfish) organic carbon transfer from symbiont to host occurs in the form of glycerol, glucose, maltose, and a variety of lipids and amino acids [35]. Thus, while a variety of potential metabolic solutions to the photosymbiotic nutrient exchange exist, perhaps explaining the abundance and diversity of photosymbioses, within specific symbiotic interactions the optimal solution may be more constrained, resulting in evolutionary convergence among independent originations. The concurrent divergence in algal

photophysiology allowed hosts, through partner-switching, to acquire symbionts with different properties, potentially enabling adaptation to new environments. Crucially, symbiont replacement providing hosts with new adaptive traits is critical in natural populations responding to environmental change; for example, reinfection of corals by thermally tolerant symbionts enables recovery following thermal bleaching events [36–38]. Finally, we observed differences among the *P. bursaria-Chlorella* clades in their division of labour between host and symbiont contributions to photoprotection. This may be a common feature of photosymbioses [39,40], for example some pelagic zooplankton and jellyfish hosts adopt behavioural strategies to photoprotect algal symbionts [41], and could be a key mechanism of host-symbiont specificity by mediating genotype by genotype by environment interactions. Host-symbiont specificity and partner-switching are common features of many symbioses [42–46] suggesting that our findings are likely to be of wider relevance beyond photosymbioses. Multiple independent evolutionary origins have occurred in diverse symbiotic relationships [18–21]. While this suggests a strong selective imperative for these symbioses, it may also provide important adaptive potential through functional divergence among originations enabling their resilience to environmental change.

216

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

## **Acknowledgements**

217218219

220

221

222

This work was funded by grant NE/K011774/2 from the Natural Environment Research Council, UK to MAB, CDL, DDC, and AJW, and a White Rose DTP studentship from the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council, UK to MESS (BB/M011151/1). The funders had no role in the design of the study, the

223	collection, analysis and interpretation of data, or the writing of the manuscript. We
224	are grateful to Heather Walker for assistance.
	Author contributions
225	MB, DC, MS, EM, CL conceived and designed the study. MS and EM conducted
226	experimental work. MS, CL and DC analysed the data. MS and MB drafted the
227	manuscript. All authors commented on the manuscript.
	Declaration of Interests
228	The authors declare that they have no conflicting interests.
229	
230	
231	
232	
233	
234	
235	
236	
237	

## **Figure Legends**

Figure 1: Correlated metabolite enrichment for the 186b and HA1 *Paramecium*bursaria and Chlorella strains over time.

Each data point represents a metabolite. In each scatterplot the mean Random

Forest rank order of each metabolite in the HA1 strain is plotted against the mean rank order of each metabolite in the 186b strain. The rank order value is positively

order is derived from multiple Random Forest analyses (n=500), for further details

correlated with magnitude of the enrichment signal. For all panels, the mean rank

regarding the Random Forest models see the methods section. A,C,E,G.)  $^{15}\mathrm{N}$ 

enrichment in the *Chlorella* fraction at 15, 120, 240 and 360 minutes. B,D,F,H.) <sup>13</sup>C

enrichment in the *P. bursaria* fraction at 15, 120, 240 and 360 minutes. See Table S2

for the identified metabolites associated with <sup>15</sup>N enrichment in both *Chlorella* strains;

and see Table S3 for the identified metabolites associated with <sup>13</sup>C enrichment in

both *Paramecium* strains.

# Figure 2: Fitness of the native and non-native host-symbiont pairings relative to isogenic symbiont-free hosts.

Lines show mean (n=3) competitive fitness of symbiont-containing hosts relative to their isogenic symbiont-free host genotype calculated as selection rate, the shaded area denotes ± SE. The left-hand panel shows data for the HA1 *Paramecium* host genotype, the right-hand panel shows data for the 186b *Paramecium* host genotype containing either native (solid line) or non-native (dashed line) *Chlorella* symbiont genotypes, which are distinguished by colour (186b *Chlorella* in blue; HA1 *Chlorella* 

in green). Selection rate = 0 represents equal fitness. See Data S1 for details on the statistics used.

265

263

264

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

# Figure 3: Differences in *Chlorella* global metabolism between strains across light conditions.

Comparisons of unlabelled *Chlorella* metabolites between strains and light conditions are represented as volcano plots (A-D) plotting the fold change of each metabolite against its statistical significance. The data points are highlighted at two false discovery rate (FDR) values, and if the Log<sub>2</sub>(fold change) is greater than 1 or less than -1 as indicated in the graphical key. A.) Comparing metabolites between the two strains within the high light condition. B.) Comparing metabolites between the two strains within the low light condition. C.) Comparing metabolites between the two light levels within the HA1 strain. D.) Comparing metabolites between the two light levels within the 186b strain. See Figure S2 for the equivalent plot for the P. bursaria metabolite comparisons and see Table S4 for the identified metabolites. Differential metabolites distinguishing the divergent strategies of light management between the two host-symbiont strains were then plotted separately: The relative abundance of the metabolites is plotted within the two strains at the two light conditions. The top three panels (E-G) show metabolites that have been identified as carotenoids and the lower three panels (H-J) show metabolites that have been identified as either chlorophyll or ubiquinone compounds. For panels E-J, responses are presented as the mean (n=12) ±SE and host-symbiont strain is denoted by colour (186b in blue; HA1 in green).

287

Figure 4: Photophysiology measurements for the native and non-native host-symbiont pairings. For all subplots, lines represent the mean (n=3), the shaded area denotes  $\pm$ SE. In each subplot the left-hand panel shows data for the HA1 *Paramecium* host genotype, the right-hand panel shows data for the 186b *Paramecium* host genotype containing either native (solid line) or non-native (dashed line) *Chlorella* symbiont genotypes, which are distinguished by colour (186b *Chlorella* in blue; HA1 *Chlorella* in green). A) Estimates of the maximum quantum yield of photosystem II ( $F_{v}/F_{m}$ ) across growth irradiances. B) Light-adapted quantum yield of photosystem II ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ ) across growth irradiances, lines represent exponential decay models using nlme package in R. C.) The normalised Stern-Volmer quenching coefficient (NSV =  $F_{o}'/F_{v}'$ ) across growth irradiances, presented at polynomial model fits. See Data S1 for details on the statistics used.

# 302 STAR Methods 303 LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY 304 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to 305 and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Michael Brockhurst 306 (m.brockhurst@sheffield.ac.uk). The HA1 and 186b Paramecium bursaria strains 307 used in this study will be made available upon request but can also be obtained from 308 national culture collections (detailed below). 309 310 EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS 311 312 Symbiotic Paramecium bursaria stock cultures were maintained at 25°c under a 14:10 L:D cycle with 50 µE m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> of light. Grown in bacterized Protozoan Pellet 313 Media (PPM, Carolina Biological Supply), made to a concentration of 0.66 g L<sup>-1</sup> with 314 315 Volvic natural mineral water, and inoculated approximately 20 hours prior to use with 316 Serratia marscesens from frozen glycerol stocks. The two natural strains used were: 317 186b (CCAP 1660/18) obtained from the Culture Collection for Algae and Protozoa 318 (Oban, Scotland), and HA1 isolated in Japan and obtained from the Paramecium 319 National Bio-Resource Project (Yamaguchi, Japan). Further details regarding these 320 strains and the habitats they were isolated from can be found in Table S1. 321 322 To isolate Chlorella from the symbiosis, symbiotic cultures were first washed and 323 concentrated with a 11µm nylon mesh using sterile Volvic. The suspension was then 324 ultra-sonicated using a Fisherbrand™ Q500 Sonicator (Fisher Scientific, NH, USA), 325 at a power setting of 20% for 10 seconds sonification to disrupt the host cells. The 326 liquid was then spotted onto Bold Basal Media plates (BBM) [47], from which green

327 colonies were streaked out and isolated over several weeks. Plate stocks were 328 maintained by streaking out one colony to a fresh plate every 3/4 weeks. 329 330 Symbiont-free P. bursaria were made by treating symbiotic cultures with paraguat 331 (10  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>) for 3 to 7 days in high light conditions (>50  $\mu$ E m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), until the host 332 cells were visibly symbiont free. The cultures were then extensively washing with 333 Volvic and closely monitored with microscopy to check that re-greening by *Chlorella* 334 did not occur. Stock cultures of the symbiont-free cells were maintained by batch 335 culture at 25°c under a 14:10 L:D cycle with 3 µE m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> of light and were given fresh 336 PPM weekly. 337 338 METHOD DETAILS 339 340 Cross Infections 341 Symbiont-free populations of the two P. bursaria strains were re-infected by adding a 342 colony of *Chlorella* from the plate stocks derived from the appropriate strain. The re-343 greening process was followed by microscopy and took between 2-6 weeks. Over the process, cells were grown at the intermediate light level of 12 µE m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and 344 345 were given bacterized PPM weekly. 346 347 Diagnostic PCR 348 The correct algae genotype was confirmed using diagnostic PCR (see Figure S1). 349 The Chlorella DNA was extracted by isolating the Chlorella and then using a standard 6% Chelex100 resin (Bio-Rad) extraction method. ISSR primer '65' were 350 351 established for *Chlorella vulgaris* by Shen [48], and was used as described therein. 352 Standard PCR reactions were performed using Go Taq Green Master Mix (Promega) and 0.5µmol L<sup>-1</sup> of primer. The thermocycler programme was set to: 94°c for 5min, 40 cycles of (94°c for 20sec, 55°c for 1 min, 72°c for 20sec), and 6 min at 72°c.

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

353

354

## Fitness assay

P. bursaria cultures, both the symbiotic cross-infections and symbiont-free cells, were washed with Volvic and resuspended in bacterized PPM. The cultures were then split and acclimated at their treatment light level (0,12,50 µE m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) for five days. Cell densities were counted by fixing 360 µL of each cell culture, in triplicate, in 1% v/v glutaraldehyde in 96-well flat bottomed micro-well plates. Images were taken with a plate reader (Tecan Spark 10M) and cell counts were made using an automated image analysis macro in ImageJ v1.50i [49]. The competitions were started with the target values of 20 green cells and 20 white cells per ml. Cells were sampled on day 0 and day 7 and the proportion of green to white cells was measured using flow cytometry analysis. Green versus white cells were distinguished using single cell fluorescence estimated using a CytoFLEX S flow cytometer (Beckman Coulter Inc., CA, USA) by measuring the intensity of chlorophyll fluorescence (excitation 488nm, emission 690/50nm) and gating cell size using forward side scatter [23]. The measurements were calibrated against 8-peak rainbow calibration particles (BioLegend), and then presented as relative fluorescence to reduce variation across sampling sessions. See Data S1 for details on the statistics used to analysis the fitness assay.

374

375

376

377

## Fluorimetry

The cells were washed and concentrated with a 11µm nylon mesh using sterile Volvic and re-suspended in bacterized PPM. The cultures were then split and

acclimated to their treatment light condition (12, 24 & 50  $\mu$ E m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) for five days. F<sub>V</sub>/F<sub>m</sub>,  $\Phi_{PSII}$ , and NSV values were measured by fast repetition rate fluorimetry (FastPro8, Chelsea instruments fluorometer [50] following the manufacturer's procedure). Cultures were dark acclimated for 15 minutes prior to measurements. For maximum quantum yield, measurements were repeated until F<sub>V</sub>/F<sub>m</sub> stabilized (typically 3-5minutes) and F<sub>V</sub>/F<sub>m</sub> then estimated as an average of 10 measurements.  $\Phi_{PSII}$  was measured in response to an actinic light source at sequentially increasing irradiances between 0 – 2908 PFD following standard green algae protocol. Peak emission wavelengths of the LED used for excitations was 450nm. Non-photochemical quenching was estimated by the normalised Stern-Volmer coefficient, defined as NSV = F<sub>0</sub>'/F<sub>V</sub>' [51] and corrects for differences in F<sub>V</sub>/F<sub>m</sub> between samples. See Data S1 for details on the statistics used to analysis the fluorimetry results.

## Metabolomics

Cultures were washed and concentrated with a 11µm nylon mesh using Volvic and re-suspended in bacterized PPM. The cultures were first grown for three days at 50 µE m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> to increase cell densities, and then split and acclimated at their treatment light condition (6 & 50 µE m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) for three days. For the sampling, the cultures were split into 3 treatment: the control, N<sup>15</sup> enrichment by the addition of labelled *Serratia marscesens* (100µl per microcosm), or C<sup>13</sup> enrichment by the addition of HC<sup>13</sup>O<sub>3</sub> (100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). The cultures were sampled at four time points (15, 120, 360, 480 minutes after the enrichment event). There were three biological replicates for each sampling event.

At each sampling event, the symbiotic partners were separated in order to a get *P. bursaria* and *Chlorella* metabolic fraction. The *P. bursaria* cells were concentrated with a 11µm nylon mesh using Volvic and then the *P. bursaria* cells were disrupted by sonication (20% power for 10 secs). 1ml of the lysate was pushed through a 1.6µm filter, which caught the intact *Chlorella* cells, and the run-through was collected and stored as the *P. bursaria* fraction. The 1.6µm filter was washed with 5ml cold deionized water, and then reversed so that the *Chlorella* cells were resuspended in 1ml of cold methanol, which was stored as the *Chlorella* fraction.

The samples were analysed with a Synapt G2-Si with Acquity UPLC, recording in positive mode over a large untargeted mass range (50 – 1000 Da). A 2.1x50mm Acuity UPLC BEH C18 column was used with acetonitrile as the solvent. The machine settings are listed in detail below:

## Mass spectrometry settings:

417	Polarity:	positive
418	Capillary voltage:	2.3 kV
419	Sample Cone voltage:	20 V
420	Source Temperature:	100°c
421	Desolvation temperature:	280°c
422	Gas Flow:	600 L hr <sup>-1</sup>
423	Injected volume:	5µl

Gradient information:

426	
427	
428	
429	

Time (mins)	Water (%)	Acetonitrile (%)
0	95	5
3	65	35
6	0	100
7.5	0	100
7.6	95	5

The *P. bursaria* and *Chlorella* fraction were analysed separately. The xcms R package [52–54] was used for automatic peak detection by extracting the spectra from the CDF data files, using a step argument of 0.01 m/z. The automatically identified peaks were grouped across samples and were used to identify and correct correlated drifts in retention time from run to run. Pareto scaling was applied to the resulting intensity matrix.

## Isotope analysis

For the *P. bursaria* isotope analysis the C<sup>13</sup> labelled samples were compared with the control, while for the *Chlorella* analysis the N<sup>15</sup> labelled samples were compared to the control. In order to identify isotopic enrichment without user bias, we used Random Forest (RF) models to identify metabolites that associated with the isotope labelling. This is a machine-learning decision-tree based approach that produces powerful multivariate regression and is an established method for high-throughput biological data [55], including metabolomics [56]. The isotope label was used as the response variable to regress against the metabolic profile of each sample. Each random forest model was run with 1000 iterations, and each RF analysis was run 500 times to account for uncertainty in the rank score. For each run, the rank score of the RF importance (measured as the mean decrease in Gini) was recorded for each m/z bin. The mean and standard error of the rank score was then calculated to

assess the consistency of the variable importance. In total 4 RF models were analysed within each fraction, 1 per timepoint.

The rank score values were then compared between the strains. The co-enriched metabolites were filtered to select those that had a higher relative abundance in the labelled fraction than in the control. From these, the profile of each candidate metabolite was manually checked for isotopic enrichment, and when a clear enrichment profile was present the monoisotopic mass was identified. The enrichment proportion of the isotopic masses to the monoisotopic mass was calculated, and the natural enrichment value within the control fraction was subtracted from the enrichment in the labelled fraction. Following this calculation, it was possible to determine if enrichment had occurred, and if so, the monoisotopic mass was considered a 'mass of interest'.

### Target Pathway analysis

Given that the low molecular weight compounds in the results of the <sup>15</sup>N coentrichment in *Chlorella* (Table S2) were almost exclusively amino acid or purine related, we focused on these pathways for a further targeted approach. Key compounds of these pathways were selected and searched for in the metabolite dataset. To follow the flow of enriched nitrogen in these pathways, the relative enrichment profile of these compounds compared to the control fraction was calculated. The results were visualised as heatmaps, with the heatmap.2() function from the gplot package [57], based on the method used by Austen et al. (In Press).

Some of the amino acid metabolism results are plotted in Figure S4 and show that the nitrogen enrichment is focused downstream from arginine. Other aspects of amino acid metabolism, such as that centred around aspartate, serine or lysine, showed little and inconsistent enrichment. Within purine metabolism, the nitrogen enrichment occurred both up and downstream of the purine bases. The enrichment upstream of the purine bases indicates that enriched nitrogen is entering this pathway from the amino acid of central metabolism. Based on this pattern, we believe that the purine pathway is a site of secondary enrichment and it reveals that purine-derivatives present a substantial nitrogen demand.

Unfortunately, we could not identify a candidate compound for arginine to test if it had the enrichment profile of a transfer molecule (predicted to be a very high initial enrichment that then substantially decreased over time). Such a pattern was not seen for any compound, we suggest, therefore, that our first timepoint was not early enough to capture the initial enrichment events involving the transfer compound itself.

For <sup>13</sup>C enrichment within the *Paramecium* fraction, the results identified carbohydrate metabolites (Table S3). Given that these are likely to relate to the carbon transferred from the *Chlorella*, we investigated these compounds in more detail, and found an interaction between light intensity and strain identity on their enrichment profile (See Figure S3).

Unlabelled analysis

For the unlabelled, control fraction, metabolite relative abundance was compared between the strains by calculating the log2(Fold Change) between the conditions (either between the strains within each light level, or between the light levels within each strain) in a series of pair-wise contrasts for each metabolite. Student T-tests were performed between the relative abundances of the paired comparisons. The *Benjamini–Hochberg* procedure was used to account for the high number of multiple P-value comparisons, with the false discovery rate set to 0.1 and 0.05 [58] as highlighted in the volcano plots.

Identification of significant masses

Masses of interest were investigated using the MarVis-Suite 2.0 software (http://marvis.gobics.de/) [59], using retention time and mass to compare against KEGG (https://www.genome.jp/kegg/) [60,61] and MetaCyc (https://biocyc.org/) [62] databases. The Metabolomics Standards Initiative requires two independent measures to confirm identity, which the combination of retention time and accurate mass achieves. This analysis therefore confirms level 1 identification.

## QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses were performed in R v.3.5.0 [63] and all plots were produced using package ggplot2 [64]. Physiology tests were analysed by both ANOVA and ANCOVA, with light, host and symbiont identity as factors.  $\Phi_{PSII}$  results were analysed with non-linear mixed effects models (nlme) with the nlme R package [65]. The  $\Phi_{PSII}$  data was fitted to an exponential decay function:

 $\Phi_{PSII} = ae^{(bl)}$ 

525	Where <i>a</i> is a normalisation constant and <i>b</i> is the rate constant. The nlme model
526	included random effects for replicate on each parameter and fixed factors of host,
527	symbiont and light factors and their interactions with a following model reduction.
528	See the full statistics table (Data S1) for further details on the statistics used.
529	
530	DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY
531	The data has been deposited within Mendeley Data (DOI: 10.17632/6zspctmwpj.1)
532	
533	
534	

535	Legends for supplementary datasets
536	
537	Data S1. Statistical outputs for analyses associated with the figures of the
538	main manuscript. Related to Figure 2 and 5
539	

#### References:

- 1. Wernegreen, J.J. (2012). Endosymbiosis. Current Biology 22, R555–R561.
- 542 2. Sudakaran, S., Kost, C., and Kaltenpoth, M. (2017). Symbiont Acquisition and
- Replacement as a Source of Ecological Innovation. Trends in Microbiology 25, 375–390.
- 544 3. Kiers, E.T., and West, S.A. (2015). Evolving new organisms via symbiosis. Science *348*,
- 545 392–394.
- 546 4. Powell, J.R., and Rillig, M.C. (2018). Biodiversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and ecosystem function. New Phytol.
- 5. Baker, A.C. (2003). Flexibility and Specificity in Coral-Algal Symbiosis: Diversity,
- Ecology, and Biogeography of Symbiodinium. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution,
- and Systematics *34*, 661–689.
- 551 6. Zook, D.P. (2002). Prioritizing Symbiosis to Sustain Biodiversity: Are Symbionts
- Keystone Species? In Symbiosis: Mechanisms and Model Systems Cellular Origin, Life
- in Extreme Habitats and Astrobiology., J. Seckbach, ed. (Dordrecht: Springer
- Netherlands), pp. 3–12. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1007/0-306-48173-1 1.
- 7. Sachs, J.L., Skophammer, R.G., and Regus, J.U. (2011). Evolutionary transitions in
- bacterial symbiosis. PNAS *108*, 10800–10807.
- 8. Moran, N.A., and Wernegreen, J.J. (2000). Lifestyle evolution in symbiotic bacteria:
- insights from genomics. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 15, 321–326.
- 9. Fujishima, M., and Kodama, Y. (2012). Endosymbionts in Paramecium. European
- Journal of Protistology 48, 124–137.
- 10. Hoshina, R., and Imamura, N. (2008). Multiple Origins of the Symbioses in Paramecium
- 562 bursaria. Protist *159*, 53–63.
- 563 11. Summerer, M., Sonntag, B., and Sommaruga, R. (2008). Ciliate-Symbiont Specificity of
- Freshwater Endosymbiotic Chlorella (trebouxiophyceae, Chlorophyta)1. Journal of
- 565 Phycology 44, 77–84.
- 12. Kato, Y., Ueno, S., and Imamura, N. (2006). Studies on the nitrogen utilization of
- endosymbiotic algae isolated from Japanese Paramecium bursaria. Plant Science 170,
- 568 481–486.
- 13. Kessler, E., and Huss, V. a. R. (1990). Biochemical Taxonomy of Symbiotic Chlorella
- 570 Strains from Paramecium and Acanthocystis\*. Botanica Acta 103, 140–142.
- 571 14. Johnson, M.D. (2011). The acquisition of phototrophy: adaptive strategies of hosting
- endosymbionts and organelles. Photosynth Res 107, 117–132.
- 573 15. Ziesenisz, E., Reisser, W., and Wiessner, W. (1981). Evidence of de novo synthesis of
- maltose excreted by the endosymbiotic Chlorella from Paramecium bursaria. Planta 153,
- 575 481–485.

- 576 16. Sachs, J.L., and Simms, E.L. (2006). Pathways to mutualism breakdown. Trends in Ecology & Evolution *21*, 585–592.
- 17. Herre, E.A., Knowlton, N., Mueller, U.G., and Rehner, S.A. (1999). The evolution of
- mutualisms: exploring the paths between conflict and cooperation. Trends in Ecology &
- 580 Evolution 14, 49–53.
- 18. Muggia, L., Nelson, P., Wheeler, T., Yakovchenko, L.S., Tønsberg, T., and Spribille, T.
- 582 (2011). Convergent evolution of a symbiotic duet: The case of the lichen genus
- Polychidium (Peltigerales, Ascomycota). American Journal of Botany 98, 1647–1656.
- 19. Masson-Boivin, C., Giraud, E., Perret, X., and Batut, J. (2009). Establishing nitrogen-
- fixing symbiosis with legumes: how many rhizobium recipes? Trends in Microbiology
- *17*, 458–466.
- 587 20. Boscaro, V., Husnik, F., Vannini, C., and Keeling, P.J. (2019). Symbionts of the ciliate
- Euplotes: diversity, patterns and potential as models for bacteria–eukaryote
- endosymbioses. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 286, 20190693.
- 590 21. Hulcr, J., and Stelinski, L.L. (2017). The Ambrosia Symbiosis: From Evolutionary
- Ecology to Practical Management. Annual Review of Entomology 62, 285–303.
- 592 22. Zagata, P., Greczek-Stachura, M., Tarcz, S., and Rautian, M. (2016). The Evolutionary
- Relationships between Endosymbiotic Green Algae of Paramecium bursaria Syngens
- Originating from Different Geographical Locations. Folia Biologica 64, 47–54.
- 595 23. Kadono, T., Kawano, T., Hosoya, H., and Kosaka, T. (2004). Flow cytometric studies of
- the host-regulated cell cycle in algae symbiotic with green paramecium. Protoplasma
- 597 223, 133–141.
- 598 24. Soldo, A.T., Godoy, G.A., and Larin, F. (1978). Purine-Excretory Nature of Refractile
- Bodies in the Marine Ciliate Parauronema acutum\*. The Journal of Protozoology 25,
- 600 416–418.
- 25. Shah, N., and Syrett, P.J. (1984). The uptake of guanine and hypoxanthine by marine
- microalgae. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom 64,
- 603 545–556.
- 604 26. Quispe, C.F., Sonderman, O., Khasin, M., Riekhof, W.R., Van Etten, J.L., and Nickerson,
- K.W. (2016). Comparative genomics, transcriptomics, and physiology distinguish
- symbiotic from free-living Chlorella strains. Algal Research 18, 332–340.
- 607 27. Minaeva, E., and Ermilova, E. (2017). Responses triggered in chloroplast of Chlorella
- variabilis NC64A by long-term association with Paramecium bursaria. Protoplasma, 1–8.
- 28. Arnow, P., Oleson, J.J., and Williams, J.H. (1953). The Effect of Arginine on the
- Nutrition of Chlorella vulgaris. American Journal of Botany 40, 100–104.
- 611 29. Maxwell, K., and Johnson, G.N. (2000). Chlorophyll fluorescence—a practical guide. J
- 612 Exp Bot *51*, 659–668.

- 30. Esteban, G.F., Fenchel, T., and Finlay, B.J. (2010). Mixotrophy in Ciliates. Protist 161,
- 614 621–641.
- 31. Stanley, G.D., and Lipps, J.H. (2011). Photosymbiosis: The Driving Force for Reef
- Success and Failure. The Paleontological Society Papers 17, 33–59.
- 32. Caron, D.A. (2016). Mixotrophy stirs up our understanding of marine food webs. PNAS
- 618 *113*, 2806–2808.
- 33. Boulotte, N.M., Dalton, S.J., Carroll, A.G., Harrison, P.L., Putnam, H.M., Peplow, L.M.,
- and van Oppen, M.J. (2016). Exploring the Symbiodinium rare biosphere provides
- evidence for symbiont switching in reef-building corals. The ISME Journal 10, 2693–
- 622 2701.
- 623 34. Lefèvre, C., Charles, H., Vallier, A., Delobel, B., Farrell, B., and Heddi, A. (2004).
- Endosymbiont Phylogenesis in the Dryophthoridae Weevils: Evidence for Bacterial
- 625 Replacement. Mol Biol Evol *21*, 965–973.
- 35. Yellowlees, D., Rees, T.A.V., and Leggat, W. (2008). Metabolic interactions between
- algal symbionts and invertebrate hosts. Plant, Cell & Environment 31, 679–694.
- 628 36. Berkelmans, R., and van Oppen, M.J.H. (2006). The role of zooxanthellae in the thermal
- tolerance of corals: a 'nugget of hope' for coral reefs in an era of climate change.
- Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 273, 2305–2312.
- 631 37. Rowan, R. (2004). Thermal adaptation in reef coral symbionts. Nature 430, 742–742.
- 38. Kinzie, R.A., Takayama, M., Santos, S.R., and Coffroth, M.A. (2001). The Adaptive
- Bleaching Hypothesis: Experimental Tests of Critical Assumptions. The Biological
- 634 Bulletin 200, 51–58.
- 39. Ye, S., Bhattacharjee, M., and Siemann, E. (2019). Thermal Tolerance in Green Hydra:
- Identifying the Roles of Algal Endosymbionts and Hosts in a Freshwater Holobiont
- 637 Under Stress. Microb Ecol *77*, 537–545.
- 638 40. Venn, A.A., Loram, J.E., and Douglas, A.E. (2008). Photosynthetic symbioses in
- 639 animals. J Exp Bot 59, 1069–1080.
- 41. Cimino, M.A., Patris, S., Ucharm, G., Bell, L.J., and Terrill, E. (2018). Jellyfish
- distribution and abundance in relation to the physical habitat of Jellyfish Lake, Palau.
- Journal of Tropical Ecology 34, 17–31.
- 42. Husnik, F., and McCutcheon, J.P. (2016). Repeated replacement of an intrabacterial
- symbiont in the tripartite nested mealybug symbiosis. PNAS 113, E5416–E5424.
- 43. Koga, R., and Moran, N.A. (2014). Swapping symbionts in spittlebugs: evolutionary
- replacement of a reduced genome symbiont. The ISME Journal 8, 1237–1246.
- 44. Matsuura, Y., Moriyama, M., Łukasik, P., Vanderpool, D., Tanahashi, M., Meng, X.-Y.,
- McCutcheon, J.P., and Fukatsu, T. (2018). Recurrent symbiont recruitment from fungal
- parasites in cicadas. PNAS *115*, E5970–E5979.

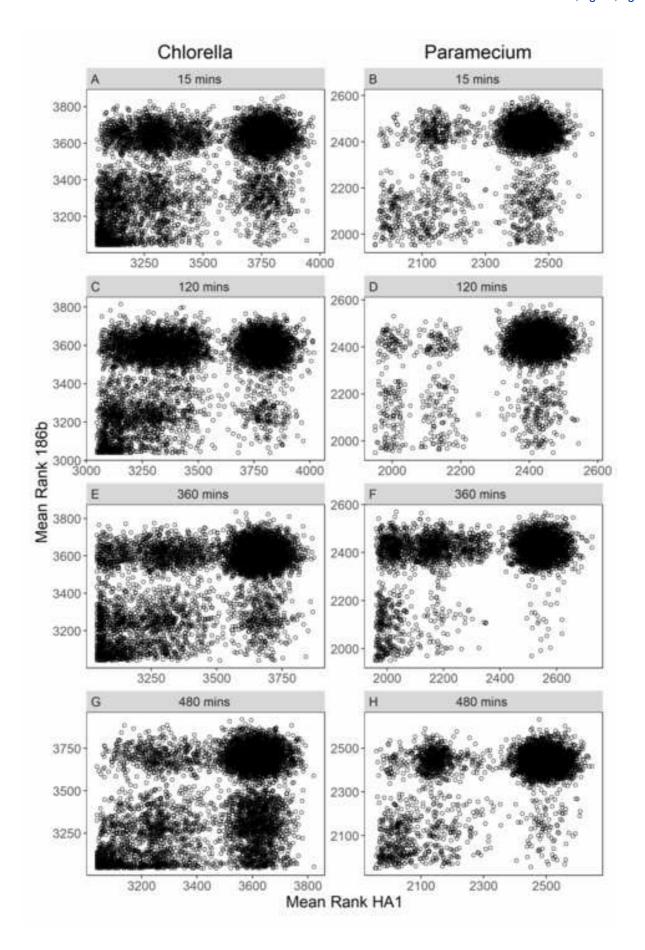
- 45. Sepp, S.-K., Davison, J., Jairus, T., Vasar, M., Moora, M., Zobel, M., and Öpik, M. 650
- 651 (2019). Non-random association patterns in a plant–mycorrhizal fungal network reveal
- 652 host-symbiont specificity. Molecular Ecology 28, 365–378.
- 653 46. Parker, B.J., Hrček, J., McLean, A.H.C., and Godfray, H.C.J. (2017). Genotype
- specificity among hosts, pathogens, and beneficial microbes influences the strength of 654
- 655 symbiont-mediated protection. Evolution 71, 1222–1231.
- 47. Stein, J.R. (1979). (ED.) Handbook of Phycological Methods: Culture Methods and 656 Growth Measurements (Cambridge University Press). 657
- 658 48. Shen, S. (2008). Genetic diversity analysis with ISSR PCR on green algae < Emphasis
- 659 Type="Italic">Chlorella vulgaris</Emphasis> and <Emphasis Type="Italic">Chlorella
- 660 pyrenoidosa</Emphasis>. Chin. J. Ocean. Limnol. 26, 380–384.
- 49. Schneider, C.A., Rasband, W.S., and Eliceiri, K.W. (2012). NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 661
- years of image analysis. Nature Methods. Available at: 662
- https://www.nature.com/articles/nmeth.2089 [Accessed May 7, 2018]. 663
- 664 50. Oxborough, K., Moore, C.M., Suggett, D.J., Lawson, T., Chan, H.G., and Geider, R.J.
- 665 (2012). Direct estimation of functional PSII reaction center concentration and PSII
- electron flux on a volume basis: a new approach to the analysis of Fast Repetition Rate 666
- 667 fluorometry (FRRf) data. Limnology and Oceanography: Methods 10, 142-154.
- 51. McKew, B.A., Davey, P., Finch, S.J., Hopkins, J., Lefebvre, S.C., Metodiev, M.V., 668
- 669 Oxborough, K., Raines, C.A., Lawson, T., and Geider, R.J. (2013). The trade-off between
- the light-harvesting and photoprotective functions of fucoxanthin-chlorophyll proteins 670
- dominates light acclimation in Emiliania huxleyi (clone CCMP 1516). New Phytologist 671
- 672 200, 74–85.
- 673 52. Benton, H.P., Want, E.J., and Ebbels, T.M.D. (2010). Correction of mass calibration gaps
- 674 in liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry metabolomics data. Bioinformatics 26,
- 2488-2489. 675
- 676 53. Smith, C.A., Want, E.J., O'Maille, G., Abagyan, R., and Siuzdak, G. (2006). XCMS:
- 677 Processing Mass Spectrometry Data for Metabolite Profiling Using Nonlinear Peak
- 678 Alignment, Matching, and Identification. Anal. Chem. 78, 779–787.
- 679 54. Tautenhahn, R., Böttcher, C., and Neumann, S. (2008). Highly sensitive feature detection
- for high resolution LC/MS. BMC Bioinformatics 9, 504. 680
- 681 55. Touw, W.G., Bayjanov, J.R., Overmars, L., Backus, L., Boekhorst, J., Wels, M., and van
- Hijum, S.A.F.T. (2013). Data mining in the Life Sciences with Random Forest: a walk in 682
- the park or lost in the jungle? Brief. Bioinformatics 14, 315–326. 683
- 684 56. Hopkins, D.P., Cameron, D.D., and Butlin, R.K. (2017). The chemical signatures
- 685 underlying host plant discrimination by aphids. Scientific Reports 7, 8498.
- 57. Warnes, G.R., Bolker, B., Bonebakker, L., Gentleman, R., Huber, W., Liaw, A., Lumley, 686
- 687 T., Maechler, M., Magnusson, A., and Moeller, S. (2009). gplots: Various R
- 688 programming tools for plotting data. R package version 2, 1.

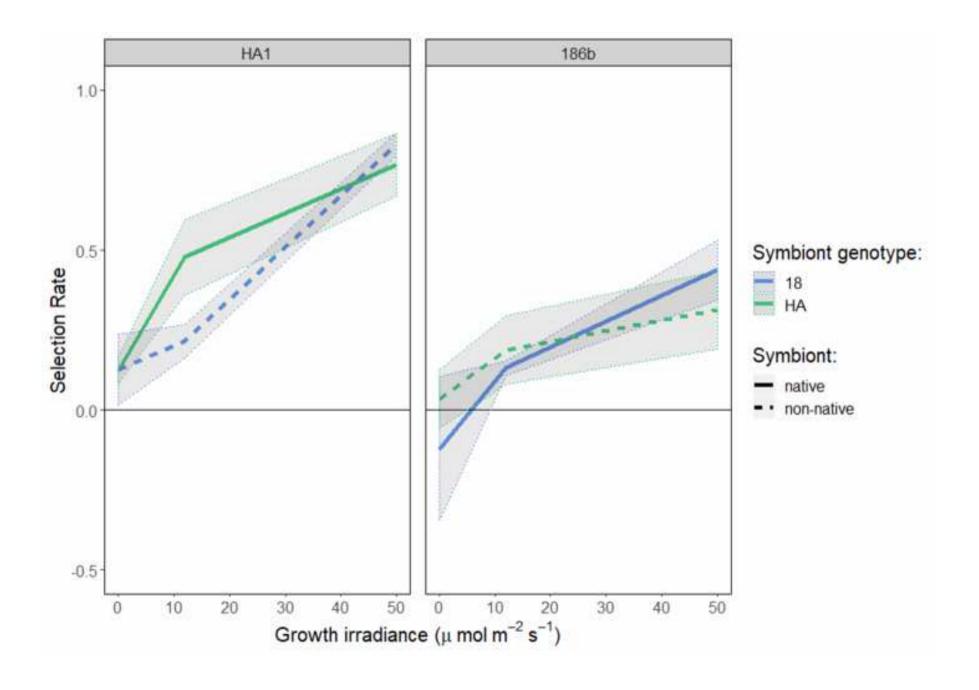
58. Storey, J.D., and Tibshirani, R. (2003). Statistical significance for genomewide studies. 689 690 PNAS 100, 9440-9445. 691 59. Kaever, A., Lingner, T., Feussner, K., Göbel, C., Feussner, I., and Meinicke, P. (2009). MarVis: a tool for clustering and visualization of metabolic biomarkers. BMC 692 693 Bioinformatics 10, 92. 694 60. Kanehisa, M., and Goto, S. (2000). KEGG: kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes. 695 Nucleic Acids Res. 28, 27-30. 696 61. Kanehisa, M., Sato, Y., Furumichi, M., Morishima, K., and Tanabe, M. (2019). New 697 approach for understanding genome variations in KEGG. Nucleic Acids Res. 47, D590-698 D595. 699 62. Caspi, R., Billington, R., Fulcher, C.A., Keseler, I.M., Kothari, A., Krummenacker, M., Latendresse, M., Midford, P.E., Ong, Q., Ong, W.K., et al. (2018). The MetaCyc 700 database of metabolic pathways and enzymes. Nucleic Acids Res 46, D633–D639. 701 702 63. R Core Team (2018). R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. Available at: https://www.R-project.org/. 703 704 64. Wickham, H. (2016). ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. 705 65. Pinheiro, J., Bates, D., DebRoy, S., Sarkar, D., and R core Team (2019) (2019). nlme: Linear and Nonlinear Mixed Effects Models. Available at: https://CRAN.R-706 project.org/package=nlme. 707 708 709 710

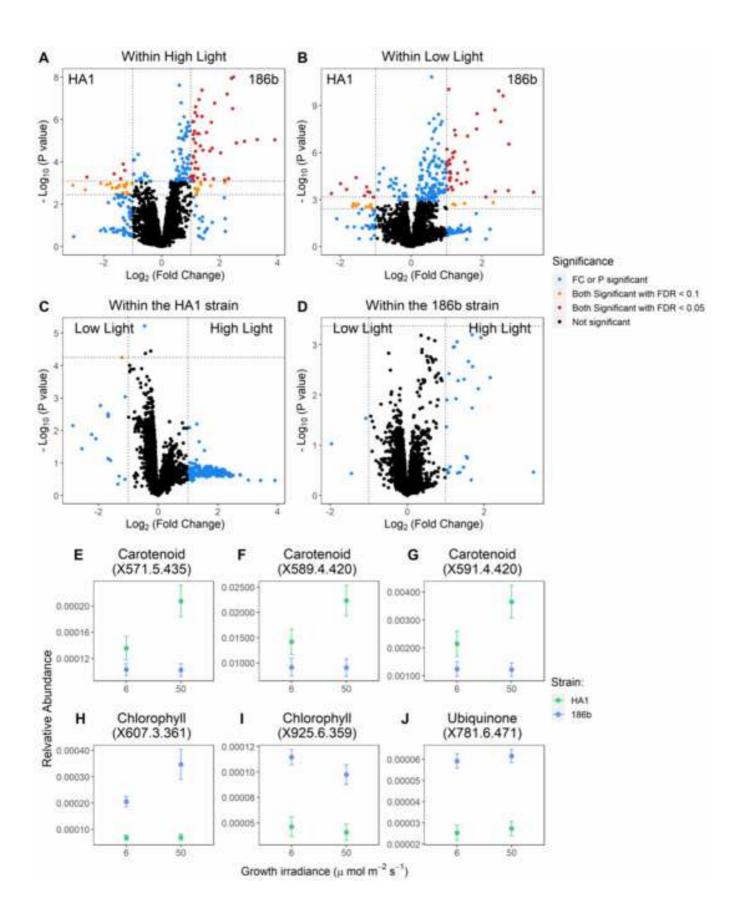
711

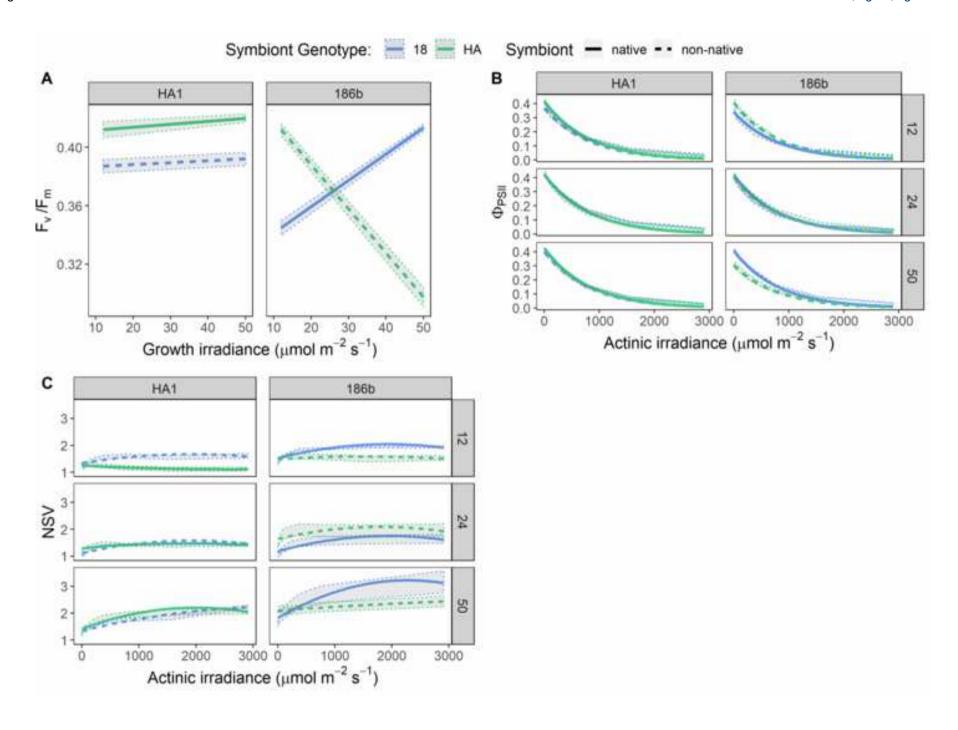
## **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Bacterial and Virus Strains		
Serratia marscesens	Collection of Institut Pasteur	CIP 103235T
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins		1
Protozoan Pellet Media	Carolina Biological Supply	132360
Paraquat dichloride	Sigma-Aldrich	36541; CAS: 75365-73-0
8-peak rainbow calibration particles	BioLegend	422903
Chelex100 resin	Bio-Rad Laboratories	1421253
Deposited Data		
Mass spectrometry data, fluorimetry data and flow	This paper	DOI:
cytometry data	The paper	10.17632/6zspctmwpj.1
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
P. bursaria – Chlorella 186b strain	Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa	CCAP 1660/18
P. bursaria - Chlorella HA1 strain	National BioResource project	NBRP ID: PB034004A
Oligonucleotides		
ISSR primer '65': AGAGAGAGAGAGAGAGCC	[48]	N/A
Software and Algorithms		1
ImageJ v1.50i	[49]	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/
xcms R package	[52–54]	https://bioconductor.org/p ackages/release/bioc/html /xcms.html
MarVis-Suite 2.0 software	[59]	http://marvis.gobics.de/









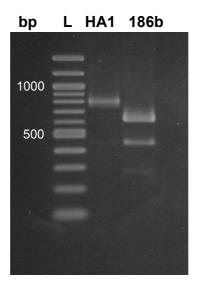


Figure S1: Diagnostic PCR between the HA1 and 186b *Chlorella* strains. Related to STAR Methods.

Showing clear banding pattern differences with the '65 ISSR' primer. Shown with a 100 bp ladder.

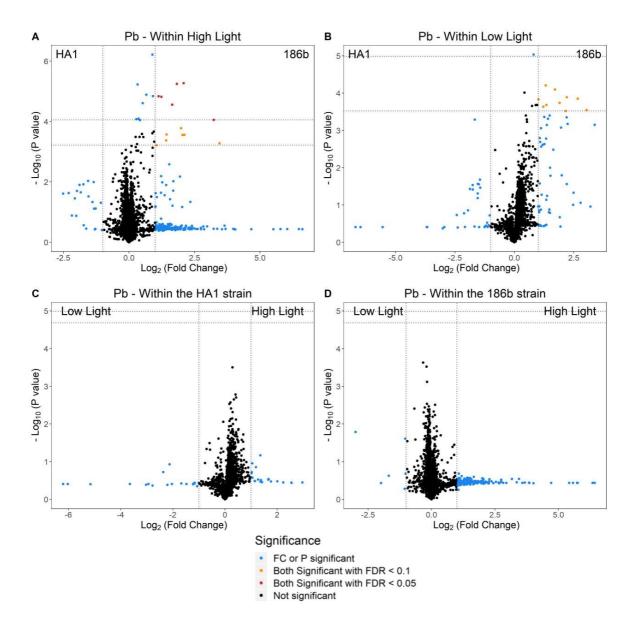


Figure S2: Comparisons of the unlabelled *Paramecium* metabolites between the strains and light conditions. Related to the main text and Figure 3.

Volcano plots for the unlabelled *Paramecium* metabolite comparisons. Plotting the fold change of each metabolite against its statistical significance. The data points are highlighted at two false discovery rate (FDR) values, and if the Log<sub>2</sub>(fold change) is greater than 1 or less than -1. A.) Comparing the expression between the two strains within the high light condition. B.) Comparing the expression between the two strains within the low light condition. C.) Comparing expression between the two light levels within the HA1 strain. D.) Comparing expression between the two light levels within the 186b strain. See Table S4 for the identified significant metabolites.

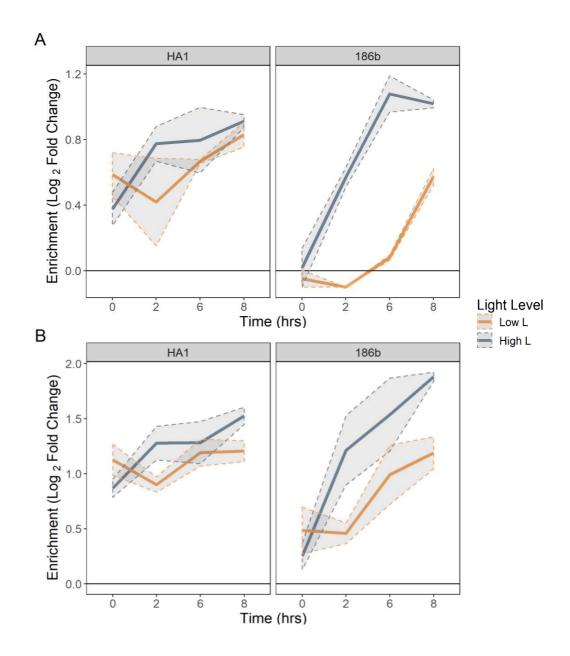


Figure S3: The interaction of light intensity and strain identity on the C<sup>13</sup> enrichment profile of carbohydrate metabolites in the *Paramecium* fraction. Related to the main text and STAR Methods.

For all panels, the enrichment value is the Log2 of the Fold Change in enrichment of the  $C^{13}$  labelled fraction compared to the control. Presented as the mean (n=3) ±SE. The low light level refers to 6 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and the high light to 50 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. A) Profile of 689.2 mz, 16 rt, Glycogen. B) Profile of 365.1 mz, 16 rt, a disaccharide, thought to be sucrose.

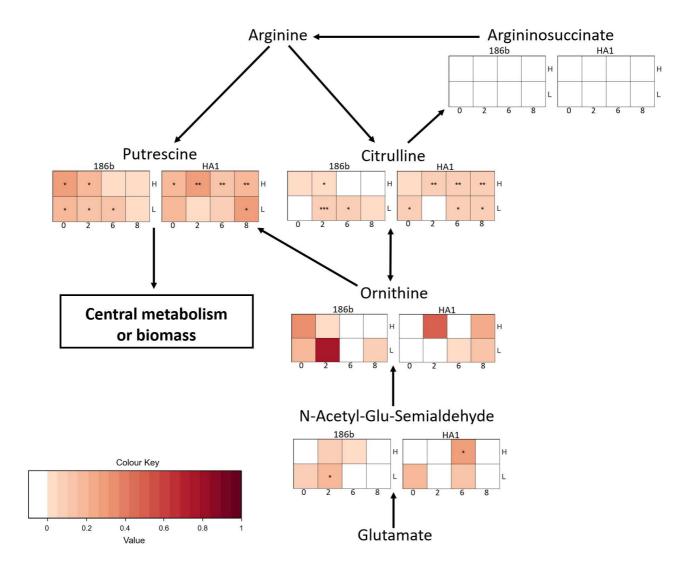


Figure S4: Schematic pathway diagram of nitrogen enrichment in the amino acid metabolism of the *Chlorella* metabolic fraction. Related to the main text and STAR methods.

The tables show relative  $N^{15}$  enrichment across time (in hrs), in the two light conditions (H = 50 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, L = 6 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). The colour corresponds to the fold change of the enrichment compared to the control, with significance stars indicating the statistical strength of this change. The nitrogen enrichment is focused downstream from arginine; ornithine, putrescine and citrulline possessed clear enrichment profiles while upstream compounds such as arginosuccinate had no detectable enrichment. This analysis is further explained in the STAR methods section.

Strain	Year	Location	Latitude and	Elevation	Average Temperature	Average Total Sunshine	Culture Collection
			Longitude		Range	hours a year	
186b	2006	Lilly Loch, Inverawe, Scotland, UK	56°26'03.8"N 5°12'22.1"W	20-40m	2.3°c to 17.9°c <sup>1</sup>	1,219.4 hrs <sup>1</sup>	CCAP 1660/18 <sup>2</sup>
HA1	2010	Hirosaki-city, Aomori pref, Japan	40°35'35.02"N 140°28'21"E	45m	-5°c to 28°c <sup>3</sup>	2013.2 hrs <sup>3</sup>	NBRP ID: PB034004A <sup>4</sup>

Table S1. Details of the *P. bursaria – Chlorella* strains. Related to main text and STAR Methods.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Based on the Met Office UK Climate averages data for Dunstaffnage (https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/research/climate/maps-and-data/uk-climate-averages)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> https://www.ccap.ac.uk/strain\_info.php?Strain\_No=1660/18

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Based on data for Hirosaki city and Aomori airport (https://www.japanhoppers.com/en/tohoku/hirosaki/weather/) (https://www.worldweatheronline.com/hirosaki-weather-averages/aomori/jp.aspx)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> http://nbrpcms.nig.ac.jp/paramecium/wp-content/themes/paramecium/data/strain ha1g.pdf

RF Time	<b>Detected Mass</b>	<b>Retention Time</b>	Pathway	Candidate Compounds	<b>Exact Mass</b>	Adduct	KEGG/ MetaCyc
1	113	482	Pyrimidine/Amino acid	Uracil	112.0273	H+	C00106
				1,3-diaminopropane	74.0844	K+	C00986
1	166	478	Purine	5-Amino-4-imidazole carboxylate	127.0382	K+	C05516
1,2	237.1	286	Biotin	Dethiobiotin	214.1317	Na+	C01909
1,2,3,4	871.6	405	Chlorophyll	Pheophytin A	870.5659	H+	C05797
1,2,4	593.3	405	Chlorophyll	Pheophorbide A	592.2686	H+	C18021
				Urobilinogen	592.3261	H+	C05790
2,3	140	213	Amino acid	L-Aspartate 4-semialdehyde	117.0426	Na+	C00441
				Indole	117.0578	Na+	C00463
				1-Aminocyclopropane-carboxylate	101.0477	K+	C01234
				5-Aminopentanal	101.0841	K+	C12455
3	482.4	324	Folate biosynthesis	Dihydrofolate	443.1553	K+	C00415
3	848.6	294	Ubiquinone	Rhodoquinone-10	847.6842	H+	CPD-9613
4	227.1	460	Amino acid/Chlorophyll	Tryptophan	204.0899	Na+	C00078
				Porphobilinogen	226.0954	H+	C00931

Table S2. List of metabolite IDs found to be co-enriched with <sup>15</sup>N in the *Chlorella* fraction and their candidate identifications. Related to Figure 1, the main text and STAR Methods.

RF Time	<b>Detected Mass</b>	<b>Retention Time</b>	Pathway	<b>Candidate Compounds</b>	<b>Exact Mass</b>	Adduct	KEGG
1	100	16	Glycerophospholipid	Ethanolamine	61.0528	K+	C00189
1	689.2	16	Carbohydrate	Glycogen	666.2219	Na+	C00182
1,2	124	15	Vitamins and Cofactors	Niacin	123.032	H+	C00253
1,2	261	14	Carbohydrate	Monosaccharide phosphate	260.0297	H+	C00092
1,2,3	251	17	Isoprenoid pathway	(R)-5-Phosphomevalonate	228.0399	Na+	C01107
1,2,3,4	190	341	Phosphonate	Demethylphosphinothricin	167.0347	Na+	C17962
1,2,3,4	441.3	310	Lipid	Hydroxycholesterol	402.3498	K+	C05500
1,2,3,4	639.2	414	Heme biosynthesis	Haem	616.1773	Na+	C00032
1,2,3,4	212.9	479	Chlorocyclohexane and chlorobenzene degradation	Chlorodienelactone	173.972	Ka+	C04706
1,2,4	109	479	Quinone	p-Benzoquinone	108.0211	H+	C00472
1,2,4	345.9	480	Amino acid metab	3-lodo-L-tyrosine	306.9705	K+	C02515
1,3,4	169	19	Central metabolism	2-Oxoglutarate	146.0215	Na+	C00026
				2-Oxoisocaproate	130.063	K+	C00233
				3-Methyl-2-oxopentanoate	130.063	K+	C00671
				2-Dehydropantoate	146.0579	K+	C00966
				3-Phosphonopyruvate	167.9824	H+	C02798
				Phosphoenolpyruvate	167.9824	H+	C00074
2	313.2	287	Lipid	HPODE	312.2301	H+	C04717
2,3,4	519.1	400	Peptide	Nitro-hydroxy-glutathionyl-	496.1264	Na+	C14803
				dihydronaphthalene			
2,4	71.1	373	Amino acid	Aminopropiononitrile	70.0531	H+	C05670
3	405.1	236	Isoprenoid pathway	Farnesyl diphosphate	382.131	Na+	C00448

Table S3. List of metabolite IDs found to be co-enriched with <sup>13</sup>C in the *P. bursaria* fraction and their candidate identifications. Related to Figure 1, the main text and STAR Methods.

	Upregulated		Detected	Retention						Kegg/
Fraction	in	Condition	Mass	Time	FDR	Pathway	Candidate Compounds	<b>Exact Mass</b>	Adduct	Metacyc
Chlorella	HA1 strain	H & L light	247.2	336	*,**	Alkaloid/quinone	Anapheline	224.1889	Na+	C06183
							Geranylhydroquinone	246.162	H+	C10793
			283.3	336	* * *	Fatty acid	Oleate	282.2559	H+	C00712
		H light	218.2	17	*	Amino acid	L-Glutamylputrescine	217.1426	H+	C15699
							Alanyl-L-lysine	217.1426	H+	C05341
			265.3	337	*	Fatty acid	1-Hexadecanol	242.261	Na+	C00823
			385.2	375	*	Plant Hormone	Gibberellin A36	362.1729	Na+	C11862
			571.5	435	*	Carotenoid	Methoxyneurosporene	570.4801	H+	C15895
			589.4	420	*	Carotenoid	Echinenone	550.4175	K+	C08592
							Anhydrorhodovibrin	566.4488	Na+	C15877
							Hydroxychlorobactene	550.4175	K+	C15911
							3-Hydroxyechinenone	566.4124	Na+	C15966
			591.4	420	*	Carotenoid	Zeaxanthin	568.428	Na+	C06098
							Zeinoxanthin	552.4331	K+	C08590
							beta-Cryptoxanthin	552.4331	K+	C08591
							Xanthophyll	568.428	Na+	C08601
	Laur Balak	1101 stusiu	742.5	272	*	Director of the control of the contr	1-18:3-2-trans-16:1-	742.4785 H+		CDD 240C
	Low Light	HA1 strain	/43.5	373	**	Phosphoglyceride	phosphatidylglycerol			CPD-2186
	186 Strain	H & L light	105	15	*,**	Central metabolism	Hydroxypyruvate	104.011	H+	C00168
							Allophanate	104.0222	H+	C01010
			169	17	**	Central metabolism	2-Oxoglutarate	146.0215	Na+	C00026
							Phosphoenolpyruvate	167.9824	H+	C00074
							3-Phosphonopyruvate	167.9824	H+	C02798
							2-Oxoisocaproate	130.063	K+	C00233
							3-Methyl-2-oxopentanate	130.063	K+	C00671
							2-Dehydropantoate	146.0579	Na+	C00966
							Coumarin	146.0368	Na+	C05851
			273.2	395	**	Fatty Acid	16-Hydroxypalmitate	272.2351	H+	C18218
			289.3	244	**	Diterpenoid	Kaurenol	288.2453	H+	C11872

	Upregulated		Detected							
Fraction	in	Condition	Mass	time	FDR	Pathway	Candidate Compounds	Exact mass	Adduct	KEGG
Chlorella			337.3	380	**	Fatty acids	13;16-Docosadienoic acid	336.3028	H+	C16533
			607.3	361	**	Chlorophyll	Protoporphyrinogen IX	568.305	K+	C01079
			781.6	471	**	Ubiquinone	3-methoxy-4-hydroxy-5- nonaprenylbenzoate	780.2	H+	CPD-9898
			925.6	359	**	Chlorophyll	Bacterio-pheophytins	888.5765	K+	C05798
		H light	262.1	248	**	Folate	Dihydrobiopterin	239.1018	Na+	C00268
		•					6-Lactoyl-5;6;7;8-tetrahydropterin	239.1018	Na+	C04244
			323.2	248	*	Photoreception	Vitamin A aldehyde	284.214	K+	C00376
			335.3	372	**	Isoprenoids	Phytol	296.3079	K+	C01389
			751.5	366	**	Ubiquinone	Octaprenyl-methyl-hydroxy-methoxy- 1;4-benzoquinone	712.5431	K+	C05815
		L light	273.3	268	**	Diterpenoid	Ent-Kaurene	272.2504	H+	C06090
P. bursaria	186 strain	H & L light	124	238	**,*	Vitamins and Cofactors	Niacin	123.032	H+	C00253
			126	217	**,*	Sulfur metabolism	Taurine	125.0147	H+	C00245
			170	237	**,*	Amino acid	Glutamate	147.0532	Na+	C00025
							5-Amino-4-oxopentanoate	131.0582	K+	C00430
							Glutamate 5-semialdehyde	131.0582	K+	C01165
			364.2	236	*,*	Antibiotic ?	ACV	363.1464	H+	C05556
			396.1	237	*,*	Antibiotic ?	Deacetylcephalosporin C	373.0944	Na+	C03112
							Novobiocic acid	395.1369	H+	C12474
		H light	352.2	237	*	Plant hormone?	trans-Zeatin riboside	351.1543	H+	C16431
			390.1	237	*	Amino/nucleotide sugar	N-Acetylneuraminate 9-phosphate	389.0723	H+	C06241
			416.1	250	**	Antibiotic ?	Cephalosporin C	415.1049	H+	C00916
							Chlorobiocic acid	415.0823	H+	C12471
			434.1	249	*	Antibiotic ?	Novobiocic acid	395.1369	K+	C12474
		L light	418.2	268	*	Sphingolipid	Sphingosine 1-phosphate	379.2488	K+	C06124

Table S4. The metabolite IDs and candidate identification for the metabolites of interest from the unlabelled metabolic analyses. Related to Figure 3, Figure S2, and the main text.

These metabolites were therefore upregulated in either one of the strains or in one of the light conditions. This table includes both the *Chlorella* and *P. bursaria* results.