

Temporal variations of Microsporidia diversity and discovery of new host–parasite interactions in a lake ecosystem

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1	Temporal variations of Microsporidia diversity and discovery of new
2	host-parasite interactions in a lake ecosystem
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4	Running title: Microsporidia diversity and new hosts in lakes
5	
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12	

13 Originality-Significance Statement

14

15 In this study, we highlighted for the first time temporal variations of microsporidian diversity in a

16 lake ecosystem over one year. Through two complementary approaches, co-occurrence network and

- 17 in situ hybridization (with a newly designed probe specific to Microsporidia), we identified new
- 18 hosts of Microsporidia among community at the base of the food webs.

20 Abstract

21

22 Microsporidia are a large group of obligate intracellular eukaryotic parasites related to Fungi. 23 Recent studies suggest that their diversity has been greatly underestimated and little is known about their hosts other than metazoans, and thus about their impact on the communities at the base of the 24 25 food web. In this work, we therefore studied the diversity of Microsporidia over one year and 26 identified potential new hosts in small-sized fractions (<150 µm) in a lake ecosystem using 27 a metabarcoding approach coupled with co-occurrence networks and TSA-FISH. Our analysis shows a great Microsporidia diversity (1 472 OTUs), with an important part of this 28 29 diversity being unknown. Temporal variations of this diversity have been observed which 30 might follow temporal variations of their potential hosts such as protists and 31 microzooplankton. New hosts among them were identified as well as associations with phytoplankton. Indeed, repeated infections were observed in Kellicottia (rotifers) with a 32 33 prevalence of 38% (infected individuals). Microsporidia inside a Stentor (ciliate) were also 34 observed. Finally, potential infections of the diatom Asterionella were identified (prevalence 35 <0.1%). The microsporidian host spectrum could be therefore even more important than previously described, and their role in the functioning of lake ecosystems is undoubtedly 36 37 largely unknown.

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41 Microsporidia are a diverse phylum of unicellular eukaryotes related to Fungi (Karpov et al., 2014). 42 They are obligate intracellular parasites known to date to parasitize a broad range of hosts among 43 the animal kingdom as well as some protists (Murareanu et al., 2021). Many species parasitizing 44 metazoan hosts have been described, with 16 metazoan phyla described as microsporidian hosts (Murareanu et al., 2021). Microsporidia include the canonical Microsporidia, which share common 45 features (including the presence of a polar tube, highly reduced mitochondria (mitosomes) and a 46 47 compact genome), and microsporidia-like organisms (Bass et al., 2018; Wadi and Reinke, 2020; Park and Poulin, 2021). These parasites infect hosts in all environments, but 50% of the known 48 genera infect aquatic hosts (Stentiford et al., 2013). The environmental diversity of Microsporidia is 49 50 nevertheless clearly underestimated since these species have been described mostly after the search of infectious agents in organisms of interest (edible fish and crustaceans, auxiliary insects, domestic 51 52 insects (silkworms, bees)), pests (crop pests, disease-carrying insects), bioindicators (daphnids, 53 amphipods), and humans. Moreover, Microsporidia are generally absent from studies focusing on the diversity of protists carried out by high-throughput sequencing, due to the use of primers not 54 55 adapted to the microsporidian phylum (Hadziavdic et al., 2014; Hugerth et al., 2014). In aquatic 56 ecosystems, high-throughput sequencing studies yet suggest the presence of numerous parasites with many sequences affiliated especially to alveolates and Fungi (e.g. Debroas et al., 2017). 57 58 Recent studies using microsporidian-specific primers suggest that a large amount of the 59 environmental microsporidian diversity remains to be described (Ardila-Garcia et al., 2013; Williams et al., 2018; Dubuffet et al., 2021). Moreover, although Microsporidia have a very wide 60 61 host spectrum, they have rarely been described as parasites of protists and microzooplankton. In 62 marine ecosystems, they are notably described as hyperparasites of gregarines (e.g. Mikhailov et al., 63 2016). In freshwater ecosystems, infections by Microsporidia have been registered in ciliates (Lutz

and Splendore, 1908; Krüger, 1956; Görtz, 1987; Fokin et al., 2008; Yakovleva et al., 2020), 64 65 gregarines (Rühl and Korn, 1979; Codreanu-Bălcescu and Codreanu, 1976), unicellular cnidarians (Morris and Freeman, 2010) and rotifers (Gorbunov and Kosova, 2001; Wolska and Mazurkiewicz-66 67 Zapalowicz, 2013). Most of these observations are based on light microscopy and/or transmission electron microscopy therefore allowing only morphological descriptions. By now, only two 68 69 microsporidian species parasitizing protists in brackish and river ecosystems are characterized by 70 morphological and molecular approaches (i.e. 18S rDNA sequences): Euplotespora binucleata and 71 Globosporidium paramecii parasitizing the ciliates Euplotes woodruffi and Paramecium aurelia, 72 respectively (Fokin et al., 2008; Yakovleva et al., 2020). Thus, the global diversity of Microsporidia 73 in aquatic ecosystems is largely unknown, especially in small sized hosts (*i.e.* <150µm).

74

75 A first metabarcoding analysis revealed an important diversity of Microsporidia, of which about 76 50% couldn't be affiliated to a genus and about 25% not to a family (Dubuffet et al., 2021). We 77 hypothesized that some of these Microsporidia may infect understudied hosts, such as protists or 78 microzooplankton. To test this hypothesis, we studied in parallel the diversity of Microsporidia and 79 other eukaryotes, as well as their variations over a year in a lake ecosystem, using a targeted 80 metabarcoding approach, focusing on fractions containing small sized hosts. Potential new host-81 microsporidian interactions were searched through co-occurrence network analysis based on 82 metabarcoding data, as well as through a TSA-FISH approach.

84 Results

85 Microsporidian diversity

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A total of 1 472 OTUs were obtained from 2874995 18S rRNA gene sequencing reads (1080350 reads after normalization). Three samples were removed because of their low reads number (<12 400) and poor representation of the diversity: 20/02/19-0.8/10-RNA, 06/05/19-10/150-RNA and 29/07/19-10/150-DNA, resulting in a dataset of 85 samples.

91 On average, 33 823 reads were obtained per sample and the rarefaction curves showed that a
92 plateau was reached for most of the samples (Supplementary Information 3).

93 Microsporidia α -diversity varied among samples, the highest diversity being recorded in the 0.8-10 94 μ m size fraction (Supplementary Information 4). Despite a high number of OTUs, the 95 microsporidian community was clearly dominated by a low number of dominant OTUs, since 14 96 OTUs represented more than 50% of the total reads.

97 OTUs obtained in this study belonged to the canonical Microsporidia, and were affiliated at least to 98 a clade (which roughly correspond to the class rank, Vossbrinck et al., 2014) after the first 99 taxonomic affiliation (i.e. implemented in PANAM2 pipeline). Among the 10 clades defined in 100 Dubuffet et al. (2021) for canonical Microsporidia (from clade I to clade IX, clade IV considered as 101 a 'super-clade' and being divided in two clades), our OTUs were distributed in five clades: I, IV1, 102 IV2, V, VIII. The microsporidian community was clearly dominated by clades IV2 and I, which 103 represented respectively 80.6% (77.4% reads) and 16.6% (20.6% reads) of the OTUs. The 104 remaining OTUs were classified into clades IV1: 2% (1.2% reads), V: 0.4% (0.1% reads) and VIII: 105 0.3% (0.7% reads) (Fig.1, Supplementary Information 5).

Within the five clades, eight groups (which mostly correspond to families, Dubuffet *et al.*, 2021) were identified following the analysis on PANAM2. Two of them accounted for 74% of the OTUs (83% of the reads): Aquatic outgroup (clade I, 16.6% OTUs, 20.6% reads) and Arlequin group

109	(clade IV2, 57.3% OTUs, 62.2% reads) (Fig.1, Supplementary Information 5). Among OTUs
110	assigned to a genus, Crispospora (50.0% OTUs, 53.8% reads) and Pseudoberwaldia (7.5% OTUs,
111	11.1% reads) were the most represented (Fig.1, Supplementary Information 5).
112	However, 39% of the OTUs were not assigned to a genus and 22% not even to a group following
113	the analysis on PANAM2 (Supplementary Information 5). We therefore performed phylogenetic
114	analyses on these OTUs, focusing on the most abundant (>500 reads) (Supplementary Information
115	6). These analyses placed these OTUs into five new groups previously identified in Dubuffet et al.
116	(2021). Three of these new groups (Van8, Van10 and BPAR5) (Fig.1) represent a significant portion
117	of the observed diversity. The Van8 group, for example, represented 9.5% of the reads, and up to
118	90% of the reads in one sample (29/07/19-0.8/10-RNA). We furthermore identified several
119	subgroups (proxies for genera) within both the known and new groups (Supplementary Information
120	6).
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- 123 Variations of the microsporidian diversity
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No significant differences were observed in the composition of the DNA and RNA samples (Supplementary Information 7). 95% of OTUs were shared by both types of samples. Only 48 and 32 OTUs were specific to DNA and RNA samples, respectively (these OTUs representing at most 0.08% of total reads). The mean rRNA:rDNA ratio computed for each OTU was 7.3, which suggests that much of the diversity discovered was active (*i.e.* rRNA:rDNA ratio >1).

Variations in the relative abundances of some taxa were however recorded between size fractions as well as across time (Fig.2). For the size fractions, no major differences in the community composition were recorded at the group level. However, for the same sampling dates, some genera/subgroups showed considerable differences between the two size fractions (Fig.2). Within the Van8 group, for example, the subgroup1 was almost exclusively found in the large size fraction, sometimes with high abundance (*e.g.* 50% of the reads in the sample 01/07/19). Subgroups 2 and 3, on the other hand, were mostly found in the small size fraction (Fig.2).

137 Regarding variations across time, the composition of microsporidian communities greatly changed between two close sampling dates, from the clade to the genus/subgroup level. In the small size 138 139 fraction, for example, the sample 01/07/19 was greatly dominated by the genus Crispospora, while 140 the sample 29/07/19 was composed at 80% of the 'Van8 group ; subgroup 3' (Fig.2). Some 141 genera/subgroups seemed abundant for a particular period (e.g. 'Van8 group ; subgroup 3' between 142 late July and November) or even at a single sampling date ('Arlequin group ; Cr1 subgroup': 143 02/12/2019), while others showed a saw-toothed abundance over the year (e.g. 'Van8 group ; subgroup 1') (Fig.2). At the OTUs level, considerable variations across time could also be observed. 144 Indeed, more than 50% of the reads were represented by two or three OTUs in several samples, 145 146 with temporal variations in these dominant OTUs (Supplementary Information 8).

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149 Eukaryotic diversity

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In the eukaryotic dataset, four samples were removed because of their low reads number (<12 400) and poor representation of the diversity: 18/04/19-10/150-RNA, 14/06/19-10/150-DNA, 29/07/19-0.8/10-DNA and 29/07/19-10/150-DNA, resulting in a dataset of 84 samples. A total of 631 OTUs were obtained from 3158730 18S rRNA gene sequencing reads (1044624 reads after normalization).

In terms of OTUs number, the main taxonomic groups were the Stramenopiles (238 OTUs), Alveolata (141) and Viridiplantae (59). If we consider the read abundance, the dominant groups were the Alveolata (33.3% of the reads), Stramenopiles (31%) and Metazoa (10.5%). The 159 eukaryotic community was clearly dominated by the ciliates (Alveolata) which represented almost 30% of the reads (Fig.3). The Cryptophyta (Cryptophyceae), Rotifera (Metazoa) and Chlorophyta 160 161 (Viridiplantae) were also abundant with 9.7%, 6.3% and 5.4% of the reads, respectively. 162 Considerable differences in the eukaryotic community were identified between the two different 163 size fractions. For example, rotifers and arthropods were almost exclusively found in the large size 164 fraction. Diatoms and chytrids were also more abundant in the 10-150 µm fraction. On the opposite, 165 some phyla were mostly found in the small size fraction as Cryptophyta, Chlorophyta, Cercozoa 166 and Chrysophyceae (Fig.3). Variations in the eukaryotic communities were also identified across 167 time. Ciliates for example occur in all samples but were particularly abundant during spring and 168 summer, whereas the Cryptophyta were mostly found during winter and spring. Other phyla were 169 identified with variations throughout the sampling period but without any pattern, such as the Chrysophyceae, the arthropods and the rotifers. The latter were, however, sometimes really 170 171 abundant as in the sample 19/11/18 (large size fraction) representing 61.5% of the reads (Fig.3).

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174 Co-occurrence networks

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176 In order to suggest potential host-parasite relationships, eukaryotic and microsporidian OTUs with a 177 total abundance higher than 0.05% were used to build a co-occurrence network. 1 640 associations were identified of which 1 324 (80.7%) were positive, in a simple connected network (only one 178 component). We focused our analysis on positive edges only, as Microsporidia are obligate 179 intracellular parasites, this requiring the simultaneous presence of both partners (Supplementary 180 181 Information 9). Therefore, only positive edges between Microsporidia and eukaryotes were further 182 considered, resulting in 88 microsporidian and 98 eukaryotic OTUs with 206 positive associations represented in the Sankey diagram (Fig.4). 183

Microsporidia co-occurred mainly with Ciliophora, Rotifera and Arthropoda, these three phyla 184 185 being included in almost 50% of the associations. The two most abundant genera of Microsporidia, 186 Crispospora and Pseudoberwaldia, were notably found to co-occur mainly with Ciliophora (46% 187 and 42% of the associations, respectively). To a lesser extent, associations were also found with 188 other eukaryotes including Chrytridiomycota, Dinoflagellata, Bacillariophyta (diatoms), 189 Chlorophyta and Chrysophyceae (Fig.4). Among the new groups defined in Dubuffet et al. (2021), 190 the Van8 group (clade IV2) showed 16 associations with 11 eukaryotic taxa (about one third of 191 these associations being with Chrysophyceae) and the Van10 group (clade IV2) showed 15 192 associations with 8 eukaryotic taxa (mostly with Chlorophyta and Rotifera) (Fig.4) (see 193 Supplementary Information 10 for a detailed table of the number of associations).

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196	TSA-FISH
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TSA-FISH was used to confirm potential host-parasite associations between Microsporidia and planktonic eukaryotes (<150 μ m) highlighted by the co-occurrence network. All samples (10-150 μ m size fraction) were screened with the USP01 probe, targeting all the Microsporidia recovered in the current analysis. Positive signals were observed inside rotifers identified as belonging to the genus *Kellicottia* by morphological observations (Fig.5). This association was observed at four different dates (27/05/19, 06/06/19, 14/06/19 and 17/06/19) and the prevalence of potentially parasitized *Kellicottia* reached 50% (27/05/19) with a mean value of 38%.

TSA-FISH also allowed the observation of positive signals on cells attached to diatoms (genus *Asterionella*) (Fig.6a-c) at five different dates (18/04/19, 08/10/19, 04/11/19, 02/12/19, 07/01/20).
However due to a high abundance of *Asterionella* at theses dates, the prevalence was always <0.1%.

- 208 Moreover, a single observation (17/06/19 in the large size fraction) shows positive signals inside a
- 209 ciliate identified as belonging to the genus *Stentor* by morphological observations (Fig.6d-f).
- 210 Finally, other positive signals were observed, but the potentially infected hosts could not be
- 211 identified (Supplementary Information 11).
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214

215 So far, few studies have investigated the diversity of Microsporidia in environmental samples. A 216 cloning-sequencing study (Ardila-Garcia et al., 2013) and a metabarcoding study (Williams et al., 217 2018) presented a first description of this diversity, mostly in terrestrial and marine environments. 218 However, due to a low number of reads, a limited comparison of Microsporidia communities 219 between different sites was made, and variation of the microsporidian diversity through time was 220 not evaluated. In a more recent metabarcoding analysis, an important microsporidian diversity was 221 revealed in lacustrine environments, with more than 1 500 OTUs distributed across seven of the ten 222 clades defined for canonical Microsporidia (Dubuffet et al., 2021) and several new groups (and probable new families and/or genera) were discovered. The diversity of Microsporidia in lake Aydat 223 224 studied here, over one year, was of the same order of magnitude with 1 472 microsporidian OTUs 225 identified. Besides, except two clades weakly represented in Dubuffet et al. (2021), the same clades 226 (I, IV1, IV2, V, VIII) were recovered. Similarly to the previous study, most of the OTUs were 227 affiliated to clade IV2 and clade I, and most of the groups identified were also found in Dubuffet et 228 al. (2021) with the exception of OTUs belonging to the Enterocytozoonidae, which appear almost 229 only in February in our study. Among OTUs assigned to a genus, Crispospora and 230 *Pseudoberwaldia* were the most represented. These two genera are described as parasites of aquatic hosts (daphnia for Pseudoberwaldia (Vávra et al., 2019)) or hosts having at least one aquatic 231 development stage (chironomids for Crispospora (Tokarev et al., 2010)). Chironomids eggs and 232 larvae are highly abundant in lake environments, especially when they are eutrophic and 233 234 anthropized (Langdon et al., 2006) such as lake Aydat, which could explain the abundance of 235 Microsporidia assigned to Crispospora.

The new groups previously identified in Dubuffet *et al.* (2021) and also found in this study represented a non-negligible part of the microsporidian diversity as they correspond to 10% of the OTUs included in our phylogenetic analyses, suggesting that a significant proportion of microsporidian groups/families and subgroups/genera remain to be studied. This unknown part of the Microsporidia diversity could correspond to parasites of small hosts (protists, microzooplankton), which currently represent only a small proportion of the microsporidian hosts described.

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244 Between the two size fractions (0.8-10 and 10-150 µm) studied, moderate differences were 245 observed at the finest taxonomic levels (genus/subgroup). Indeed, 'Van8 group ; subgroup 2', 'Van8 246 group; subgroup 3' and 'Orthosomella-like group; O4 subgroup' were found almost exclusively in 247 the small size fraction and 'Van8 group ; subgroup 1' in the large size fraction. Such differences might be explained by the spore sizes, or the type of host parasitized. Indeed, the former could be 248 <10 µm in size and/or infect only small hosts (assuming that Microsporidia could parasitize host 249 250 <10 µm), and the latter could be large (some spores having a size >10 µm, (Vávra and Larsson, 251 2014)) and/or infect hosts larger than 10 µm. But as no species has been morphologically described 252 in these subgroups, we know nothing about the size of their spores. However, we know the size of 253 some of the Microsporidia found in this study. Crispospora chironomi for example has spores of 2.5 254 x 1.5 µm size which can be released in 20-30 µm thick wall capsules (Tokarev et al., 2010). This is 255 thus not surprising to find this genus in the two size fractions. *Pseudoberwaldia* are released as free-256 spores from infected daphnia (spore size 4.4 x 2.6 µm, (Vávra et al., 2019)). Presence of this genus 257 in 10-150 µm fraction thus raises the hypothesis that these Microsporidia were associated with other eukaryotes (such as protists or microzooplankton), either being passively ingested, or infecting 258 259 them. This could also support the hypothesis of a secondary host as suspected for Pseudoberwaldia 260 species (Vávra et al., 2019).

More striking differences were observed across time (Fig.2). These variations in diversity identified over time were, for some, similar to those identified by Dubuffet *et al.* (2021). For example, abundances of *Conglomerata* and *Pseudoberwaldia* increased in June in our study, as observed in the same lake between April to June 2016.

Such variations might be directly linked to environmental variables which could influence infection 266 267 cycles or transmission efficiency of the parasite, as already shown for various parasites found in 268 aquatic ecosystems (Cable et al., 2017). These environmental variables could also affect indirectly 269 the parasite by influencing their host populations density and distribution, as Microsporidia have 270 generally a narrow host specificity (Murareanu et al., 2021). The relationship between the different 271 environmental variables (temperature, oxygen and photosynthetic pigment concentration (green algae, Cyanobacteria, diatoms, Cryptophyta)) and the distribution of the different microsporidian 272 subgroups/genera was tested, and only oxygen and diatoms abundance were found to be significant 273 (Supplementary Information 12 and 2). In vitro analyses showed that various parameters, including 274 275 local changes in pH, salt concentration, UV radiation and temperature, could promote or inhibit the 276 devagination of the polar tube and spore discharge, and therefore impact infection rates (Weiss et 277 al., 2014). However, it is not known whether such variables may influence directly Microsporidia in their environment, thus influencing their distribution. Regarding the potential hosts, such as 278 279 zooplankton or protists, some can show considerable temporal variations in lake ecosystems (Lair, 280 1990; Lepère et al., 2006) which could more likely explain the microsporidian variations observed 281 here. In this study, we also identified important temporal variations among eukaryotic phyla such as the ciliates, rotifers and various phytoplanktonic phyla (Fig.3). 282

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Identifying the hosts of these Microsporidia then seems to be an essential step in the understanding of the microsporidian community variations over time. One approach to unravel these host-Microsporidia potential interactions is to use co-occurrence network analyses, which arguably 287 provides the most exhaustive method for attempting to holistically assess community interactions (Fath et al., 2007). Using statistical tools, co-occurrence networks allow the highlighting of 288 289 potential associations between microorganisms (Chaffron et al., 2010; Lima-Mendez et al., 2015), 290 although this type of analyses do not ensure discovery of biotic interactions (Blanchet et al., 2020). 291 Furthermore, potential associations predicted bioinformatically are informative and useful to reduce 292 the number of hypotheses that might be tested but will always require an experimental validation of 293 the interaction (Carr et al., 2019). SPIEC-EASI method builds microbial networks avoiding 294 spurious associations resulting from the application of correlation measures and has been used to 295 predict previously unknown microbial associations (Kurtz et al., 2015).

296 Using this method, diverse and various potential associations between Microsporidia and 297 eukaryotes have been revealed (Fig.4, Supplementary Information 9). 50% of these potential 298 associations involved eukaryotic phyla already identified as Microsporidia hosts: Ciliophora, Apicomplexa, Arthropoda and Rotifera (Murareanu et al., 2021). Among these, several co-299 300 occurrences identified genera already described as hosts for Microsporidia: 10 co-occurrences with 301 the ciliate genera Vorticella, Frontania and Stentor (Görtz, 1987; Fokin et al., 2008), four 302 associations with the rotifer genus Brachionus (Gorbunov and Kosova, 2001; Wolska and 303 Mazurkiewicz-Zapalowicz, 2013) and 10 co-occurrences with arthropods belonging to the order 304 Cyclopoida (Stentiford et al., 2013). Co-occurences were also observed with other phyla which have so far never been described as hosts of Microsporidia: Chlorophyta, Chrytridiomycota, 305 306 Chrysophyceae, Dinoflagellata, Bacillariophyta, Cryptomycota, Perkinsozoa, Streptophyta, Craspedida, Synurophyceae, Bicosoecida and Cryptophyta. Surprisingly, some of these co-307 308 occurrences involve phytoplankton organisms, whereas, to date infection by Microsporidia in 309 phytoplankton has never been recorded. However, all these potential associations identified through the co-occurrence network do not reflect a temporal information. Unfortunately, the sample size is 310 311 indeed too small here to consider subnetworks for each sampling point.

Although the method we used attempts to minimise spurious associations, we must bear in mind that the associations identified may not be pure parasitism. Indeed, an association could be identified, for example, between a microsporidian species and the host of its parasitic host (hyperparasitism) or be due to a common host (Microsporidia being sometimes opportunistic of another infection (Didier, 2005)). An association could also reflect a simple feeding relationship (ingestion of a Microsporidia spore by another eukaryote). Also, actual interactions may not have been identified because of the weakness of the signal in the data (Blanchet *et al.*, 2020).

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320 Actual associations can be observed with the use of fluorescence microscopy. Indeed, TSA-FISH 321 has shown its effectiveness in the detection of host-parasite associations in the environment 322 (Mangot et al., 2009; Chambouvet et al., 2019). But to date, this method has never been applied to detect new Microsporidia-host associations. Using a newly designed specific probe for 323 Microsporidia, positive signals were repeatedly obtained in rotifers (genus *Kellicottia*), especially in 324 325 May and June samples (Fig.5). These signals may rather correspond to developing stages of 326 Microsporidia rather than ingested spores, as spores are usually not stained by FISH methods due to 327 their impermeability (Panek et al., 2018). Microsporidia-rotifers associations highlighted by the co-328 occurrence network were thus confirmed by these observations. Indeed, seven of the 25 co-329 occurrences with rotifers were with the Brachionidae, a rotifer family which includes the genus 330 Kellicottia. Kellicottia rotifers are abundant in freshwater ecosystems, including lake Aydat where 331 they can reach more than 600 individuals per litre in summer (Lair and Oulad Ali, 1990). Rotifers account for a large proportion of freshwater zooplankton and act as intermediaries between primary 332 333 producers (algae, cyanobacteria) and higher trophic levels (zooplankton, shellfish, fish) (Rico-334 Martínez et al., 2016). This newly identified host-parasite association is thus of great importance considering the high prevalence rate observed (38% on average). 335

Although observed only once, the association between Microsporidia and the *Stentor* ciliate (Fig.6d-f) also confirms the four co-occurrences identified with this genus. A case of microsporidian parasitism has already been described in *Stentor roeseli* and *S. polymorphus* (Görtz, 1987).

339 For the first time to our knowledge, Microsporidia have also been observed in association with 340 phytoplankton (i.e. the diatom Asterionella) even if these observations remained observed at a low 341 prevalence rate (Fig.6a-c). This association was also highlighted by the co-occurrence network with 342 seven associations between Microsporidia and Fragilariaceae, the family to which the genus 343 Asterionella belong. These surprising observations, if confirmed through electron microscopy (to 344 determine whether these Microsporidia perform a complete life cycle in these hosts), could further 345 expand the already diverse host range of Microsporidia. Such observations of physical associations with diatoms have already been described by Jones et al. (2011) with parasites formerly called 346 Cryptomycota, which could actually be Microsporidia (Bass et al., 2018; Adl et al., 2019). 347

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349 This type of associations leads to many hypotheses on the role of Microsporidia in lacustrine 350 environments. Indeed, the structure and the succession of the different planktonic populations are 351 regulated by the nutritive resources as well as by different biotic factors including parasitism. In 352 order to better understand the functioning of food webs, it appears important to appreciate the 353 diversity of parasites (including Microsporidia) and to quantify their impact on the dynamics and diversity of microzooplankton and phytoplankton, which play a major role at the basis of aquatic 354 355 food webs. Microsporidia, which now seem to be very abundant and diverse in lacustrine ecosystems, could thus play an important role in the regulation of planktonic populations. It will 356 357 therefore be essential to confirm, identify and characterize these host-parasite associations more 358 precisely. The use of electron microscopy would allow a more detailed observation of the 359 associations. Also, the isolation and sequencing of a host-parasite pair could lead to the precise identification of both organisms. 360

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362 Conclusion

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364 In conclusion, our metabarcoding approach with microsporidian universal primers coupled with a network co-occurrence analyse and fluorescence microscopy unveiled a huge microsporidian 365 diversity in a lake ecosystem associated with important variations across a year, and provided a hint 366 367 on new microsporidian hosts. We notably identified repeated infections in Kellicottia (rotifer), and 368 potential infections of phytoplankton. It now seems very important to study the diversity of 369 Microsporidia on a larger scale, screening more environments and over a longer period of time. 370 Also, it will be essential to investigate more precisely the hosts of these Microsporidia in order to 371 understand their role in the ecosystems functioning.

372 Experimental procedures

373 *Study site and sampling procedure*

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375 The study was conducted in lake Aydat (Massif Central, France, 45°39' 50" N, 2° 59' 04" E). It is a dimictic and eutrophic lake with a maximum depth of 15 m, situated at an altitude of 825 m and a 376 377 recreative lake in summer. From 19/11/18 to 07/01/20 water samples were collected in the euphotic 378 zone of the lake at a permanent station located at the deepest zone of the water column using an 379 integrated sampler IWS III (HYDRO-BIOS, Altenholz, Germany) (see Supplementary Information 1 for a global view of the experimental design). Sampling was performed monthly, except from 380 381 27th May to 20th June 2019 when it was done twice a week. Temperature and dissolved oxygen 382 were measured along the water column using an oxycal-SL 197 multiparameter probe (WWT, 383 Limonest, France). Phytoplankton biomass was estimated using a submersible fluorescence 384 photometer (Fluoroprobe; BBE-Moldaenke, Kiel, Germany) (see Supplementary Information 2 for 385 temperature, oxygen and phytoplankton biomass data).

386 14 litres of water were filtered successively through 150 µm and 10 µm pore-size filters in order to 387 concentrate Microsporidia spores (<10 μ m fraction, microsporidian spores being mainly <10 μ m in length (Murareanu et al., 2021)) and planktonic species susceptible to host Microsporidia (10-150 388 389 um fraction). Part of the microbial biomass of each size-fraction was collected on 0.8-um-pore-size 390 polycarbonate filters (Millipore, Burlington, MA) at a very low vacuum to prevent cell damage 391 (<15 kPa) and stored at -80°C until nucleic acids extraction (dry-stored filters for DNA extraction, in RLT buffer (RNeasy Mini kit, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with 1% 2-mercaptoethanol for RNA 392 393 extraction). Two filters were produced and subsequently processed for each sample (Supplementary 394 Information 1). The other part of the microbial biomass obtained was fixed with paraformaldehyde (final concentration, 2%) and incubated at 4°C for 24 h. Fixed cells were then collected on 0.8-µm-395 396 pore-size polycarbonate filters (Millipore; pressure <15 kPa). Filters were preserved by dehydration in an ethanol series (50, 80, and 100% ethanol for three min each) and stored at -20°C until TSAFISH staining.

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401 Nucleic acids extraction, amplification and sequencing

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403 Filters prepared for DNA extraction were processed as described in Dubuffet et al. (2021), while 404 filters prepared for RNA extraction were processed with the RNeasy Mini kit with some 405 modifications. Samples underwent a first grinding of three cycles, 30 Hz 30 s (Bead Beater Retsch, 406 Haan, Germany), the supernatant was kept. 400 µl of RLT buffer with 1% 2-mercaptoéthanol and 0.1 g of 0.1 mm glass beads (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-Louis, MO) were added and a second grinding 407 408 was carried out under the same conditions, the supernatant was pooled with the first one. Protocol was then carried out according to the manufacturer's recommendations, with a triple treatment with 409 410 DNAse I. RNA was finally eluted in 30 µl of RNAse free water. Quality and quantity of RNA was 411 analysed with the RNA screen Tape kit and the 2200 Tape station (Agilent Technologies, Santa 412 Clara, CA) and absence of DNA was checked by PCR. cDNA was obtained by reverse transcription 413 with SuperScript III and randoms primers (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA) according to the 414 manufacturer's recommendations.

Amplification of the V1-V3 region of the microsporidian gene coding for the 18S rRNA was performed using the universal microsporidian V1F (CACCAGGTTGATTCTGCCTGAC) and 530R (CCGCGGCTGCTGGCAC) primers set (Baker *et al.*, 1994; Weiss *et al.*, 1994). Each PCR was performed in a total volume of 30 μ L containing 6 μ L of 5x Green GoTaq Flexi buffer, 2.4 μ L of 25 mM MgCl₂, 0.18 μ L of GoTaqG2 Flexi DNA Polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI, 5 U/ μ L), 0.6 μ L of 10 mM each dNTP, 0.3 μ L of 50 mg/mL BSA and 0.6 μ L of each 10 μ M primer. The amplification conditions consisted of initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min followed by 35 cycles for 1 min at 95°C, 1 min 30 s at 62°C and 1 min 30 s at 72°C, and a final elongation of 7 min at
72°C.

424 Amplification of the V4 region of total eukaryotes (excluding Microsporidia) was performed using 425 the universal primer 515F (GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTA) (Caporaso *et al.*, 2011) and the 426 eukaryotic primer 951R (TTGGYRAATGCTTTCGC) (Mangot *et al.*, 2013). Each PCR was 427 performed in the mix described above. The amplification conditions consisted of initial denaturation 428 at 95°C for 5 min followed by 33 cycles for 1 min at 95°C, 1 min at 55°C and 1 min 30 s at 72°C, 429 and a final elongation of 10 min at 72°C.

430 The amplicons were purified and concentrated using the QIAquick Gel Extraction kit (Qiagen).
431 Samples were then sequenced on a MiSeq Illumina instrument (2x250 bp) (Biofidal, Vaulx-en432 Velin, France).

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- 435 Amplicons analysis and taxonomic affiliation
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437 The PANAM2 (Phylogenetic Analysis of Next-generation AMplicons v2 - https://github.com/mebteam/PANAM2) pipeline (Taib et al., 2013) was used to process the sequencing data. The clean-up 438 439 procedures consisted of eliminating sequences with ambiguous 'N' bases, those below 200 bp and 440 chimeras. The sequences were then assembled and clustered into Operational Taxonomic Units 441 (OTUs) with a similarity threshold of 99% for Microsporidia (Dubuffet et al., 2021) and 95% for other eukaryotes (Mangot et al., 2013; Debroas et al., 2017). Finally, representative sequences of 442 443 each OTU were affiliated by similarity and phylogeny using a custom curated reference database 444 (Freshwater-database: https://github.com/panammeb/Freshwater-database). This database contains eukaryote references sequences extracted from the SSU Ref SILVA database (Pruesse et al., 2007), 445 446 typical freshwater lineages identified in previous studies (e.g. Debroas et al., 2015) and 528

sequences of 265 microsporidian species phylogenetically classified into clades, groups and genera
(Dubuffet *et al.*, 2021).

For Microsporidia, affiliations to groups and genera were considered as valid when the identity scores were above 85% and 94.5%, respectively (Dubuffet *et al.*, 2021). As clustering threshold used (especially for Microsporidia, *i.e.* 99%) may generate OTUs resulting from sequencing errors, we only kept for the final analysis OTUs representing more than 0.005% (Bokulich *et al.*, 2013) of the total reads and OTUs present in at least two samples. Data were normalized using the SRS (Scaling with Ranked Subsampling) method (Beule and Karlovsky, 2020).

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457 Phylogenetic analysis of OTUs non-affiliated beyond the clade

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459 All microsporidian OTUs obtained in this analysis were assigned at least to a clade, 78% to a group 460 and 61% to a genus. We therefore performed phylogenetic analyses on OTUs non-affiliated beyond 461 the clade (including those with identity scores below 85%) or beyond the group (including those with identity scores below 94.5%) in order to determine whether new groups (which roughly 462 463 correspond to families) or new subgroups (similar to genera) could be highlighted. We focused our 464 analyses on abundant OTUs (>500 reads, 619 OTUs), which represent 91% of the total reads. We 465 included in these analyses several sequences from undescribed microsporidian species (found 466 through BLAST search and/or bibliographic review), in addition to species from the database previously used. After an alignment using the MAFFT algorithm (Katoh et al., 2005), ML trees 467 468 were obtained using a General Time-Reversible (GTR) model of evolution with gamma-distributed 469 rate heterogeneity (G) and a proportion of invariable sites (I) (GTR + G + I), with 200 bootstrap replications and partial deletion (85%), using MEGA 7 (Kumar et al., 2016). 470

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473 Diversity analyses

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475 The rRNA:rDNA ratio was calculated for each OTU by dividing the number of RNA reads by the number of DNA reads. Diversity analyses were performed using R (R Development Core Team, 476 2012). Community richness and diversity indices (Richness observed, Chao1, Shannon and 477 478 Simpson) were used to infer the taxa richness of Microsporidia. These estimators were computed 479 with the phyloseq package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013) as well as the non-metric 480 multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix (Bray and 481 Curtis, 1957; Paliy and Shankar, 2016). To investigate the potential relationships between the 482 microsporidian community composition and biotic and abiotic factors, canonical correspondence 483 analysis (CCA) was used (ter Braak, 1986) with the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2020).

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486 Co-occurrence network

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488 Using statistical tools, co-occurrence networks are used to detect in situ associations between 489 micro-organisms (Chaffron et al., 2010, Lima-Mendez et al., 2015). We therefore used this 490 approach to depict potential host-parasite associations between Microsporidia and other eukaryotes. 491 We focused the analysis on the large size fraction (10-150 µm, 40 samples) which might contain 492 Microsporidia associated to potential new hosts among zooplankton and protists. DNA and RNA 493 samples were used in order to have a sufficient number of samples. OTUs with a total abundance 494 higher than 0.05% (206 microsporidian and 148 eukaryotic OTUs) were grouped and analysed to build a co-occurrence network with SPIEC-EASI (SParse InversE Covariance Estimation for 495 496 Ecological Association Inference (Kurtz et al., 2015)). Raw data were used (before normalization),

497 as the SpiecEasi function incudes a standardisation step (centered log-ratio transformation) to 498 alleviate compositionality bias (Aitchison, 1981). The co-occurrence network was inferred using the 499 neighborhood selection (Meinshausen and Bühlmann, 2006). We used the SPIEC-EASI parameters 500 determined as those generating the sparser graphs by Benoiston (2019). Thus, the scaling factor 501 (lambda.min.ratio) was set at 0.001, the number of tested lambda (nlambda) was set as 20 and the 502 number of StARS subsamples (rep.num) was set to 20. In this network, OTUs are represented by 503 nodes and a positive association between OTUs are represented by edges between them (only 504 positive associations were kept in the output graph). Positive edges identified were extracted to visualize only associations between microsporidian genera/subgroups and eukaryotic phyla with a 505 506 Sankey diagram using the networkD3 package on R (R Development Core Team, 2012; Allaire et 507 al., 2017).

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510 TSA-FISH (Tyramide Signal Amplification-Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization)

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512 To visualize potential microsporidian-hosts associations, TSA-FISH was performed, using a probe designed to target all the microsporidian OTUs identified in this metabarcoding analysis (USP01 513 514 probe, 5' CCAGGTTGATTCTGCCTGAC 3'). Hybridization conditions were determined 515 beforehand on two microsporidian species cultured in the laboratory: Anncaliia algerae and 516 Encephalitozoon cuniculi. The former was considered as a non-target species, as it had one mismatch with the USP01 probe, while the later was a target species (no mismatches). At 45°C and 517 518 10% deionized formamide, in situ hybridization signals were obtained on the target species and not 519 on the non-target species (not shown), and these hybridization conditions were thus retained.

520 TSA-FISH was performed on each sample (22 sampling dates) of the large size fraction, in 521 duplicate, as described in Lepère *et al.* (2016) with the following modifications: hybridization

- 522 buffer (10% deionized formamide), hybridization at 45°C overnight, washing steps at 47°C with 523 washing buffer (450 mM NaCl, 0.01% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 20 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5]). The 524 filters were mounted in a mixture containing antifading reagent AF1 (Citifluor; Electron 525 Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA), Vectashield fluorescent mounting medium (Vector
- 526 laboratories, Burlingame, CA) and 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI).
- 527 Hybridized cells were visualized under two fluorescence microscopes: Leica DM IRB (Leica
- 528 Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) and Zeiss Axio Imager 2 (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

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Competing Interests

The authors declare they have no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

536 Fig.1. Taxonomic affiliation of the microsporidian OTUs (DNA and RNA samples).

537 Inner circle represents clades (IV2, I, IV1, VIII and V). Deeper taxonomic ranks (groups and 538 genera/subgroups) are presented in outer circles. Group names are given in capital letters and 539 genera names in italic. Groups and subgroups defined during phylogenetic analyses are given in 540 bold. Hatched patterns represent OTUs unaffiliated beyond the group or clade. Genera/subgroups 541 listed are ranked from most to least abundant.

542 See Supplementary Information 5 for the taxonomic affiliation of the microsporidian OTUs 543 following the analysis on PANAM2 (before the phylogenetic analyses).

544

545 Fig.2. Relative abundances of the most abundant (>0.5% of the total reads) microsporidian 546 genera/subgroups across DNA samples.

547 The white zone on the top of each bar represents the cumulative proportion of other 548 genera/subgroups with low abundances.

549 Label = sampling date (DD/MM/YY), from 19/11/2018 (left) to 07/01/2020 (right) with a monthly

sampling and additional sampling every 3 to 5 days in May and June 2019

551 See Supplementary Information 13 for relative abundances of the less abundant (<0.5% of the total 552 reads) microsporidian genera/subgroups across samples.

553

554 Fig.3. Relative abundances of the most abundant (>0.5% of the total reads) eukaryotic phyla across

555 DNA samples.

The white zone on the top of each bar represents the cumulative proportion of other phyla with lowabundances.

- 558 Label = sampling date (DD/MM/YY), from 19/11/2018 (left) to 07/01/2020 (right) with a monthly
- sampling and additional sampling every 3 to 5 days in May and June 2019

560 See Supplementary Information 14 for relative abundances of the less abundant (<0.5% of the total 561 reads) eukaryotic phyla across samples.

562

Fig.4. Sankey diagram showing the edges between microsporidian OTUs (left) and eukaryotic
OTUs (right) in the co-occurrence network.

565 Microsporidian OTUs are grouped by genus/subgroup, eukaryotic OTUs are grouped by phylum or 566 class. 88 microsporidian OTUs and 98 eukaryotic OTUs were involved in the network with 213 567 positive associations (edges). One line represents one edge from the co-occurrence graph. Co-568 occurrences involving eukaryotic OTUs not affiliated to a phylum are not shown.

569

570 Fig.5. Microsporidia (targeted by TSA-FISH with the USP01 probe) infecting a rotifer (genus 571 *Kellicottia*).

572 Under UV showing nucleus after DAPI staining (a), under blue light showing Microsporidia in 573 green fluorescence (b), overlay (c). Magnification on microsporidian cells inside the rotifer (UV (d), 574 blue light (e), overlay(f)).

575 Scale bars, 10 µm

- 577 Fig.6. Microsporidia (targeted by TSA-FISH with the USP01 probe) attached to a diatom (genus
 578 *Asterionella*) (a, b, c) and infecting a ciliate (genus *Stentor*) (d, e, f).
- 579 Under UV showing nucleus after DAPI staining (a, d), under blue light showing Microsporidia in
- 580 green fluorescence (b, e), overlay (c, f).
- 581 Scale bars, $10 \ \mu m$
- 582







Clade I

Aquatic outgroup ; Agglomeratidae subgroup 1

Aquatic outgroup ; Conglomerata

Aquatic outgroup ; Octosporea subgroup

Aquatic outgroup ; Pseudoberwaldia

Aquatic outgroup ; Seattle6 subgroup

Aquatic outgroup ; unclassified



BTUB6 group ; unclassified

unclassified

Clade IV2

Enterocytozoonidae ; unclassified Orthosomella-like group ; O1 subgroup Orthosomella-like group ; O4 subgroup Orthosomella-like group ; unclassified

Arlequin group ; Cr1 subgroup

Arlequin group ; Crispospora

Arlequin group ; E1 subgroup
Arlequin group ; unclassified
Van10 group ; subgroup 4
Van8 group ; subgroup 1
Van8 group ; subgroup 2
Van8 group ; subgroup 3







