

GIULIA MAGRI RIBEIRO

O impacto das condições ambientais na diversidade taxonômica e funcional de
amebas tecadas.

The impact of environmental conditions on taxonomic and functional diversity
of testate amoebae

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Resumo

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Os eucariontes microbianos, incluindo os chamados protistas, desempenham um papel crucial na manutenção dos ecossistemas globais. A qualidade dos ambientes é essencial na definição das comunidades de organismos que os ocupam e é influenciada por fatores como temperatura, salinidade, pH, níveis de oxigênio e a comunidade de organismos já presentes. Os organismos podem impactar positivamente o meio ambiente por meio de processos como decomposição, ciclagem de nutrientes e criação de habitat, enquanto a destruição e a poluição do habitat têm efeitos adversos. As atividades humanas aumentaram a frequência e a intensidade dos estressores ambientais, exacerbando seus efeitos. As amebas tecadas, particularmente do grupo Arcellinida, exibem vários graus de tolerância ao estresse e podem servir como bioindicadores. Este estudo visa compreender as respostas a nível de comunidade e individual desses organismos a dois estresses específicos: contaminação por arsênico e eutrofização/baixo teor de oxigênio. Este estudo combinou a caracterização funcional por meio de perfis de expressão gênica e compreensão mecanicista e evolutiva usando bioinformática. Demonstramos a expressão constitutiva dos metabolismos de resistência em *Arcella uspiensis* e sua capacidade de se ajustar a condições estressantes. Através de árvores filogenéticas, demonstramos também as múltiplas rotas de aquisição de genes de resistência ambiental. Além disso, desenvolvemos um pequeno estudo estratégias de metabarcoding para explorar adaptação e resistência ambiental no nível da comunidade. Ampliamos o banco de dados de marcadores COI e conduzimos um estudo de metabarcoding, obtendo informações sobre a diversidade, biogeografia e potencial de Arcellinida como bioindicadores. Isto porque, identificamos que as propriedades físico-químicas dos ambientes amostrados foram importantes determinantes da composição da comunidade de Arcellinida. Além disso, iniciamos o desenvolvimento de técnicas aplicadas, como PCR quantitativo em tempo real (qPCR) dos genes de resistência usando *Arcella uspiensis* como organismo modelo. A diversidade de estratégias entre as diferentes linhagens na adaptação às condições de arsênico e baixo teor de oxigênio, com variações nos mecanismos de resistência, é crucial para a compreensão das adaptações específicas e suas consequências, particularmente para microrganismos eucarióticos. Concluimos que *Arcella uspiensis* possui um arcabouço básico de resistência constitutivamente expresso refletindo em sua capacidade de se adaptar a condições estressantes e aumentar as chances de sobrevivência. Também reconhecemos a necessidade de desenvolver o genoma e utilizar *Arcella uspiensis* como organismo modelo para futuras pesquisas.

Palavras-chaves: Arcellinida, Bioindicadores, Contaminação por arsênio, Baixo oxigênio, Metabarcoding, Perfil de expressão gênica, Árvores filogenéticas, Metabolismos de resistência.

Abstract

RIBEIRO, Giulia Magri. **The impact of environmental conditions on taxonomic and functional diversity of testate amoebae.** 2023. 352 p. Dissertation (PhD of Zoology) – Biosciences Institute, University of Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo, 2023.

Microbial eukaryotes, including so-called protists, are crucial in maintaining global ecosystems. The quality of environments is essential in defining the communities of organisms that occupy them. Factors like temperature, salinity, pH, oxygen levels, and the community of organisms present influence the environment's quality. Organisms can positively impact the environment through decomposition, nutrient cycling, and habitat creation, while habitat destruction and pollution have adverse effects. Human activities have increased the frequency and intensity of environmental stressors, exacerbating their effects. Testate amoebae, particularly from the Arcellinida group, exhibit varying degrees of stress tolerance and may serve as bioindicators that reflect environmental conditions and the effectiveness of environmental actions. This study investigated the effects of multiple anthropogenic environmental stresses on testate amoebae. We aimed to understand these organisms' community and individual responses to two specific stresses: arsenic contamination and eutrophication/low oxygen. We combined community characterization using metabarcoding, functional characterization through gene expression profiling, and mechanistic and evolutionary understanding using bioinformatics. We demonstrated the constitutive expression of resistance metabolisms in *Arcella uspiensis* and its ability to adjust to stressful conditions. We also demonstrate the multiple acquisition routes of environmental resistance genes through phylogenetic trees. In addition, we discussed the application of metabarcoding strategies to explore ecological adaptation and resilience at the community level. We expanded the COI marker database and conducted a small metabarcoding study, obtaining information on the diversity, biogeography, and potential of Arcellinida as bioindicators. We discovered that the sampled environments' physicochemical properties are important determinants of the composition of the Arcellinida community. Also, we started the development of applied techniques such as quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) of resistance genes using *Arcella uspiensis* as a model organism. The diversity of strategies among different lineages in adapting to arsenic and low oxygen conditions, with variations in resistance mechanisms, is crucial for understanding specific adaptations and their consequences, particularly for eukaryotic microorganisms. We concluded that *Arcella uspiensis* has a constitutively expressed basic resistance framework reflecting its ability to adapt to stressful conditions and increase the chances of survival. We also recognize the need to develop the genome and use *Arcella uspiensis* as a model organism for future research.

Keywords: Arcellinida, Bioindicators, Arsenic contamination, Low oxygen, Metabarcoding, Gene expression profiling, Phylogenetic trees, Resistance metabolisms

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1 Introduction

Microbial eukaryotes play a crucial role in the maintenance of global ecosystems. Most of the eukaryotic diversity is microbial. Previously, all microbial diversity was included in a single group called protists, which are nowadays spread in many evolutionary lineages (Figure 2) (BURKI et al., 2020). This diverse group of organisms includes algae, amoebae, ciliates, and flagellates life forms. These organisms have different ecological preferences and significantly impact various environmental processes. For example, photosynthetic protists spread out at least in five great lineages (Stramenopiles in SAR, Haptista, Cryptista, Archaeplastida, and Discoba). Photosynthetic protists are responsible for a significant portion of global primary production (BENOISTON et al., 2017; FIELD et al., 1998). Many microbial eukaryotes, such as slime molds, are essential to nutrient cycling and decomposition. Slime molds are also a name given to several unrelated microbial eukaryotes, but most are in the Myxogastria, Amoebozoa group (BROWN; SPIEGEL; SILBERMAN, 2009; BALDAUF; DOOLITTLE, 1997; FIORE-DONNO et al., 2010). Because of their morphology and function in decomposition, they were previously classified as Fungi, but we know they are more related to amoebae. They are essential in breaking down dead organic material and recycling nutrients, contributing to environmental nutrient cycling. Other critical ecological functions that microbial eukaryotes act on are in parasitic and symbiotic interspecific relations. One example of parasitic protists is *Plasmodium*, the causative agent of malaria. *Plasmodium* is a member of Apicomplexa in the SAR group (Figure 2). Malaria is a widespread and significant global health problem, particularly in tropical and subtropical regions (ORGANIZATION et al., 2008; COWMAN et al., 2016). Finally, an actual example of symbiotic protists is zooxanthellae, which form a symbiotic relationship with corals, necessary for their survival through nutrients and energy providing. Disruption of the balance in the zooxanthellae algae and the coral relationship leads to a phenomenon known as coral bleaching and eventual death of the coral (MULLER-PARKER; D'ELIA; COOK, 2015; FOURNIER, 2013). In summary, microbial eukaryotes contribute significantly to maintaining global ecosystems through their involvement in primary production, food web dynamics, nutrient cycling, decomposition, and symbiotic and parasitic relationships. Their ecological functions are integral to the overall health, stability, and functioning of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems.

1.1 *Microbial diversity and model organisms*

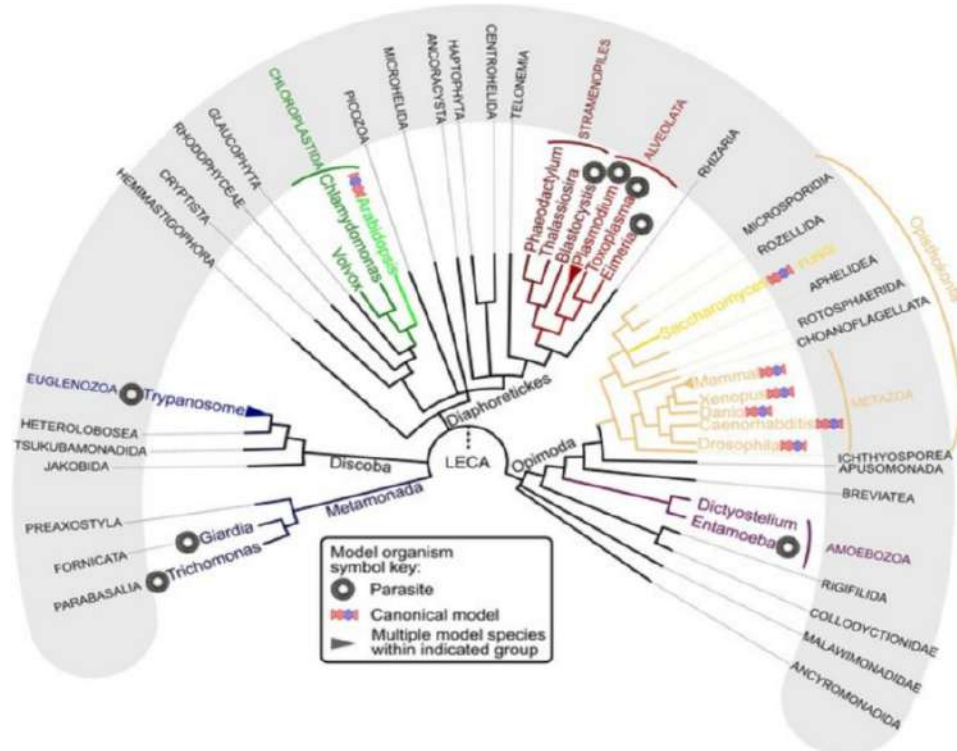
We always use living beings for our studies and experiments. For example, Mendel's laws use peas as a study model, and we have been model organisms for studies of human health and anatomy (IRION; NÜSSLEIN-VOLHARD, 2022). The term model organism was formalized late, in 1990, in the context of the genome project (DIETRICH; ANKENY; CHEN, 2014). For the funding agencies such as the National Institute of General Medical Sciences (NIH), an interesting "model" are "research organisms useful to understand fundamental aspects of biology, which are common to all organisms, including humans^a (<https://www.nigms.nih.gov/education/fact-sheets/Pages/using-research-organisms.aspx>). The human genome project was a gigantic initiative that required a lot of licenses, financing, and standardization of protocols (COLLINS; MCKUSICK, 2001). In that way, a model organism was defined as a "Non-human species used to understand a biological phenomenon", which consists of using a simpler and more treatable organism to facilitate the experiments. Nowadays, the diversity of model organisms is much more restricted (Figure 1). At the beginning of this tradition of using "models" to study, the diversity of organisms used was wider. For example, Lavoisier, in 1770, used guinea pigs to study metabolism and discovered the generation of heat through respiration (KAIYALA; RAMSAY, 2011). He built a system that placed the guinea pig wrapped in ice, and according to the melting rate of the ice, he was able to estimate how much heat was emitted by the animal and its metabolism rate.

1.2 *Distribution of model organisms in the diversity of eukaryotes.*

The classification of eukaryotes has undergone significant revisions, rendering the traditional five kingdoms taught in schools outdated. Presently, the diversity of eukaryotes is categorized into major lineages that extend beyond the commonly recognized animals, plants, and fungi, constituting only a fraction of this diversity (BURKI et al., 2020). Animals and fungi are now grouped within the Opisthokonta lineage, encompassing various single-celled lineages. Similarly, plants are classified within the Archaeplastida lineage alongside an extensive array of algae encompassing green, red, and cyano varieties. Notably, the remaining lineages depicted in Figure 1 primarily comprise ancient protists, representing a multitude of organisms that were previously not accorded distinct lineages.

These lineages have evolved independently, resulting in a diverse array of organisms with significant evolutionary distinctions.

Figura 1 – Model organisms distribution



Source: Hashimi H (2019) A parasite's take on the evolutionary cell biology of MICOS. PLoS Pathog, 15(12): e1008166. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1008166>

An evident concern arises regarding the bias towards model organisms, which predominantly focus on plant and animal lineages, disregarding the vast diversity within protists (Figure 1). The utilization of protist models is mostly limited to cases involving parasites responsible for human diseases, where their study becomes imperative. Nevertheless, a notable exception exists within the Amoebozoa group, specifically in the case of *Dictyostelium discoideum*. Despite being a unicellular amoeba, it is a valuable model organism for investigating multicellularity in protists (ANNESLEY; FISHER, 2009). *Dictyostelium discoideum* undergoes a well-characterized life cycle that includes both unicellular and multicellular stages. When deprived of food, these organisms exhibit a remarkable behavior wherein they gather, aggregate, and transition into a multicellular form, actively searching for nourishment. They exhibit slug-like locomotion, resembling the movement of organisms in the environment as they seek food. They can also form fruiting bodies akin to fungi, dispersing a portion of their cells to more favorable locations with abundant food resources. Overall, the unique characteristics and experimental advantages of *Dictyostelium*

discoideum make it a powerful model organism for addressing fundamental biological questions, including cellular differentiation, aggregation, multicellular development, and morphogenesis.

Establishing a list of relevant organisms for scientific studies involves careful consideration and selection based on specific research objectives and requirements. However, this selection process often results in a disregard for the remaining biodiversity. This neglect of non-model organisms raises questions regarding the significance of investing efforts and resources in studying them. For instance, investigating non-model organisms can provide valuable insights into various biological phenomena, such as regeneration, which may not be effectively understood by studying human or animal tissues alone. While human and animal tissues exhibit regenerative capabilities, they may not possess the optimal mechanisms for efficient regeneration. Conversely, certain non-model organisms, like the ciliate *Stentor*, exhibit rapid and robust regenerative abilities, making them ideal models for studying regeneration (MARSHALL, 2021). Consequently, redirecting attention towards non-model organisms can offer unique opportunities for enhanced understanding and exploration of scientific questions.

1.3 *Environmental Impact and Biodiversity*

The quality of the environment is multifactorial and directly impacts the local biodiversity. Public health agencies define environment as the combination of physical, chemical, and biological factors that interact with the organism, affecting your development and survival (ORGANIZATION et al., 2020). Natural physical-chemical factors such as temperature, salinity, pH, and oxygen, interacting with biological factors such as the community of organisms already present in the environment, determine the characteristics of this specific environment and which type of organism it allows to shelter. Organisms can positively or negatively modify the environment. For example, organisms can positively impact the environment through decomposition, and nutrient cycling, such as Fungi and Myxogastria (CROWTHER; BODDY; JONES, 2012). Also, habitat creation, such as bromeliads, creates wetland environments for various species (LADINO et al., 2019). Other modifications of the environment have adverse effects on other organisms, such as habitat destruction and pollution. It is essential to recognize that the impact of organisms on the

environment can be complex and context-dependent. Understanding these interactions and their potential consequences is crucial for managing ecosystems, conserving biodiversity, and promoting the survival of multiple lineages.

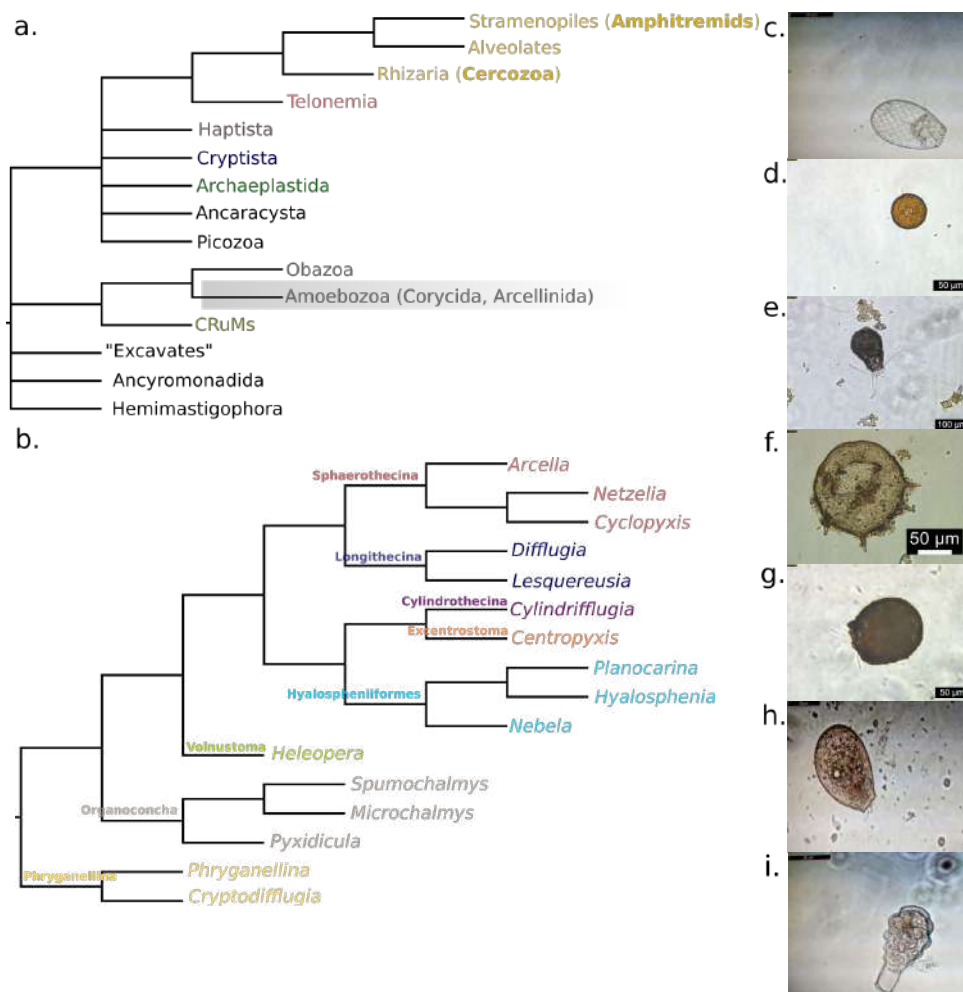
Stress caused by environmental conditions has always existed, but anthropic activity increased stressful events' frequency and exacerbated its effects (CRUTZEN; STOERMER, 2021; STEFFEN et al., 2007). In contemporary times, extending our discussions beyond natural stressors and addressing the broader concept of environmental impact has become imperative. Impacting the environment means any positive or negative alteration caused by anthropic activity. A few of the impactful actions of humanity are pollution, global warming, overconsumption of natural resources, and excessive human occupation of natural space. Although awareness of environmental impact is growing, combating humanity's negative actions still needs to be more effective. For example, the latest United Nations environmental report pointed out that we are not accomplishing the goals for sustainable development (SACHS et al., 2022). The established goal in the Paris Agreement was limiting global warming to a maximum of 2 degrees Celsius. We will not accomplish that goal in the current scenario because we expect to reach up to 3 degrees of average warming by 2100. These reports show us that the world is heading toward environmental calamity. Moreover, one of the biggest problems in the anthropic impact is that before humanity starts to feel these impacts, all the rest of the biodiversity will already be feeling them.

1.4 *Testate amoebae as models for studies of environmental impact*

Testate amoebae are a group of amoeboid protists that construct and inhabit a protective shell or test. Testate amoebae are a polyphyletic group of organisms with different evolutionary histories, present in at least three major lineages of eukaryotes (Rhizaria, Stramenopiles, and Amoebozoa) (Figure 2) (KOSAKYAN et al., 2016). This work focuses on testate amoebae belonging to Amoebozoa, the Arcellinida. The traditionally most important character for Arcellinida taxonomy was the morphology of the shell. Arcellinida species vary in the form of the shell, as round, hemispherical, with spines or vase-shaped. Arcellinida shells also vary in size in a range of around 20 to 700 micrometers, accounting for gigantic species such as *Diffflugia gigantea* (MEISTERFELD, 2002; MAZEI; WARREN, 2017; CHARDEZ, 1967). After the advance of molecular biology, morphology is no longer

enough to identify all species. After sequencing, we observed several examples of phenotypic plasticity, cryptic diversity, and convergence in Arcellinida (PORFÍRIO-SOUSA; RIBEIRO; LAHR, 2017; GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2022b; MULOT et al., 2017). Currently, the Arcellinida identification process needs to combine morphology and molecular biology. Using a phylogenomic approach, Lahr and collaborators subdivided Arcellinida into eight lineages (Sphaerothecina, Longithecina, Excentrostoma, Hyalospheniformes, Volnustoma, Organoconcha, and Phryganellina) (Figure 2) (LAHR et al., 2019). The knowledge and availability of data for the Arcellinida group are still very limited. We need to increase our databases and better integrate general biology, molecular biology, and ecology knowledge for this group.

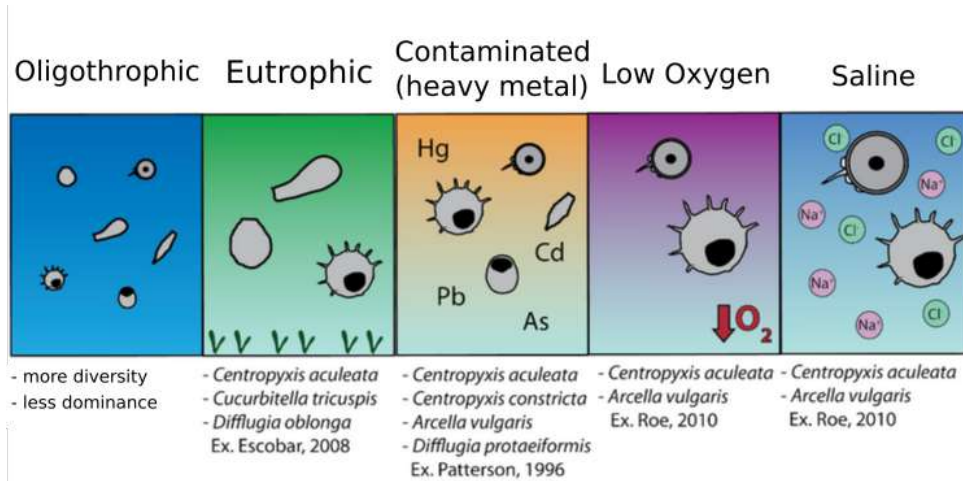
Figura 2 – Phylogenetic representations are positioning Arcellinida in the eukaryotic diversity. (a) Eukaryotic phylogeny based in the new tree of eukaryotes (BURKI et al., 2020). Different colors indicate major lineages of eukaryotes. Groups of testate amoebae found in the different lineages are named between parentheses. Arcellinida belongs to the Amoebozoa group indicated by the gray box. (b) Arcellinida phylogeny based in a phylogenomic reconstruction (LAHR et al., 2019) and SSUrDNA reconstruction (GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2022b). The different colors indicate Arcellinida lineages, defined by Lahr et al. and Gonzalez-Miguéns. (c-i) Examples of testate amoebae species. (c) *Euglypha* sp., testate amoeba of the Rhizaria group. (d) *Arcella* sp. a Sphaerothecina. (e) *Zivkovicia* sp. a Longithecina. (f) *Centropyxis* sp. an Excentrostoma. (g) *Netzelia* sp. a Sphaerothecina. (h) *Nebela* sp. a Hyalospheniformes. (i) *Hyalosphenia elegans* a Hyalospheniformes



In a world where environmental impacts are increasingly evident, arcellinids are increasingly important in ecological and evolutionary studies. Arcellinida species are benthic protists with variable stress tolerance degrees being useful bioindicators. We commonly find arcellinids in freshwater lakes, mosses, and sphagnum terrestrial environments (MEISTERFELD, 2002; SMITH; BOBROV; LARA, 2009). Arcellinida species usually have narrow ecological preferences (MARCISZ et al., 2020). Despite this, some species are very

tolerant to stress conditions (ROE; PATTERSON; SWINDLES, 2010). We find Arcellinida species in highly impacted environments, such as road salt contamination, heavy metal pollution, and eutrophic (ROE; PATTERSON; SWINDLES, 2010; ROE; PATTERSON, 2014; PATTERSON et al., 2019; DANIEL; LOPES, 2006; REGALADO et al., 2018; JU et al., 2014; KOSAKYAN; LARA, 2019; SILVA et al., 2013; ORTIZ et al., 2009; CZAPLUK; RUTKOWSKI; RYBAK, 2018). Thus, we predict that in an environment with optimal conditions for the group, we should find a high richness of Arcellinids, with high evenness in the abundances (Figure 3). However, only a few lineages survive in more stressful environments, such as eutrophic environments, contaminated by heavy metals, hypoxic, and with variable salinities. The most resistant lineages of arcellinids are from the genus *Arcella*, and *Centropyxis* (ROE; PATTERSON; SWINDLES, 2010; ROE; PATTERSON, 2014; PATTERSON et al., 2019; DANIEL; LOPES, 2006; REGALADO et al., 2018; JU et al., 2014; KOSAKYAN; LARA, 2019; SILVA et al., 2013; ORTIZ et al., 2009; CZAPLUK; RUTKOWSKI; RYBAK, 2018). In that way, in stressful environments, we should find low evenness, with some species being dominant in the testate amoebae community. What makes some species of Arcellinid more resistant than others is still a mystery. However, Arcellinids are currently used as bioindicators and in monitoring freshwater environments (ARRIEIRA et al., 2015; ATASIEI et al., 2022; NASSER et al., 2020; ROE; PATTERSON; SWINDLES, 2010). Their main advantages as a study model are that they are easy to find and have low-cost work. An essential characteristic of bioindicator species is that they have apparent differences in resistance and respond quickly to environmental changes. Thus, using Arcellinids in bioindication can inform public and management policies, for example, the quality of the environment and the effectiveness of environmental actions, allowing to plan and re-plan actions quickly and efficiently.

Figura 3 – Examples of variations in the Arcellinid community due to environmental conditions. The size of the shell represents dominance in the community. Under oligotrophic conditions, we should find higher richness and less abundance. However, in other conditions, the surviving species dominate the community.



1.5 Molecular biology and testate amoebae ecology

Molecular biology allowed us to advance a lot in the knowledge of biodiversity and its characteristics. Currently, high-throughput sequencing technologies are the revolution that allows the exploration of neglected groups of organisms at the community and individual levels. Arcellinids are single-cell organisms, many species do not grow in cultures, and many species are not that abundant in the environment. In that way, many kinds of studies, for example, genetic and functional studies, are more complicated to develop with this group. One negative implication was that we lacked a lot of knowledge of basic biology and the evolution of this group. Omics technologies opened new possibilities for discovery for Arcellinida. For the community level, metabarcoding permits the sequencing of markers directly from environmental DNA samples, revealing hidden diversity and characterizing the local communities (LINDEQUE et al., 2013; GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2023). For individual-level studies, transcriptomics, and in some cases genomics, permits exploration through comparative analysis of species characteristics, such as trait evolution, ecology, and physiology (LIU et al., 2017; ZOU; ZHANG; GONG, 2020; FENG et al., 2022; RIBEIRO; LAHR, 2022). Single-cell omics were a revolution for microbial eukaryotes studies because they allow us to discover new unculturable diversity and distinguish species in groups with little data produced (SIERACKI et al., 2019; BLAXTER et al., 2022; SEYFFERTH et al., 2021; LIU et al., 2017). For example, there is still no Arcellinid genome available. Thus, we

have already answered evolutionary and ecological questions by exploring transcriptomes independent of a reference genome. For example, without a genome, we already started to untangle the systematics of the group, describing resistance metabolisms, reproduction, and life cycle (RIBEIRO; LAHR, 2022; LAHR et al., 2019; HOFSTATTER; LAHR, 2019; RIBEIRO et al., 2020). In summary, we should keep investing in sequencing genomes and transcriptomes of microbial eukaryotes, as there is still a lot of undiscovered diversity in these groups and many ecological, physiological, and evolutionary unanswered questions.

1.6 Progress in the study of Arcellinida using *Arcella uspiensis* as model.

Arcella uspiensis is an Arcellinida species for which we can establish stable cultures and from whom we already developed a lot of basic biology and protocols knowledge until now. In our first paper using this model organisms in 2017, we discovered that two different morphotypes of *Arcella* were the same genetic unity (PORFÍRIO-SOUSA; RIBEIRO; LAHR, 2017). We also observed that the shape of the shell changed when they were put in cultures. Unifying those two discoveries, we claimed that *Arcella* has phenotypic plasticity according to the environment they are living. In our next paper of 2018, we described the culture and growth cultures protocol developed with *Arcella uspiensis* (RIBEIRO et al., 2019). This protocol has a lot of relevance because it is replicable, and we could use it for ecological experiments. In this thesis, in Chapters 3 and 5, we performed low oxygen and arsenic transcriptomic experiments. Using RNA-seq, we could leap forward in our knowledge of Arcellinida and *Arcella uspiensis*. In our 2019 paper, we clarify the systematics and taxonomy of Arcellinids using a phylogenomic approach (LAHR et al., 2019). We have already applied this classification to trace gene and pathways evolution in Arcellinids, as in Chapters 2, 3, and 5. In our paper of 2020, we built the first reference transcriptome for Arcellinids, using 36 *Arcella uspiensis* transcriptomes produced in the laboratory (RIBEIRO et al., 2020). We annotated and described the main metabolic pathways of the group. We often use this reference to map our new *Arcella uspiensis* transcriptomes as the ones produced in Chapters 4 and 6. We also use them to fish marker genes for phylogenetic purposes, such as the SSU and COI genes, in Chapter 2. Other works from the laboratory described the shell formation process and meiosis using Arcellinida and *Arcella uspiensis* as models (HOFSTATTER et al., 2016). In this way, before my

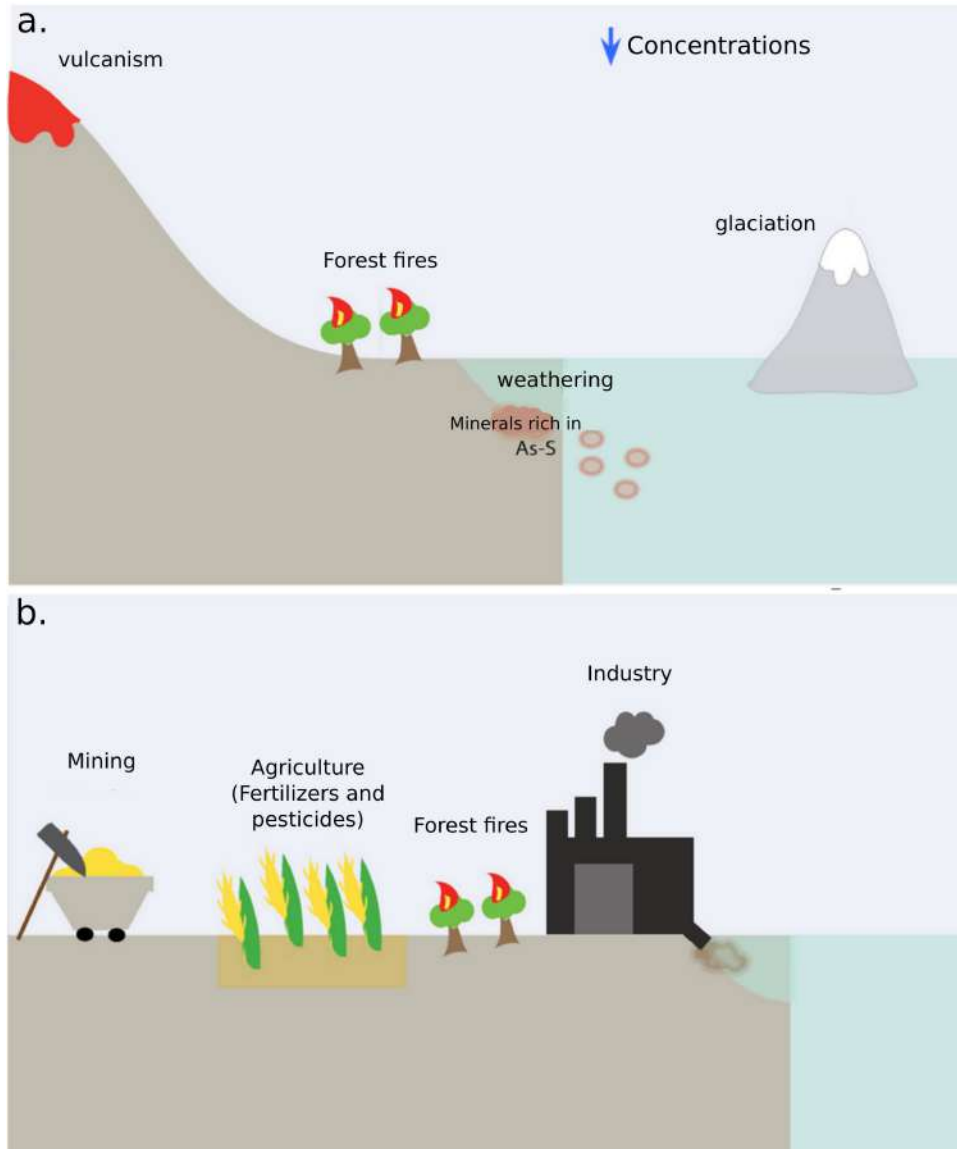
Ph.D., we already made significant advances in understanding the basic biology of *Arcella uspiensis* and developed a lot of protocols with the group.

In this dissertation, we were interested in resistance metabolisms in Arcellinida. From the ecological investigation, we knew that Arcellinida has a variable resistance capacity between species (ROE; PATTERSON; SWINDLES, 2010; NASSER et al., 2014). Also, from my previous works from the master's degree (RIBEIRO et al., 2020), we knew that a few Arcellinida species might have pathway characteristics of more resistant lineages. In that way, we explored two issues related to environmental impacts and their effect on Arcellinids. We used transcriptomics techniques to study the gene expression of our "model" organism, *Arcella uspiensis*, subjected to conditions of arsenic contamination and low oxygen.

1.6.1 Arsenic lakes: why we should care

Arsenic in water bodies can be from a natural or anthropogenic source. Arsenic is a ubiquitous metalloid in the environment that always had an essential role in life history. The environment contains low concentrations of inorganic and organic arsenic-containing compounds from volcanism, forest fires, weathering of arsenic-rich minerals, and melting ice caps (Figure 4) (MORIN; CALAS, 2006). However, anthropic actions, such as mining activities and pesticide use, have the potential to modify the predominant form in the environment (Figure 4) (MORIN; CALAS, 2006). It is also characterized as endless contamination because even with water flow and sediment accumulation, the contaminant keeps returning to the water column (NIKOLAIDIS et al., 2004; PALMER et al., 2019). The reason for that is that arsenic has a sensitive reducing nature. Changes in the redox conditions caused by eutrophication and climate changes can mobilize arsenic to the water column (SENN; HEMOND, 2004; HASEGAWA et al., 2009; GALLOWAY et al., 2018). In Brazil, the legally admitted threshold for arsenic in water is 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ (CARVALHO et al., 2017). However, sites contaminated by mining activity can contain values that reach 90 times this threshold. Still, only the total arsenic concentration is usually measured, while the different types of speciation vary in toxicity.

Figura 4 – Examples of sources of (a) natural and (b) anthropic sources of arsenic contamination in the environment. In natural environments, arsenic is present in low concentrations. Anthropogenic action can increase arsenic concentration and change its forms and oxidative state through pollution.



The history of arsenic compounds accompanied the history of Earth, and organisms' metabolic adaptations could tell this history (Figure 5) (CHEN et al., 2020). The level of toxicity of arsenic is variable, according to its form and oxidation state (Figure 6). Inorganic arsenic is always more toxic than organic. Also, oxidized arsenic is always less toxic than the reduced forms (BARRA et al., 2000). However, the prevalent form of this arsenic changed throughout Earth's history. More toxic reduced arsenic was prevalent before the atmosphere's great oxidation event (GOE). However, the GOE makes less toxic oxidized forms more prevalent (Figure 6). The change in forms and oxidative state of arsenic left a clear signal in the biodiversity (CHEN et al., 2020). After the GOE, organisms had to

adapt their arsenic resistance pathways to deal with the oxidized form of arsenic. Although oxidized forms are less toxic, the organisms did not have the enzymes to metabolize them. In that way, arsenic resistance metabolisms amplified after the GOE (CHEN et al., 2020). The oxidized forms should still be more prevalent (Figure 6). Determining the type of arsenic speciation is a difficult and expensive procedure. Inorganic forms (3+ and 5+) are 100 times more toxic than organic forms, and inorganic arsenic 3+ is 60 times more toxic than inorganic arsenic 5+ (BARRA et al., 2000). Speciate arsenic relies on chromatography and electrophoresis for shape separation and spectrometry for quantification (RUKH et al., 2015). Thus, the characterization of bioindicator species would be most practical to show evidence of the presence of arsenic when diagnosing water quality. Within Arcellinida, there seem to be species in a gradient between the highly resistant to the least resistant (PATTERSON et al., 2019). Next-generation sequencing techniques favor the environmental ecology of testate amoebae because their morphological identification remains controversial, and the procedures are laborious, involving "manual" cell counting.

Figura 5 – Oxygen levels and arsenic speciation. The graph shows the relationship between oxygen levels on Earth and the prevalence of each form of arsenic. The horizontal and vertical axes represent geological time (in Gy) and oxygen levels (% atmosphere), respectively. The blue curve represents the Earth's oxygen level over time. The stars represent the emergence of some of the eukaryotic lineages. Note that several strains arose under conditions with lower oxygen levels. The exact curve of arsenic speciation over time has yet to be discovered. However, at lower oxygen levels, there is still a tendency to form reduced arsenic species.

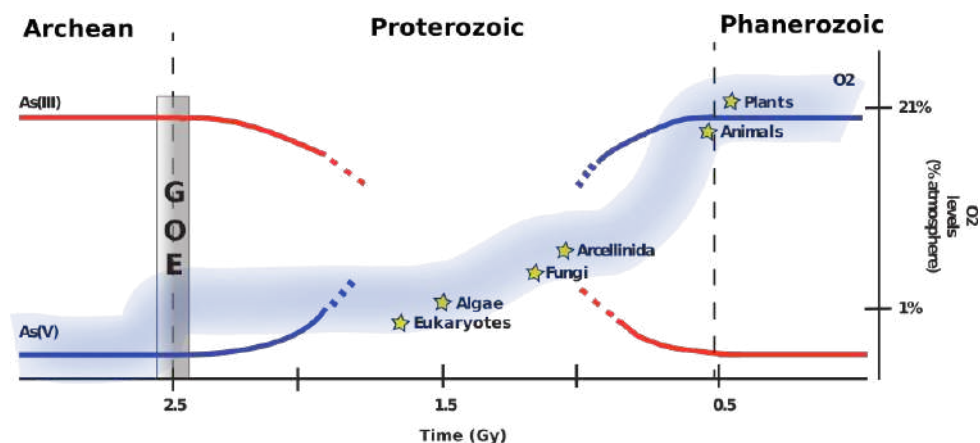
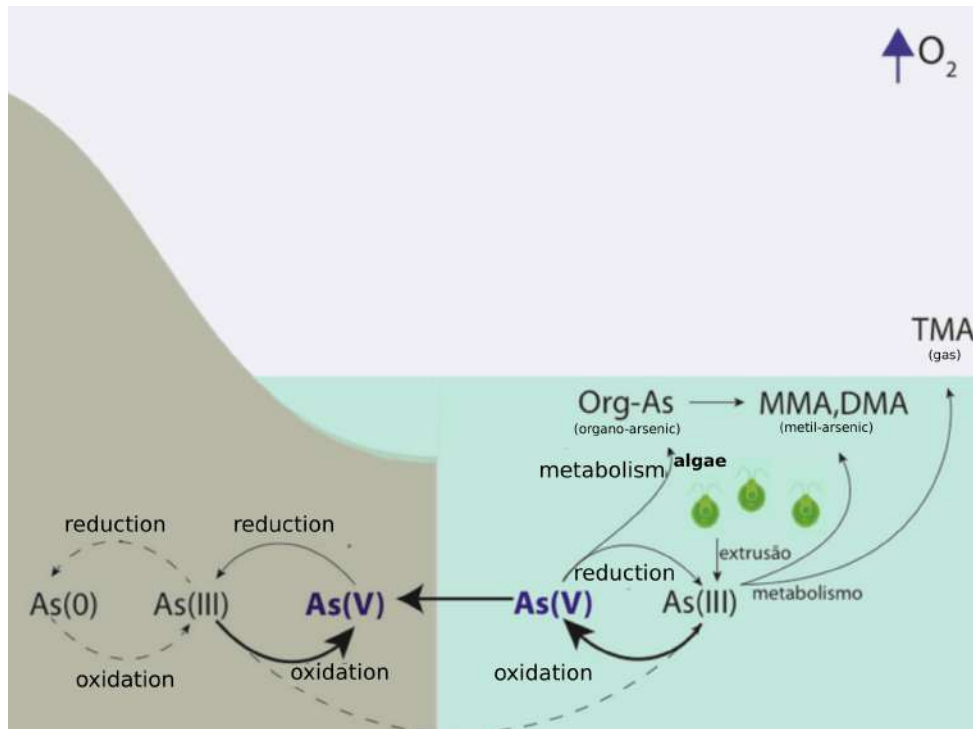


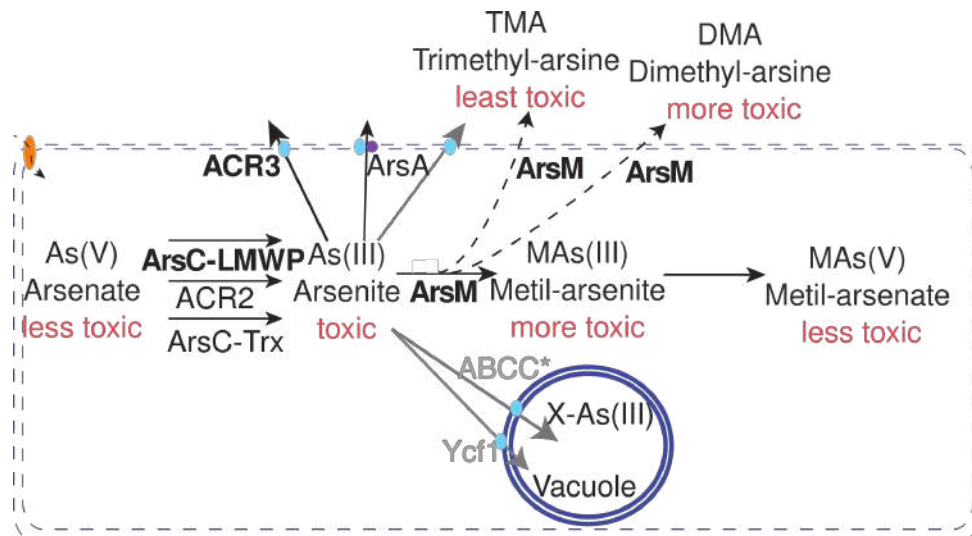
Figura 6 – Examples of forms and conversions of arsenic in the environment. Arsenic can be organic or inorganic-forming compounds. Also, it is possible to find it in your reduced or oxidized state. The environment directly affects that, for example, through oxygen levels in the atmosphere, where an oxidative atmosphere would make oxidate forms of arsenic more prevalent. Additionally, the metabolism of the organisms in the environment substantially alters the prevalent forms of arsenic compounds in the environment.



Arsenic has several toxicity factors for living organisms, such as reactive oxygen species formation, protein folding, and many other changes in gene expression, mutagenesis, and carcinogenesis (DING et al., 2009; JACOBSON et al., 2012; FLORA, 2011; HALTER et al., 2015). Because the atmosphere used to be reductive, arsenic resistance pathways developed first to metabolize and extrude the reduced forms and later to transform the oxidized forms into the reduced ones (Figure 7). Arsenic resistance pathways are ancient and did not change much along evolution (CHEN et al., 2020). However, the studied lineages are still very limited. Up to now, the studies of arsenic resistance pathways are for the bacterial domain and eukaryotes of economic interest (BHATTACHARJEE; ROSEN, 2007; SILVER; PHUNG, 2005; FEKIH et al., 2018). In bacteria and eukaryotes, arsenic cannot freely access the cell, passing through common membrane transporters (phosphate transporters) (ROSEN, 1990). Unprocessed arsenic compounds accumulate in the cell and generate the toxicity effects mentioned previously. The most ancient strategies for reduced inorganic arsenic are methylation to less toxic forms followed by extrusion (CHEN et al.,

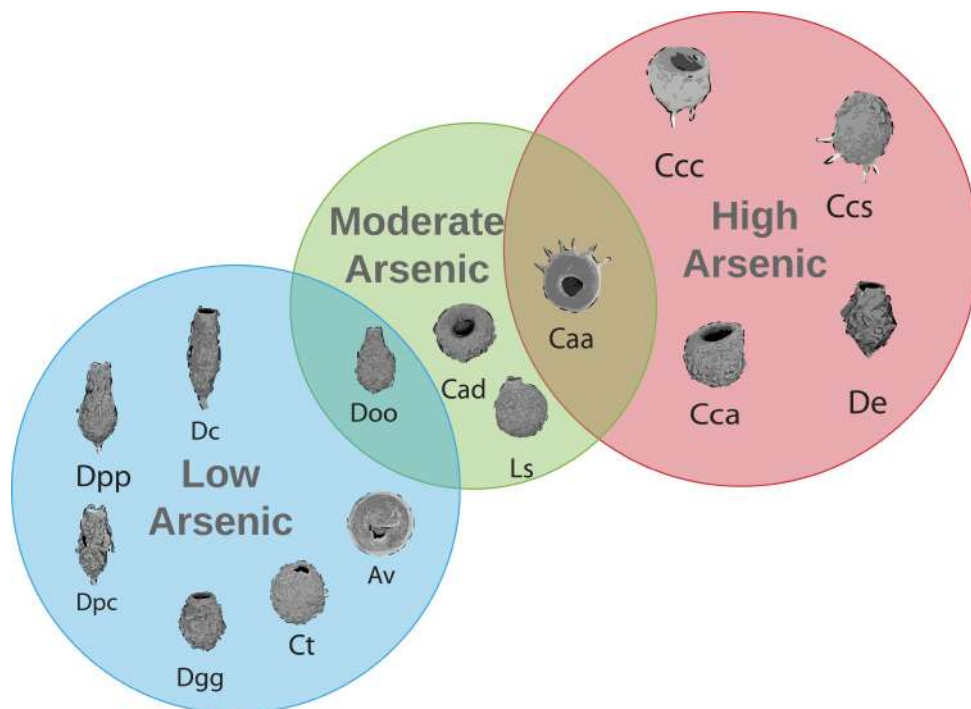
2020). Arsenite methyltransferases (ArsM) methylate inorganic arsenite, generating less harmful forms of arsenic, many of which do not accumulate through elimination in the form of gas (THOMAS et al., 2007; QIN et al., 2006). Arsenite transporters (Acr3 and ArsB) make the extrusion of arsenite, which expends energy for this function (ROSEN, 1990; GHOSH; SHEN; ROSEN, 1999). Before the GOE, methylation and extrusion of reduced forms were the most common resistance metabolisms. After GOE, as the oxidized form of arsenic became prevalent, arsenite reductases diversified and expanded (CHEN et al., 2020). Arsenate reductases are the class of enzymes that transforms oxidized inorganic arsenic (arsenate) into its reduced form (arsenite) (WU; SONG; BEITZ, 2010; MESSENS; SILVER, 2006). After transformation into the reduced form (arsenite), arsenite transporters extrude it. An additional pathway option, widely used in plants, is to sequester arsenite in vacuoles, reducing its effect on the cell environment (ZHANG; MARTINOIA; LEE, 2018; ZHAO et al., 2009). The strategy adopted is variable between lineages. Furthermore, the homology between many of these genes was still very uncertain for eukaryotes. Thus, understanding the ecological context, the homology of genes, and the evolution of these lineages would inform a better understanding of the metabolic evolution of these resistance pathways.

Figura 7 – Main enzymes in arsenic metabolism. Arsenic compounds are indicated, and their toxicity is colored red. Enzymes' names are beside the arrows. Enzymes that evolved before GOE are in bold. Arsenic accesses the cell through membrane channels, for example, phosphate channels in orange. Inorganic oxidized arsenic (arsenate) can be reduced to arsenite through arsenate reductase enzymes (ArsC, ACR2). Inorganic arsenite can be extruded through membrane transporters (ACR3, ArsB, MRPs). Alternatively, arsenite can be stored in vacuoles through transporters (Ycf1, ABCC). Finally, arsenite can be methylated through methyltransferases (ArsM) to organic, less toxic forms and forms that do not accumulate in the cell. ArsH can make the oxidation of organic methyl arsenite to less toxic forms.



For Arcellinids, we expect arsenic contamination to affect the amoebae and their prey (bacteria). Thus, one hypothesis about the pressure generated by arsenic in the amoebae community is that on top of the toxicity of arsenic to the amoebae, the shrinkage of bacterial diversity may also cooperate in excluding amoebae species more susceptible to stress due to nutritional deficiency (PATTERSON et al., 2019). At the community level, the works of Nasser and Patterson already inform us about the different degrees of resistance among Arcellinids (NASSER et al., 2016; PATTERSON et al., 2019) (Figure 8). Most *Diffflugia* species are characterized by low resistance. Moreover, other species, such as *Centropyxis*, would be the most resistant to this arsenic. However, these ecological studies are still focused on morphology and need molecular confirmation, for example, genetic barcoding, which can more precisely characterize these communities. Also, the physiological mechanisms involved in arcellinids' resistance to arsenic are still a mystery.

Figura 8 – Main species of testate amoebae found in previous studies for each level in an arsenic contamination gradient. Dc - *Diffflugia curvicaulis*; Dpp - *Diffflugia proteiriformis proteiriformis*; Dpc - *Diffflugia proteiriformis claviformis*; Dgg - *Diffflugia glans glans*; Ct - *Cucurbitella tricuspis*; Av - *Arcella vulgaris*; Doo - *Diffflugia oblonga oblonga*; Cad - *Centropyxis acuelata discoides*; Ls - *Lesquereusia spiralis*; Caa - *Centropyxis acuelata acuelata*; Cca - *Centropyxis constricta acuelata*; De - *Cylindriefflugia elegans*; Ccs - *Centropyxis constricta spinosa*; Ccc - *Centropyxis constricta constricta*. The images of the testate amoebae were taken from the works in which they were described in the arsenic gradients, to visualize what they classified in this species (NASSER et al., 2016; PATTERSON et al., 2019)

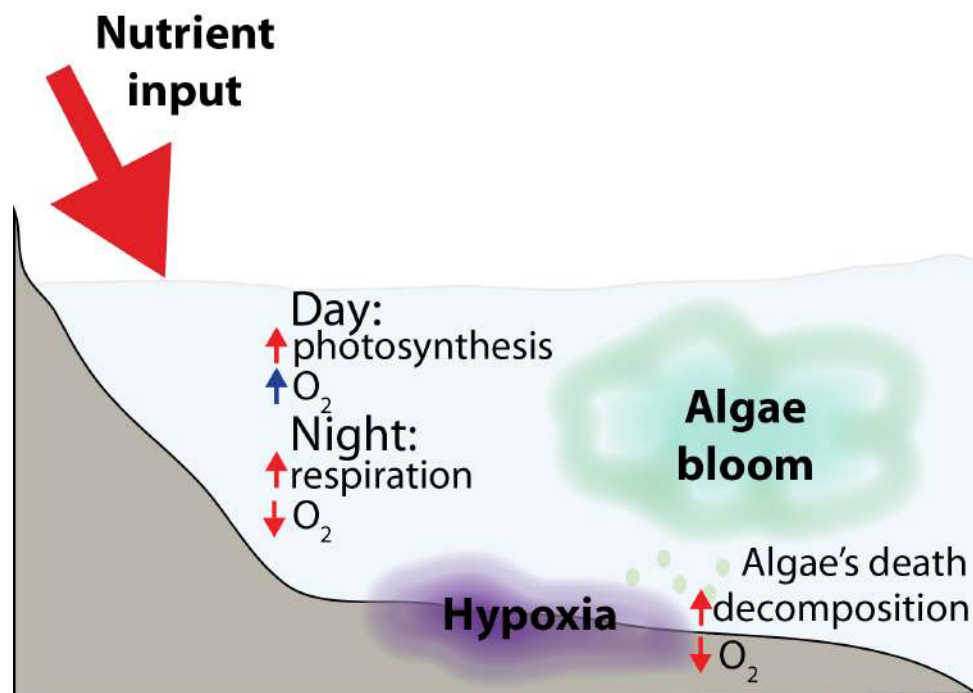


1.7 Eutrophication and low-oxygen

Eutrophication is a frequent condition developed in aquatic environments, characterized by exacerbated algae and bacterial reproduction due to nutrient excess (KHAN; ANSARI, 2005). The leading causes of eutrophication are anthropic, such as pollution, inappropriate waste disposal, and fertilizers. One of the significant consequences of eutrophication is a wide variation in the availability of oxygen in the medium. During the day, algae photosynthesis releases oxygen into the environment, increasing availability. However, during the night, the high rates of decomposition, mainly related to the death of algae added to the respiration of all organisms, can significantly reduce the oxygen available in the environment and generate hypoxic regions (TYLER; BRADY; TARGETT,

2009). These large fluctuations in oxygen are a stressor for communities, eliminating some of the less resilient species (ALEXANDER; VONLANTHEN; SEEHAUSEN, 2017; KHAN; ANSARI, 2005; HALE; CICHETTI; DEACUTIS, 2016). In this work, we investigated the effect of eutrophication using lakes of urban and natural parks in Madrid. Urban lakes, although they represent a natural environment in the middle of large cities, are usually already environments with a tremendous anthropic effect. As they are located in the middle of big cities, they suffer from garbage disposal, contamination, the inclusion of animals by man, and eutrophication. Thus, investigating the effects of human occupation on urban parks landscapes represents an excellent opportunity to compare altered and pristine environments.

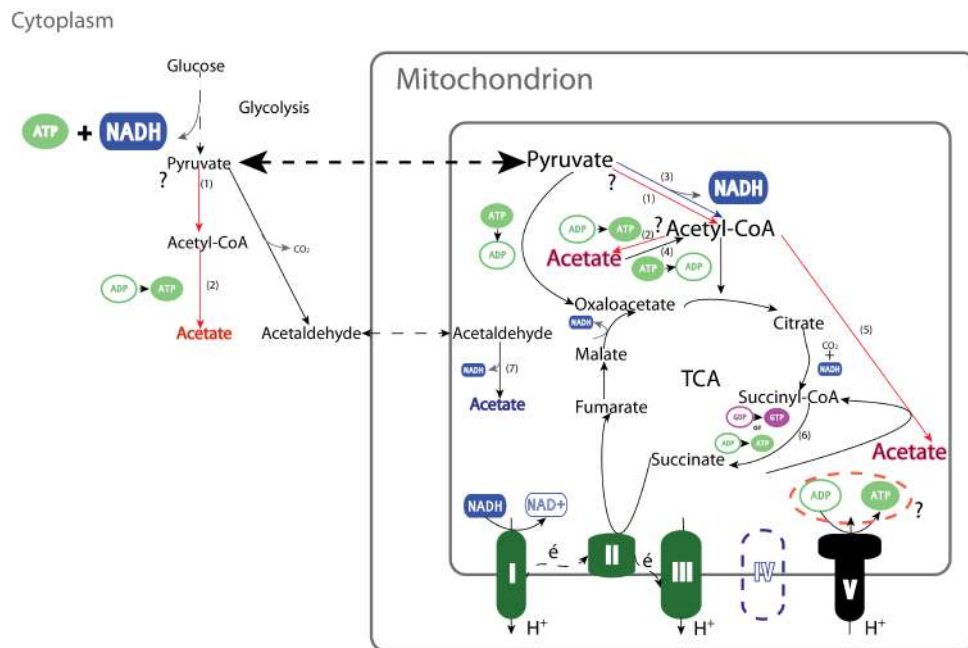
Figura 9 – Representation of a eutrophic lake environment. During the day, photosynthetic activity generates high levels of oxygen that accumulate. After a nutrient input, algae take advantage of this excess and over-reproduce in an algal bloom (green region). However, during the night, with respiration and decomposition, some regions can become hypoxic (purple regions). Usually, hypoxic regions form in the interface between sediment and water, a region with a greater density of organisms.



Many organisms can survive temporarily or live permanently in low oxygen conditions. Algae, for example, can maintain themselves during nocturnal periods of low oxygen (CATALANOTTI et al., 2013). Like algae, many other organisms can survive hypoxic conditions. Related mechanisms consist of metabolic regulations, mostly on energetic

metabolism (HWANG et al., 2020; ANTÓNIO et al., 2016; VIA et al., 1994). The fueling of the energetic metabolism depends mainly on glycolysis, a common pathway to all living organisms that converts glucose into pyruvate (RIGOULET et al., 2020; YELLEN, 2018). In this conversion process, the organism invests 2 ATP (energy-rich adenosine triphosphate) and generates 4 ATP, generating a final balance of 2 extra ATP. Compared to aerobic metabolism, it is a light output, where after going through the Krebs cycle and the phosphorylative chain, on average, aerobic respiring organisms generate 30-32 ATP. Current evidence points out that the glycolytic pathway might not sustain an organism on its own (YELLEN, 2018). More nutrients, cofactors, and organic composts would be needed to continue glycolysis. Thus, organisms in low oxygen conditions have developed solutions to recover cofactors and substrates or generate additional energy yield. For example, the fermentation pathways that make the recovery of cofactors more efficient, such as alcohol, aldehyde, and lactate fermentation pathways (RIGOULET et al., 2020). Also, additional shuttles, malate–aspartate shuttle (MAS), recover pyruvate, the primary substrate for the fermentations (YELLEN, 2018). The use of parts of the TCA cycle, maintaining partial functioning of OXPHOS (ZHENG, 2012). All of that would make viable survival based on glycolysis. Another pathway, most common in obligatory or facultative anaerobes, uses the conversion of acetyl-CoA to acetate to generate energy (STAIRS; LEGER; ROGER, 2015; MÜLLER et al., 2012). Some lineages of algae, such as *Chlamydomonas* for example, have this metabolic flexibility, using the aerobic and photosynthetic pathways during the day. They activate the anaerobic metabolism at night, with glycolysis and ASCT acting (CATALANOTTI et al., 2013). There are several other regulations and adaptations to low oxygen, and the solutions found by the organisms are also variable. However, we believe the diversity of strategies among lineages must be closely related to their degree of resistance. How this variation occurs, and its consequences is still a new and developing area, especially for eukaryotic microorganisms.

Figura 10 – Scheme representing essential reactions of low oxygen energy metabolism common in eukaryotes. The enzymes represented here are not necessarily present in all organisms. Enzyme names: (1) pyruvate:ferredoxin oxidoreductase (PFO); (2) FeFe-hydrogenase; (3) acetyl-CoA synthetase (ACS); (4) pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH); (5) Acetate-CoA ligase (ACS); (6) acetate:succinate CoA transferase (ASCT); (7) succinyl-CoA synthetase (SCS); (8) Aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH); (9) Alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH). We also represented the other components of the TCA cycle and electron transport chain from aerobic mitochondria. Exclusively anaerobic enzymes are colored in red, and anaerobic processes of cofactors recovery are colored in gray.



1.8 Question, hypothesis, objectives

Considering the above, we analyze the effect of multiple anthropogenic environmental stresses on testate amoebae in this work. We studied the evolutionary history of stress responses in Arcellinids and individual responses through gene expression. We evaluated two different pressures, arsenic contamination and eutrophication/low oxygen. Our overall research objective is to understand who lives in these conditions and how they live. To work on this issue, we: (i) characterized the specific pathways related to the resistance pathway using bioinformatics; then (ii) we untangled the mechanistic through gene expression profiles using *Arcella uspiensis* as a model organism, grown under the investigated stress.

Dissertation statement: Ecological studies have shown that Arcellinida are present in environments with low oxygen levels and contaminated by arsenic. Their survival under these pressures must be related to metabolic adaptations. Arsenic resistance is mostly related to specific pathways of detoxification and extrusion. Fermentative pathways are fundamental for survival in low-oxygen environments, and these resistance pathways are related to maintaining the environmental community.

1.9 Hypothesis

(i) The molecular evolution of arsenic metabolic genes will elucidate the history of the adaption of testate amoeba to arsenic.

(ii) Highly tolerant testate amoeba lineages have specific biochemical pathways and gene expression profiles related to resistance.

(iii) Species that build stable populations in eutrophic lakes use fermentative metabolism to tolerate oxygen fluctuations.

(iv) Tolerant species up-regulate fermentative pathways in microcosms under low oxygen pressure.

1.10 Objectives

(i) Characterize molecular evolution of known arsenic resistance genes;

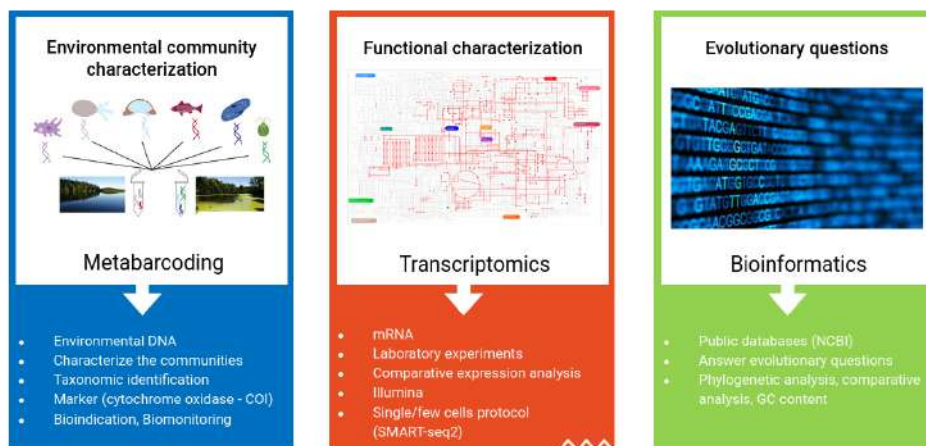
(ii) Characterize the molecular mechanism related to resistance;

(iii) Quantify gene expression in microcosms with different oxygenation levels;

(iv) Characterize expression patterns changes and the relevance of fermentative metabolism in the tolerance of arcellinids to low oxygen conditions.

1.11 Methods

Figura 11 – Methodological approaches that were applied in this thesis. (i) Metabarcoding: Describe the arcellinid communities in the conditions of interest - Appendix A; (ii) Transcriptomics: Functional characterization using mRNA sequencing and gene expression analysis - Chapters 4 and 6; (iii) Bioinformatics: Obtaining available data in public databases to answer evolutionary questions - Chapters 3 and 5.



1.11.1 Database expansion and species descriptions

The manuscript corresponding to the Chapter 2 of the thesis is complete and was submitted to the European Journal of Protistology. We decided to produce this initial manuscript because we need more precision in Arcellinida identification in our applied works. Previously, we named the "model" organisms used in our experiments with raw designations based on original species descriptions. However, although we always included the location where we took the cells, this caused a problem in the replicability of the experiments. The reason is that another investigator can take a cryptic species of the organism we used as a "model" and obtain different results because of lineage-specific differences. Currently, we have a practical and less subjective way to identify the amoebae, which is cytochrome oxidase (COI) barcoding. In that way, before publishing the next manuscripts of the project using our "model" species, we wanted to use barcoding, in conjunction with morphology and morphometry, to describe *Arcella uspiensis*, the

species we currently use as "model," and other Arcellinida species that we had in the laboratory. Also, we used this manuscript to expand the COI database we use in Arcellinida identification adding transcriptomic data fished bioinformatically. For this expansion, we used public transcriptome data available at NCBI, data present in our laboratory database, and the production of new sequences through PCR and Sanger sequencing. We carried out this parallel analysis because although COI is the marker with more sequences available for arcellinids, the group's biodiversity is still underrepresented (GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2023). We applied this expanded database to identify taxonomic unities (OTUs) in the environmental study we presented in Appendix A.

1.11.2 Molecular evolution of resistance metabolism pathways

Previous studies have elucidated the mechanisms of resistance employed by organisms under low oxygen and arsenical stress conditions. The selection of relevant genes in this study was based on comprehensive reviews of the literature by Stairs et al. (2015) and Chen et al. (2020) (STAIRS; LEGER; ROGER, 2015; CHEN et al., 2020). A bioinformatical methodology, as described by Hofstatter et al. (2016), was employed to identify these genes from public databases and transcriptomes of Arcellinida (HOFSTATTER et al., 2016). Subsequently, gene trees were constructed to propose a hypothesis regarding the evolutionary relationships of these genes, as detailed in Chapters 3 and 5 of this document.

1.11.3 Functional characterization through transcriptomics

Previous ecological studies found Arcellinids species present under low oxygen and arsenic environmental pressures (ROE; PATTERSON; SWINDLES, 2010; ROE; PATTERSON, 2014; PATTERSON et al., 2019; DANIEL; LOPES, 2006; REGALADO et al., 2018; JU et al., 2014; KOSAKYAN; LARA, 2019; SILVA et al., 2013; ORTIZ et al., 2009; CZAPLUK; RUTKOWSKI; RYBAK, 2018). Also, through comparative analyses, we determined that Arcellinids had genes of resistance to arsenic and low oxygen (Chapters 4 and 6). In this second work front, we made laboratory-controlled experiments. We used *Arcella uspiensis* in the experiments, a species that we always use as a "model" in the laboratory. We chose *Arcella uspiensis* because this is the species that we have been able

to keep in cultivation since 2013, and we have the most information about basic biology, such as growth curves and metabolism (RIBEIRO et al., 2020; RIBEIRO et al., 2019; HOFSTATTER; LAHR, 2019; PORFÍRIO-SOUSA; RIBEIRO; LAHR, 2017). We also have a reference transcriptome built for the group, which we can use to map the produced transcriptome data (RIBEIRO et al., 2020). Thus, this experiment consisted of growing *Arcella uspiensis* cultures in controlled environments on both arsenic and low oxygen conditions. We followed the SMARTseq2 methodology for producing transcriptomes (PICELLI et al., 2014). In this methodology, we isolate one or a few cells from the culture, isolate the messenger RNA by bead selection, transform it into cDNA by reverse transcription, prepare the libraries, and sequence them by Illumina. The entire methodology for producing these transcriptomes and analyses is described in more detail in Chapters 4 and 6, where we show the results obtained in these experiments.

1.11.4 Characterization of the community in the environment through Metabarcoding

The rationale behind the metabarcoding technique is that each organism has unique portions of its DNA sequence that can identify them at the species level. In the work included in Appendix A, we compared the arcellinid community between urban lakes (within Madrid) and lakes outside the city, with less anthropic interference. We will describe the sampling points in more detail in Appendix A, where we describe the results of this experiment. With this sample, we performed DNA extractions and amplification of the cytochrome oxidase (COI) marker, currently the most used marker in testate amoebae identification (GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2023). We sequenced through the Novaseq platform.

1.12 Document structure

This thesis is organized into chapters containing an introduction (Chapter 1), the main manuscripts produced (Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6), a final discussion (Chapter 7), and an extra metabarcoding experiment still under analysis (Appendix A). In chapters 3 and 5, the manuscripts in which we characterize the presence and absence of resistance pathways in eukaryotes and arcellinids through Bioinformatics are published or submitted

to Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution. In chapters 4 and 6, we described the gene expression results and will still prepare these chapters for publication. Finally, we still need to finish the analysis of Appendix A data, and we want to prepare the discussion chapter 7 to publish as an opinion article.

7.2 *Final conclusion*

Model organisms are useful because we put a lot of effort into building a basis of basic knowledge for this organism. After that, you can apply this knowledge to a wider range of organisms. *Arcella uspiensis* has great potential as a model organism in Arcellinida. We have already built up a lot of basic knowledge about this group (RIBEIRO et al., 2019; RIBEIRO et al., 2020; RIBEIRO; LAHR, 2022; PORFÍRIO-SOUSA; RIBEIRO; LAHR, 2017; LAHR et al., 2019; GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2023; GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2022b; GONZÁLEZ-MIGUÉNS et al., 2022a; HOFSTATTER et al., 2016). In this thesis, we developed two transcriptomic experiments in stressful conditions (low-oxygen and arsenic-contaminated). Also, we performed bioinformatic studies fishing genes of interest and building inferences about resistance evolution. In applied science, we started to develop primers for qPCR of resistance genes (Chapters 4 and 6). Also, we amplified COI database for Arcellinids and performed a metabarcoding study in Madrid.

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