

THE MOLECULAR CONSEQUENCES OF VITAMIN B₁₂ DEPRIVATION IN
THE POLAR DIATOM, *FRAGILARIOPSIS CYLINDRUS*

by

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Dedication

For my ancestors. For my ancestors' ancestors.

For the Galicians who unfurled their sails on the mountainous Iberian coast.

For the West African diaspora who were trafficked shoulder to shoulder across the Atlantic with rice sewn into their braids.

For the Colombian inhabitants of the walled city overlooking the Caribbean Sea.

For the Bahamian people that made a livelihood on the archipelago's jagged islands, weathering hurricanes and plucking pink conch shells from the seafloor like jewels.

The ocean is intertwined with our lives, losses, triumphs, and travels. The same water that flows through them flows through me, just as it flows through the smallest living beings that sustain our world.

Por mis ancestros. Por los ancestros de mis ancestros.

Por los Gallegos quien desplegaron sus velas en la costa montañosa de Iberia.

Por la diáspora Africana occidental quien fueron traficados hombro a hombro por el océano Atlántico con arroz sembrado en sus trenzas.

Por los Costeños de la ciudad amurallada con vista al Mar Caribe.

Por la gente Bahameña quien hizo un sustento en las islas dentadas del archipiélago, aguantando huracanes y desprendiendo conchas rosadas del fondo marino como joyas.

El océano es entrelazado con nuestras vidas, perdidas, triunfos, y viajes. La misma agua que fluye a través de ellos fluye por me, al igual que fluye por los seres vivos mas pequeños que sostienen nuestro mundo.

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Abstract

Fragilariopsis cylindrus is an ecologically significant diatom inhabiting sea ice and water column assemblages in the Southern Ocean (SO). Microbial growth in SO microbial communities has been demonstrated to be periodically limited or co-limited by vitamin B₁₂. In this dissertation, I examine the molecular consequences of B₁₂ deprivation in *F. cylindrus*, with a focus on alterations to protein expression and metabolite production. Despite unchanged growth rates, B₁₂-deprived *F. cylindrus* cells display responses that can impact the production of growth stimulating compounds, including induction of a putative B₁₂ remodeling pathway and differential production of DMSP and thiamine related compounds. My findings highlight that assessments of marine phytoplankton's responses to stressors beyond growth rate should be considered in order to generate accurate predictions of community interactions in micronutrient deprived environments. These results have implications for our understanding the relationship between B₁₂ availability and community composition and nutrient cycling in a changing ocean.

List of Abbreviations

Ado-B₁₂: Adenosylcobalamin
AHCCase: Adenosylhomocysteinase
APS: Ammonium persulfate
ATP: Adenosine 5'-triphosphate
B₁: Vitamin B₁; Thiamin
B₁₂: Vitamin B₁₂; Cobalamin
B₂: Vitamin B₂; Riboflavin
B₇: Vitamin B₇; Biotin
BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
BMIS: Best Matched Internal Standard
CBA1: Cobalamin Acquisition Protein 1
CN-B₁₂: Cyanocobalamin
Chl-D: Mg-chelatase subunit D
CobN: Aerobic cobaltochelatase subunit N
CobS: Aerobic cobaltochelatase subunit S
CobT: Aerobic cobaltochelatase subunit T
CobW: Cobalamin biosynthesis protein W
cRAP: common Repository of Adventitious Proteins
cSHMT: cytosolic Serine Hydroxymethyltransferase
DAPI: 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole
DE: Differentially Expressed
DMB: 5, 6-di-methylbenzimidazole
DMS: Dimethyl sulfide
DMSP: Dimethylsulfoniopropionate
DTT: 1,4-Dithiothreitol
FDR: False Discovery Rate
IRS: Internal Reference Scaling
IRMS: Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer
JGI: Joint Genome Institute

KEGG: Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes
LC-MS: Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry
MCM: Methyl CoA Mutase
Me-B₁₂: Methylcobalamin
METase: monohydroxyethyl terephthalate hydrolase
MetE: B₁₂-independent methionine synthase
MetH: B₁₂-dependant methionine synthase
MetK: S-adenosylmethionine synthase
MS: Mass spectrometer
MTHFR: Methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase
MMT: methylthiohydroxybutyrate methyltransferase
NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology Information
OH-B₁₂: Hydroxycobalamin
PCA: Principal Component Analysis
PBGS: Porphobilinogen Synthase
ChID: protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase
PAM: Pulse-amplitude-modulated
QC: Quality Control
RFU: Relative Fluorescence Units
RNR: Ribonucleotide Reductase
SAH: S-Adenosyl Homocysteine
SAM: S-Adenosyl Methionine
SO: Southern Ocean
TEMED: Tetramethylethylenediamine
THF: Tetrahydrofolate
5,10-MTHF: 5,10-methylene tetrahydrofolate
ThiC: Thiamine biosynthesis protein C
TMT: Tandem Mass Tagging
UROD: uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase

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Chapter I: Introduction

1.1 Trace Nutrient Limitation in the Ocean – Marine phytoplankton are key players in the Earth's carbon cycle. An estimated 46% of global net primary productivity originates from the ocean, most of which is conducted by phytoplankton (Field *et al.*, 1998). In addition to forming the base of marine food webs, phytoplankton are responsible for export of carbon to the deep ocean, acting as a global sink for anthropogenic carbon dioxide inputs (Michaels & Silvers 1988). Abiotic factors such as light and nutrient availability are known to drive phytoplankton growth in the ocean (Pilson 2012). Nutrients required in trace concentrations for microbial growth, also known as micronutrients, include metals and vitamins. These often utilized in the active sites of critical enzymes. For example, the trace metal iron is required in enzymes that are crucial to the electron transport chain, which creates the required redox potential required for the generation of ATP, the main currency of energy for the cell. Iron availability is also critical for the function of many of the components of the photosynthetic apparatus (Ferreira and Straus 1994). Like iron, manganese is needed for photosynthetic processes as a core component of the oxygen-evolving complex of photosystem II (Yachandra *et al.*, 1996). Additional trace metals that are important for phytoplankton growth include zinc, copper, and cobalt (Sunda & Hunstman 1998). Another important class of micronutrients are vitamins. The vitamins are a heterogenous group of compounds characterized by being required in small amounts for life and metabolic integrity in animals (Bender 2003). The three main vitamins understood to be required by eukaryotic microalgae for growth are thiamin (vitamin B₁), cobalamin (vitamin B₁₂), and biotin (vitamin B₇) (Provasoli & Carlucci 1974).

Despite their small requirements in the cell compared to macronutrients in the ocean, trace metals and vitamins can disproportionately affect the growth and structure of microbial communities. Liebig's law of the minimum dictates that the nutrient that is in shortest supply relative to the cell's need is that which will limit an organisms' growth, and more widely, system productivity (de Baar 1994). This was expanded on by John Martin in the 1990's, who noticed that there were vast regions of the ocean where macronutrients were abundant and yet not yielding the expected amount of life. He described these areas of ocean as HNLC's (high nutrient; low chlorophyll areas), as at the time, chlorophyll was the chosen method for estimating phytoplankton biomass. Martin postulated the reason for this phenomenon and went on to discover that adding iron to seawater led to increased growth (Martin 1990; Martin *et al.*, 1994). Martin later declared that if he was provided with "half a tanker of iron", he could catalyze "an ice age" (Pilson 2012). Although the concept of utilizing iron additions to facilitate drawdown of carbon dioxide via increased growth is now understood to be far more nuanced, Martin's bravado emphasizes the sheer magnitude of consequences of trace nutrient availability on global biogeochemical processes. More recent works have examined the nature of micronutrient limitation on microbial communities with revised approaches, broader scopes, and improved technology. We now understand that differential availability of micronutrients has the possibility to fuel or inhibit the growth of various members of microbial communities, leading to alterations in community composition and structure (Provasoli 1963; Sañudo-Wilhelmy *et al.*, 2014). In particular, mounting evidence places vitamin B₁₂ among important drivers of microbial ecology and biogeochemistry in the ocean, making its utilization and dynamics in significant species worthy of further examination. An estimated

half of all phytoplankton species have absolute vitamin B₁₂ requirements (Croft *et al.*, 2005) and bottle incubation experiments have demonstrated that the addition of B₁₂ to natural communities results in increased growth (Bertrand *et al.*, 2007). The link between B₁₂ availability and community-level effects on oceanic microbes has been explored by several studies, which have demonstrated that B₁₂ availability can alter community composition, net productivity, and growth in a variety of marine environments (Sañudo-Wilhelmy *et al.*, 2006; Gobler *et al.*, 2017; Koch *et al.*, 2011; Browning *et al.*, 2017).

1.2. Vitamin B₁₂: The History, Sources, and Sinks of an Enigmatic Metalloenzyme –

Vitamin B₁₂ was initially discovered as an anemia-causing factor by two doctors, Minot and Murphy, in 1926. Later work demonstrated that vitamin B₁₂ deprivation reduces methionine synthase activity in humans, leading to disruptions in nucleic acid biosynthesis (Shane & Stokstad 1985). As researchers worked towards maintaining alga in culture on synthetic media, the importance of vitamin B₁₂ to growth and physiology emerged. Remarkably, Hutner, noticed that he could use liver concentrates normally used to treat patients suffering from pernicious anemia to maintain cultures of *Euglena*. In 1949, Hutner discovered that these extracts, in fact, contained vitamin B₁₂, which was facilitating the growth of the cultures (Hutner *et al.*, 1949). Later, as vitamin B₁₂ was increasingly studied in oceanographic circles as a micronutrient required for phytoplankton growth, investigations into B₁₂ requirements and utilization in microalgae became more common. Droop studied how the uptake of vitamin B₁₂ availability affected growth in the haptophyte *Monochrysis lutheri* (now recognized as *Pavlova lutheri*). The results of his seminal work with vitamin B₁₂ demonstrated that growth rate depended on intercellular

quota of the vitamin, rather than its concentration in the media (Droop 1968), which was contradictory to the prevailing perspective at the time. Droop's research established that intracellular vitamin B₁₂ quotas correlate with growth rate, highlighting the coenzyme's importance as a potential controlling factor to primary productivity in microalgae. Vitamin B₁₂'s scarce concentrations in the ocean (picomolar to subpicomolar; Heal *et al.*, 2014) support the notion that B₁₂ may limit growth. Additionally, the cofactor is only produced biogenically by certain bacterial and archaeal groups (Raux *et al.*, 2000). Yet, many eukaryotic microbes possess the genes for B₁₂ biosynthesis despite not being able to produce the complete molecule *de novo* (Vancaester *et al.*, 2020).

Vitamin B₁₂ is a remarkable molecule in that its biosynthesis is recognized as one of the most complex pathways known to humankind, utilizing a total of 30 enzyme-mediated steps. This process is reviewed in detail in Raux *et al.*, 2000. The biosynthetic pathway begins with a shared precursor, the tetrapyrrole ring, that also goes on to produce heme and chlorophyll-a. In the centre of the ring for each of these molecules is a metal ion: iron, magnesium, and cobalt, in heme, chlorophyll-a, and cobalamin respectively. In addition to the production of the ring, the lower ligand of the molecule must also be synthesized. In cobalamins, the lower ligand of the molecule is either DMB (5, 6-di-methylbenzimidazole) or adenine. Cobalamins with DMB as the lower ligand are readily utilized by B₁₂-dependent microalgal consumers, but evidence shows that cobalamins with adenine (pseudocobalamins) are orders of magnitude less bioavailable for their use (Helliwell *et al.*, 2016). Helliwell and colleagues have discovered that if DMB is provided to certain species along with pseudocobalamin, they are able to remodel the pseudocobalamin into cobalamin (Helliwell *et al.*, 2016). The upper ligand also has a few possible modifications.

Cobalamins with Ado-, CN-, OH-, and Me- groups as the upper ligand produce adenosyl-, cyano-, hydroxo- and methylcobalamin respectively. Cyanocobalamin is a product of the commercial synthesis of cobalamin (Obeid *et al.*, 2015). Adenosyl- and methyl-cobalamin are the biologically active forms of cobalamin but are rapidly highly photolabile and degrade to hydroxocobalamin upon exposure to light.

1.3 Vitamin B₁₂ Utilization in Eukaryotic Microalgae – Vitamin B₁₂ is required for growth by some photosynthetic eukaryotes for use as a cofactor in essential enzymes. The biologically active forms of cobalamin, adenosyl- and methylcobalamin, are utilized by eukaryotes as cofactors in MCM (methylmalonyl-CoA mutase) and the methionine synthase MetH, respectively. An alternate B₁₂-independent methionine synthase enzyme, MetE, can also be used to synthesize methionine in some organisms (Banjaree & Matthews 1990). Out of the recognized B₁₂-requiring enzymes in eukaryotes, MetH has been hypothesized to be the primary sink for B₁₂ use, as MetE's presence is correlated with a lack of an absolute B₁₂ requirement for growth (Helliwell *et al.*, 2011). The requirement of B₁₂ for growth, also known as B₁₂ auxotrophy, has arisen many times throughout the evolutionary history of photosynthetic microbes via the loss of genes encoding the MetE enzyme (Helliwell *et al.*, 2011). Notably, phytoplankton and land plants play the same trophic role as primary producers in their respective environments, yet land plants solely utilize MetE to produce methionine, and do not require exogenous B₁₂. It has thereby been hypothesized that eukaryotic algae are faced with a high selective pressure to maintain the B₁₂-dependent methionine synthase pathway (Bertrand *et al.*, 2013; Bertrand & Allen 2012; Helliwell *et al.*, 2011; Ellis *et al.*, 2017). Our understanding of the dynamics between

these two enzymes and the broader consequences of B₁₂ limitation in biogeochemically significant regions of the ocean remains limited.

1.4 Vitamin B₁₂ in a Southern Ocean Context – The Southern Ocean (SO) is a biogeochemically significant region responsible for distributing nutrients to the global ocean (Sarmiento *et al.*, 2004). The SO hosts some of the largest seasonal phytoplankton blooms in the world (Sallée J-B *et al.*, 2015). Evidence suggests that B₁₂ utilization and cycling have far-reaching consequences for SO microbial assemblages as vitamin B₁₂ can limit or co-limit phytoplankton growth there (Bertrand *et al.*, 2007). Ellis *et al.*, 2017 found that, compared to diatoms in other waters, a much higher proportion of Antarctic diatoms are able to produce MetE, allowing them to utilize both the B₁₂ dependent and independent pathways for methionine synthesis. One such diatom, *Fragilariopsis cylindrus*, is a major component of sea ice and water column assemblages in the SO (Kang & Fryxell 1992; Mock & Hoch 2005). This psychrophile has been described as an emerging model diatom species (Falciatore *et al.*, 2020) and possesses the gene for production of MetE (Helliwell *et al.*, 2011). MetE transcripts in *F. cylindrus* have been demonstrated to decrease in the presence of B₁₂, but it exhibits no difference in growth rate due to vitamin starvation (Ellis *et al.*, 2017). We chose to study the effects of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation in SO diatoms using *F. cylindrus* for these experiments due to its ecological significance and sequenced genome (Mock *et al.*, 2017).

1.5 Thesis Overview – This dissertation aims to characterize the molecular consequences of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation in an ecologically significant polar diatom. We tackle this question by investigating the proteome and metabolite production of axenic *F. cylindrus* cultures grown in the absence of vitamin B₁₂. This dissertation aims to (1) explore the

interaction between protein expression, vitamin B₁₂, and elevated temperature and (2) characterize changes in production of potentially B₁₂-dependent metabolites and physiology in response to B₁₂ deprivation in *F. cylindrus*.

In Chapter II, the interactive effects of B₁₂ deprivation and heat stress on the proteome of *F. cylindrus* were examined. *F. cylindrus* was cultured with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂, and then exposed to an elevated temperature treatment. We measured the expression of the methionine synthases MetH and MetE and conducted a proteomic discovery experiment to identify proteins that were differentially expressed in response to the individual and combined stressors. I designed and performed the culturing experiments with guidance from Dr. Erin Bertrand. I also performed cell count and photophysiological measurements and completed sample preparation for all protein measurements. Targeted and discovery protein samples were run on mass spectrometers in both the Bertrand lab and Dalhousie's MS core facility by Dr. Elden Rowland based on methods developed with Dr. Bertrand. The database search for our discovery proteomics experiment was also conducted by Dr. Rowland. The remaining data analysis was performed by me, including normalization procedures and differential expression analyses. Dr. Bertrand provided guidance and feedback on the ideas presented in the chapter.

Chapter III investigates the effects of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation on diatom physiology and metabolite production, in addition to presenting the first direct measurements of cellular B₁₂ quotas in *F. cylindrus*. We grew *F. cylindrus* cultures at an optimal growth temperature of 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂ and, using targeted metabolite quantification approaches, we monitored the abundance of cobalamin, in addition to a suite of metabolites previously shown to be affected by B₁₂ deprivation in other organisms. For

this chapter, I also designed and performed the culturing experiments with guidance from Dr. Erin Bertrand. I performed cell count, particulate carbon and nitrogen, and cell size measurements, in addition to preparing protein samples for quantitative measurements of MetE and MetH. Dr. Elden Rowland and I extracted the samples for metabolite measurements together. Dr. Rowland performed the mass spectrometry and I performed the analysis of the protein and metabolite data, including selecting best matched internal standards using methods with advice from Cat Bannon. Dr. Bertrand also provided guidance and feedback on the ideas presented in this chapter.

Chapter II: Complex Proteomic Rearrangements in Response to Vitamin B₁₂ Deprivation and Heat Stress in the Polar Diatom, *Fragilariopsis cylindrus*

2.1 Abstract

Vitamin B₁₂ is a cobalt-containing micronutrient that periodically limits phytoplankton growth in the Southern Ocean (SO). B₁₂ deprivation has been demonstrated to lead to metabolic consequences in diatoms, including methionine starvation and changes to osmolyte production. In this study, we examine the interactive effects of B₁₂ deprivation and heat stress on the proteome of the ecologically significant SO diatom, *Fragilariopsis cylindrus*. *F. cylindrus* was grown in B₁₂-replete and B₁₂-deplete conditions and exposed to supra-optimal (12 °C) and control (4 °C) temperatures. Targeted and global proteomic analyses were then used to identify the combined molecular consequences of the two stressors. We found that growth was unaffected by B₁₂ availability at supra-optimal temperatures, despite complex proteomic rearrangements in response to the combined stressors. Amongst these rearrangements, we identify proteins that may be used to remodel fragments of B₁₂. We also demonstrate that canonical B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature responses persist at the intersection of the two stressors, suggesting that proteomic biomarkers used to survey B₁₂ limitation in diatoms *in-situ* are reliable, even at lethal temperatures. The data provided in this study suggests that the physiological impacts of vitamin B₁₂ in a non-auxotrophic diatom are multifaceted and complex, despite the absence of changes to growth rate. Additionally, *F. cylindrus* may increase the biologically labile B₁₂ pool by remodelling fragments of B₁₂, improving their ability to thrive in the Southern Ocean's generally low B₁₂ environment. The differential expression of proteins used to respond to B₁₂ deprivation highlights the strong selective pressure that vitamin B₁₂ imposes on Southern Ocean diatoms.

2.2 Introduction

Fragiliariopsis cylindrus is an ecologically significant pennate diatom which inhabits the Southern Ocean (SO). This region shapes the Earth's climate and biogeochemistry, supporting global primary productivity via the upwelling and circulation of nutrient-rich deep water to ocean basins (Sarmiento *et al.*, 2004). The ecological and biogeochemical landscape of this ocean hub is driven by large-scale seasonal phytoplankton blooms (Sallée J-B *et al.*, 2015). Controls on the composition and spatio-temporal extent and of these blooms are multifaceted, including both oceanographic conditions and biotic factors (Boyd 2002). The roles of B-vitamins have been increasingly explored as important regulators of blooms globally (Panzeca *et al.*, 2008; Sañudo-Wilhelmy *et al.*, 2006; Gobler *et al.*, 2017; Koch *et al.*, 2011; Bertrand *et al.*, 2007; Browning *et al.*, 2017). In the SO, bottle incubation experiments have found vitamin B₁₂ to be limiting or colimiting to phytoplankton growth (Bertrand *et al.*, 2007; Taylor *et al.*, 2008; Bertrand *et al.*, 2015), suggesting that it plays a significant role as a regulator of primary productivity in the region. However, the individual molecular responses to B₁₂ deprivation and other relevant environmental variables in important SO species have not been explored in detail.

Vitamin B₁₂ (also known as cobalamin) is a cobalt-containing micronutrient found in the ocean in picomolar concentrations (Heal *et al.*, 2014; Suffridge *et al.*, 2017). It is only synthesized by select prokaryotes (Raux *et al.*, 2000) and tends to photodegrade upon exposure to UV light (Carlucci *et al.*, 1969). The cofactor is rapidly consumed by phytoplankton and bacteria in the surface ocean (Heal *et al.*, 2014). Vitamin B₁₂ and its related cobamides are primarily required by photosynthetic eukaryotes for participation in methylation reactions and radical rearrangements (Bertrand & Allen 2012). In methylation reactions, methylcobalamin is used to catalyze the conversion of homocysteine and methyl-

tetrahydrofolate into methionine, an essential amino acid and cellular source of methylation capacity, via the methionine synthase MetH. Additionally, some eukaryotes can also utilize an alternative methionine synthase, MetE, which is B₁₂-independent (Banerjee and Matthews 1990). The absence of genes encoding the MetE enzyme in algal genomes has been linked to B₁₂ auxotrophy, meaning that most organisms without the enzyme require the vitamin for survival (Helliwell *et al.*, 2011). MetE has a slower turnover rate than MetH, making it a more energetically costly and resource intensive method of methionine production (Banerjee and Matthews 1990; Bertrand *et al.*, 2013), which may be why MetE expression has been demonstrated to significantly decline in the presence of B₁₂ in organisms that possess both enzymes (Croft *et al.*, 2005; Bertrand *et al.*, 2012). One such organism, *Fragilariopsis cylindrus*, is a major component of sea ice and pelagic seasonal ice zone assemblages at both poles (Kang & Fryxell 1992; Mock & Hoch 2005). Along with many other SO diatoms, *F. cylindrus* possesses genes to produce both methionine synthase enzymes (Ellis *et al.*, 2017). The B₁₂ deprivation responses of *F. cylindrus* have been explored via transcriptomic observation of methionine synthases, demonstrating that MetE transcripts are enriched in the absence of B₁₂ (Ellis *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, genes for a cobalamin acquisition protein, CBA1, have also been identified in *F. cylindrus* (Bertrand *et al.*, 2012), but otherwise its responses to B₁₂ deprivation have gone largely unexplored, and no direct measurements of these B₁₂ deprivation proteins have been conducted to date in *F. cylindrus*.

Mass spectrometry-based proteomic approaches, applied to phytoplankton cultures, allow us to observe which proteins are enriched or depleted in response to a treatment, providing information about the production of enzymes and other proteins that mitigate the effects of

environmental stressors or respond to nutrient limitation. Experiments like these have been common for some time now, but they rarely examine the interactive effects of environmentally relevant factors. Multiple stressors can lead to unexpected responses, impacting an organism differently than the sum of their individual effects (Folt *et al.*, 1999). Whilst culture studies represent merely a simplification of an organisms' possible function in its environment, designing experiments that account for combined stressors provides the opportunity for a more complete understanding of organisms' responses to their dynamic environment.

In previous work examining interactions between B₁₂ availability and heat stress, Xie *et al.*, 2013 found that the green alga, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, was particularly sensitive to combined B₁₂ deprivation and increased temperature. *C. reinhardtii* was rescued from heat stress at lethal temperatures in the presence of B₁₂-producing bacteria, or upon the addition of both exogenous B₁₂ and methionine. This observation suggested that B₁₂ use may confer heat stress tolerance in *C. reinhardtii* because of MethH's possible enhanced resistance to high temperatures when compared to MetE (Xie *et al.*, 2013). The prevalence of B₁₂-mediated heat resistance in this green alga also implies that a reduction in methionine synthesis activity has negative consequences in the face of heat stress, suggesting that this reaction may serve as a metabolic bottleneck. Is it possible that methionine synthesis also acts as a bottleneck to growth at normally lethal temperatures in *F. cylindrus*?

To tackle this question, we examined the effects of elevated temperature on *F. cylindrus* and how their mechanisms may affect the methionine synthase pathway. An in-depth analysis of *F. cylindrus*' proteomic responses to elevated temperature has not been

completed, but the transcriptomic effects of heat stress have been explored in Mock *et al.*, 2017. Interestingly, Mock and colleagues found that the temperature response to 11 °C (described as an “elevated temperature treatment”) was much more subtle relative to the effects of darkness on the transcriptome. The molecular effects of supra-optimal temperatures in cold adapted organisms, also known as psychrophiles, are currently considered to reflect their cold-adapted states. There are two significant challenges to overcome for organisms to thrive in cold environments: decreased membrane fluidity and reduced reaction speeds (Feller 2013). Therefore, psychrophiles tend to upregulate proteins related to the synthesis of membrane components and osmolytes at cold temperatures (Collins & Margesin 2019). Psychrophiles are also known to modify their enzymes to increase specificity and binding or increase the quota of important proteins, such as those involved in photosynthesis and protein synthesis, in order to manage temperature-mediated decreases in reaction rates (Feller 2013). Increases in temperature past the temperature optima (T_{opt}) of an organism can lead to the reversal of these acclimations (Liang *et al.*, 2019). Given our lack of understanding related to how molecular responses to B₁₂ deprivation vary with important environmental variables such as temperature in psychrophiles, we designed an experiment to explore the interactive effects of B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature in *F. cylindrus*.

We conducted multifactorial culturing of *F. cylindrus*, depriving these cultures of B₁₂ and applying an elevated temperature treatment of 12 °C, the lowest temperature that proved to be lethal. These conditions were comparable to Xie *et al.*, 2013’s study design, chosen to allow us to investigate whether this psychrophile displays the same B₁₂-mediated heat stress response. It is important to note that we do not expect mean sea surface temperatures

in the SO to reach 12 °C in coming centuries. However, micro-environments like meltwater pools have been shown to create extreme temperature environments, leading to significant impacts for Antarctic microbes like *F. cylindrus* (Sackett *et al.* 2013). As such, these conditions can be considered extreme, but with environmental relevance. Twenty-four hours after exposure, we measured methionine synthase concentrations and conducted a global proteomic analysis. We hypothesized that the combined molecular effects of B₁₂ deprivation and heat stress in *F. cylindrus* would be synergistic rather than additive, leading to differences in protein expression in cultures exposed to both stressors not seen in cells treated with each stressor individually. Upon completion of the experiment, we found that the expression of the B₁₂-independent methionine synthase pathways in *F. cylindrus* persisted at lethal temperatures, unlike that of *C. reinhardtii*, where a decline in *metE* transcripts was observed (Xie *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, complex proteomic rearrangements occurred in response to the interactive effects of lethal temperatures and B₁₂ deprivation, contrasting the responses to each stressor individually. It is critical to build a baseline understanding of how temperature can interactively affect the molecular consequences of important environmental variables such as vitamin B₁₂ availability. Although no change in growth was observed in response to B₁₂ availability, changes in protein expression demonstrated that *F. cylindrus* adopts varying strategies to deal with the combined stressors.

2.3 Materials and Methods

2.3.1 Semicontinuous Culturing - Axenic cultures of *Fragilariopsis cylindrus* (strain CCMP1102) were obtained from the Provasoli-Guillard National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota. The cells were inoculated into 250 mL vent-capped culture flasks and

maintained with sterile techniques at 4 °C, with a saturating irradiance of approximately 100 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in a 12:12 hour light-dark cycle. 4 °C was chosen as a relevant control temperature for the pelagic Southern Ocean environment (Sackett *et al.*, 2013). Autoclaved SOW media (Sunda *et al.*, 2005; Price *et al.*, 1988/89) was used to prepare enriched f/2 medium (Guillard & Ryther 1962, Guillard 1975) to support the growth of the cultures. The linear relationship between fluorescence under our growth conditions and cell count was established with a Turner hand-held fluorometer and flow cytometer, respectively (Supporting Information Figure S2.1b,c). This preliminary culture was grown through exponential phase to determine which cell densities corresponded to early exponential growth (Supporting Information Figure S2.1a). Then, three biological replicates, both with and without the addition of 369 pM of vitamin B₁₂ in the form of cyanocobalamin, were maintained at 4 °C and transferred every 48 hours to keep them within the range of RFU (Relative Fluorescence Units) corresponding with late exponential growth (between 60 and 120 RFU). This was done for approximately 3 months, as similar amounts of time have been utilized to acclimatize *F. cylindrus* to experimental conditions in previous experiments (Mock & Hock 2005, Petrou *et al.*, 2012). During the experiment, cell counts were obtained with a BD Accuri C6 Flow Cytometer. The cultures were regularly monitored for bacterial contamination with microscopy and 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) stain.

After the acclimation period, each replicate was split in two and exposed to two temperature treatments at 0 hours (Figure 2.1). The control cultures were maintained at 4 °C, and the other half were exposed to the elevated temperature treatment of 12 °C. Subsequently, the cultures were sampled every 24 hours for a total of 72 hours. At each

time point, each culture's cell count was taken via flow cytometry and a measure of photosynthetic capacity, F_v/F_m , was measured with a PAM (Pulse Amplitude Modulated) fluorometer (DUAL-PAM-100; Heinz Walz GmbH) after a 20-minute dark acclimation period on ice. A secondary trial with a 10 °C elevated temperature treatment was also conducted to confirm that 12 °C is the lowest lethal temperature for *F. cylindrus* cells (Supporting Information Figure S2.2b). Targeted and global proteomic measurements (described below) were made on biomass from cultures vacuum filtered onto 2.0 µm isopore membrane filters (Millipore) after 24 hours of exposure to their respective temperature treatments and stored at -80 °C.

2.3.2 Sample Preparation for Proteomic Analyses – Protein was extracted from filters in 0.75 mL of protein extraction buffer (0.1 M Tris/HCl, pH: 7.5, 5mM EDTA, 2% SDS) for 10 minutes at room temperature and then heated on a thermomixer for 15 minutes at 95 °C and 350 RPM. Then, the filters were sonicated on ice for 1 minute at 50% amplitude (120 W, QSonica microprobe). They were then incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes, with vortexing every 10-15 minutes. The samples were centrifuged at 15,000XG for 30 minutes at 20 °C. The supernatant and debris-containing cell pellet were then separated. A Micro BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific) was used to determine protein concentration in the supernatant.

30 µg of protein was then digested with trypsin with an in-gel procedure modified from Kachuk *et al.*, 2015. The protein solution was polymerized by making up the sample with 10 mM Tris to 100 µL. Then, 100 µL of 1 M Tris Buffer, 40% Acryl-Bis, TEMED was added to each sample, followed by 7 µL 1% APS. The samples were then incubated for 1

hour at 20 °C. 200 µL of gel fixing solution (10% acetic acid and 50% methanol in LC-MS water) was added and the samples were incubated at 20 °C for 30 minutes. Then, 1.6 mL gel fixing solution was added, followed by another 20 °C incubation overnight. The supernatant was discarded and 1 mL of milliQ water was added, and the samples were incubated once again at 20 °C and 350 RPM for 20 minutes. The resulting supernatant was then discarded, and each gel was cut into 8-12 pieces with a sterile blade in a glass petri dish. The gel slices were reduced, alkylated, and washed (Supporting Information, Table S2.1). The gels were rehydrated in trypsin (1:20 µg trypsin:µg protein) and suspended in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate for 2 hours on ice. Then, they were incubated at 37 °C for 20 minutes and covered in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate and incubated for 16 hours at 37 °C. Following digestion, samples were resuspended and acidified with 3.5µl formic acid on ice and desalted using 50 mg Strata C18-E (55 µm, 70 Å) SPE columns (Phenomenex) to remove any primary amines and then brought to dryness in a vacuum centrifuge (Eppendorf).

2.3.3 Targeted Proteomic Analysis – A Dionex Ult 3000 UPLC integrated to a TSQ Quantiva mass spectrometer was used for targeted proteomic analysis. This instrument was equipped with a heated, low flow capillary ESI probe (HES-II). Settings were as follows: spray voltage 35000 V, sheath gas 0.5, auxillary gas 0.2, ion transition tube temperature of 325 °C, vapor gas to 70 °C. Chrom filter was set to 10 seconds. Stock solutions of heavy isotope labelled standards for MetE and MetH peptides were prepared in acetic acid, acetonitrile, and HPLC-grade water and added to each sample in concentrations to give 20 and 40 femtomoles of each peptide on column after injection (Bertrand *et al.*, 2013). 0.3

μg of total protein was injected onto the column. Peak areas and retention times were exported to and processed with Skyline. The details of peptides analyzed can be found in Supporting Information, Table S2.2.

2.3.4 Global Proteomic Analysis via Tandem Mass Tagging (TMT) – The procedure for labeling and fractionating protein samples for TMT is adapted from Wu *et al.*, 2019. The digested protein samples were resuspended in 50 mM HEPES (pH 8.5) to give a protein concentration of $0.5 \mu\text{g } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$. A pool, which was used in internal reference channels, was made by combining 10 μL aliquots from each sample (one pool for each TMT experiment). 44 μL of each resuspended sample was transferred to 2 mL tubes. Samples were labeled with TMT10plex™ Isobaric Label Reagent Set (Thermo Scientific). The 0.8 mg TMT reagents were suspended in 41 μL of anhydrous acetonitrile and 16 μL of this TMT reagent mixture was added to each sample or pool. A table with sample and pool matrixes for labeling can be found in Table S2.3. The samples were briefly vortexed and centrifuged, followed by a 1-hour incubation at room temperature. The labelling reaction was quenched with 2 μL 5% NH_4OH and the samples were stored at -80°C until fractionation with a high pH C18 chromatography using an Onyx C18 100 x 4.6 mm column. A 30-minute linear gradient from 5% to 30% solvent B at a flow rate of 1 mL per minute (solvent A: 95% water, 5% acetonitrile, 10 mM ammonium formate pH 9; solvent B: 95% acetonitrile, 5% water, 10 mM ammonium formate pH 9) was applied during fractionation. 60 x 0.6 mL fractions were collected and concatenated (e.g. 1, 11, 21, 31, 41, 51) to give 10 fractions for each TMT set. Fractions were brought to dryness by vacuum centrifuge and re-suspended in 50 μl 0.5% formic acid, 3% acetonitrile.

A Dionex Ultimate 3000 UHPLC (Thermo-Scientific, San Jose, CA) interfaced to the Thermo nanosource of an Orbitrap Velos Pro (Thermo Scientific) was used to conduct Nanoflow LC-MS/MS on the TMT set fractions in duplicate. Assuming 50% recovery after digestion, 4 μL 0.75 $\mu\text{g } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$ aliquots were injected to give 3 μg of protein on the column (30 cm x 0.075 mm ID, Proteo C18, 4 μm , 90 \AA column, self-packed in a Picofrit fused silica nanospray emitter (New Objective, Woburn, MA)). Flow rate was 0.3 $\mu\text{L}/\text{minute}$ during loading and equilibration and 0.25 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ during sample elution. 2 hour runs with a gradient of 5% to 25% acetonitrile (0.1% formic acid) over 46 minutes and then 25% to 55% acetonitrile over 25 minutes followed by 7 minutes at 95% acetonitrile were conducted. A lock mass of 445.12003 m/z was used for internal mass calibration. The ion spray voltage was set to 1.6 kV and capillary temperature was 275 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Advanced gain control targets were 1e6, 5e4, and 1e4 for Orbitrap full MS, MS_n scans and ion trap MS_n scans, respectively. For each MS event with injection time of up to 250 and 150 ms for Orbitrap and ion trap MS_n respectively, a single microscan was performed. MS₁ scan range was 300-2000 m/z at a resolution of 30,000. From this selection, the 10 precursors with the highest intensity were selected for MS₂ scans via collision induced dissociation with 35% normalized collision energy and a precursor isolation window of 2 m/z . Only peptides with charge states of 2+ to 5+ and at least a 3e4 MS₁ intensity were eligible for MS₂. The highest-intensity ion from MS₂ was selected for high-energy collision dissociation at 65% normalized collision energy and resolution of 15,000.

2.3.5 TMT Data Analysis – Mass spectrometry data was processed with Proteome Discoverer v2.1 to conduct a database search for all samples. The database was comprised

of a protein coding model generated from a *F. cylindrus* genome assembly downloaded from NCBI and supplemented with chloroplast sequences (also from NCBI) along with a database of common protein contaminants (cRAP) downloaded on June 11, 2021. Precursor and fragment ion mass tolerances were set to 15 ppm and 0.8 Da, respectively. Full trypsin enzyme specificity allowed for two missed cleavages. Both fixed and variable modifications were accounted for. Fixed modifications included peptide N-terminus and Lys TMT10plex (+229.163 Da) and carbamidomethyl cysteine (+57.021 Da). The variable modifications were Methionine oxidation, N-Terminal Glutamine to pyro-Glutamate, and N-terminal protein Methionine-loss and Acetylation. A false discovery rate (FDR) of 1% was estimated using decoy database searches and validated using Percolator with a delta Cn of 0.05 (Käll *et al.*, 2007). Peptides with a co-isolation of more than 40% were excluded from quantification. Reporter ion integration mass tolerance was set to 0.003 Da. For protein quantification, the mean of all unique peptides matching to a given protein plus the shared peptides allocated according to Occam's Razor was calculated. Abundance values were reported as signal to noise ratios.

The data was normalized with IRS (internal reference scaling) after contaminants identified from cRAP database were removed. The IRS normalization pipeline, adapted from the methods modified from Plubell *et al.*, 2017 by Wu *et al.*, 2019 for a similar dataset, is available at <https://github.com/bertrand-lab/phaeo-mn-fe>. For this normalization procedure, a protein must be observed in all TMT channels. Empty channels for a protein in the dataset were imputed as half of the minimum value for the protein in question. If a protein contained missing values for more than half of the samples, it was excluded from quantification (Webb-Robertson *et al.*, 2015). Two samples were removed from the

analysis as their removal yielded a 174% increase in the number of proteins that were able to be quantified (Supporting Information, Table S2.4). Results from each step of the normalization procedure can be seen in Supporting Information Figure S2.3. A principal component analysis was used to visualize the relationships between sample treatments (Supporting Information Figure S2.4). Normalized values were then used to determine differential protein expression using empirical Bayes quasi-likelihood F-tests via the `glmQLFTest` function in `edgeR`. To determine how protein expression in different treatments varied from the control (4 °C, +B₁₂), three pairwise comparisons were made. These yielded information about (1) responses to B₁₂ deprivation (control vs. 4 °C, - B₁₂) (2) elevated temperature response (control vs. 12 °C, + B₁₂), and (3) the interaction between the two stressors (control vs. 12 °C, - B₁₂). Proteins were considered differentially expressed with a p-value < 0.05. NCBI protein accession numbers for differentially expressed proteins were matched to functional assignments from the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database (Kanehisa *et al.*, 2016) using the KEGGREST API. Henceforth, proteins ID's refer to JGI protein ID's.

2.4 Results

2.4.1 Growth Parameters – After approximately 3 months of semicontinuous dilutions, the *F. cylindrus* cultures were determined to be acclimated. Mean growth rate (d⁻¹) over the last 10 dilutions before the cultures were exposed to temperature treatments were not significantly different (Table 2.1; student's t-test; p = 0.20).

Table 2.1: Mean growth rates (μ ; d^{-1}) of the last 10 dilutions of *F. cylindrus* cultures before temperature treatment. Growth rates were computed from RFU measured every two days (pre-and post-dilution), which serves as a proxy for cell density (Supporting Information Fig. S2.1c). $\mu = \ln(N_t/N_0)/\Delta t$

B₁₂ Treatment	μ (d^{-1})	St. Dev.
+B ₁₂	0.20	0.07
-B ₁₂	0.20	0.06

F. cylindrus cell abundance was observed over a 72-hour period after upshift to the lethal temperature (12 °C) from the control temperature (4 °C). Cell density declined significantly after 24 hours of exposure to the 12 °C treatment (student's t-test; $p < 0.001$; Figure 2.1a). The F_v/F_m of the lethal temperature treatments decreased significantly after 24 hours (student's t-test; $p < 0.001$; Figure 2.1b).

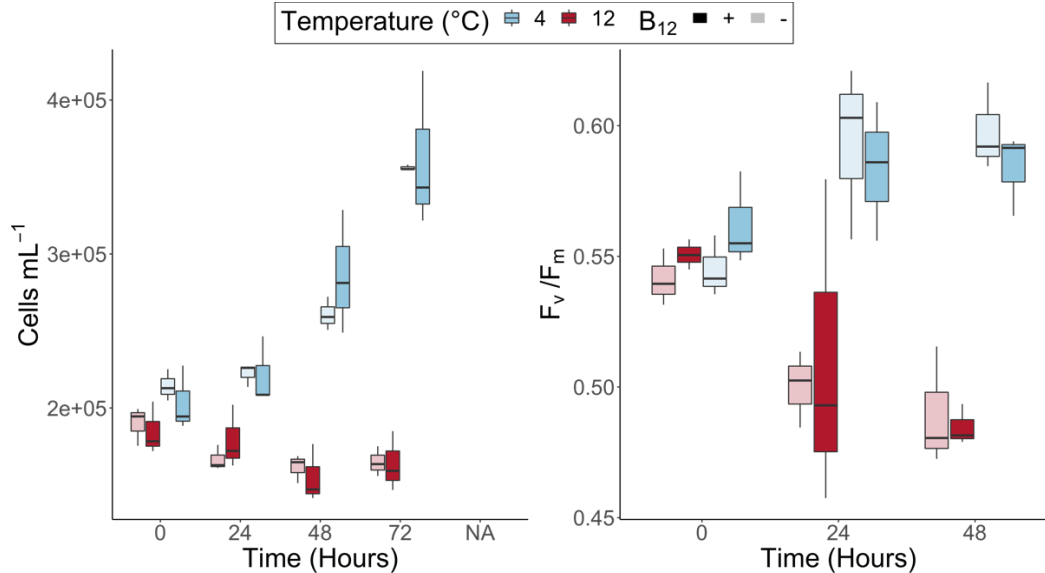


Figure 2.1: Cell densities and photosynthetic efficiency responses over time of *F. cylindrus* to change in temperature. **a)** Boxplot of *F. cylindrus* cell densities, measured with flow cytometry, over time after exposure to control (4 °C) and elevated (12 °C) temperature treatments at 0 hours, and with and without the addition of vitamin B₁₂ to the culture medium (n=3 for each treatment). Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values. Blue boxes represent 4° C treatments and red boxes represent 12 °C treatments. Color saturation represents B₁₂ treatment, with saturated boxes representing B₁₂-replete treatments and translucent boxes representing B₁₂-deplete treatments. Cell number at 24 hours was significantly different between temperatures. A t-test for difference of means at 24 hours was conducted, showing a significant decline in cell number between the 4 and 12 °C treatment ($p < 0.001$). **b)** Boxplots with the same scheme showing change in F_v/F_m in *F. cylindrus* after exposure to the control and elevated temperature treatments. Data from each biological replicate represents the 2 technical measurements.

2.4.2 Methionine Synthase Concentrations – 24 hours after exposure to temperature treatment, protein per cell was significantly higher in the elevated temperature treatments (Figure 2.2a; student’s t-test; $p < 0.01$) and did not vary with B₁₂ treatment. Peptide markers for MetH and MetE methionine synthases were quantified in *F. cylindrus* cultures (Figure 2.2b,c). MetH quotas were comparatively low and remained constant with B₁₂ and temperature treatments (Figure 2.2b). In contrast, MetE peptide content increased starkly

in cultures provided deprived of exogenous B₁₂ ($p < .001$; Figure 2.2c). There was no significant impact of temperature on MetE per cell (Figure 2.2c).

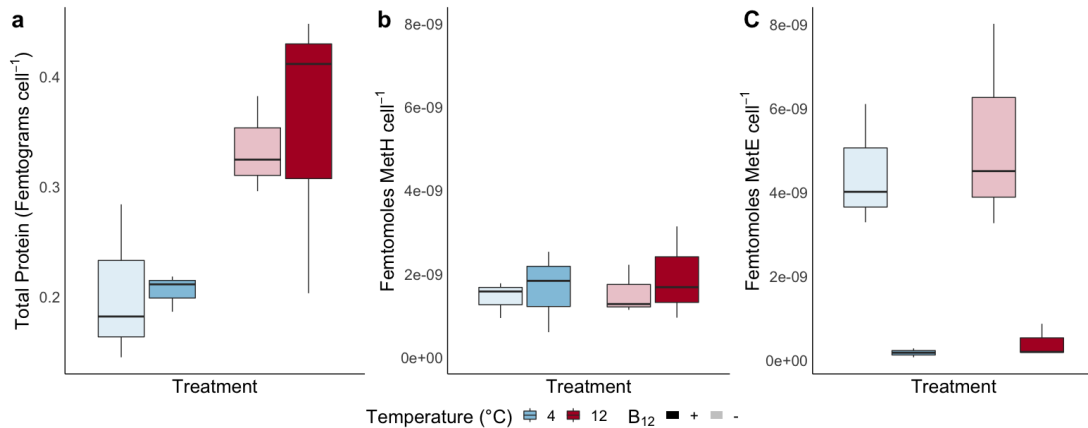


Figure 2.2: Protein measurements from *F. cylindrus* cultures 24 hours after exposure to control (4 °C) and elevated (12 °C) temperature treatments, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. **a)** Total protein (femtograms cell⁻¹) **b)** Femtomoles of diagnostic MetH peptide (KJ866915.1) cell⁻¹ and **c)** Femtomoles of diagnostic MetE peptide (KJ866917.1) cell⁻¹. Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment and duplicate injections. Blue boxes represent 4 °C treatments and red boxes represent 12 °C treatments. Color saturation represents B₁₂ treatment, with translucent boxes representing B₁₂-deplete and saturated boxes representing B₁₂-replete treatments.

2.4.3 Proteomic Discovery Experiment – A Tandem Mass Tagging (TMT) discovery experiment was conducted with biomass from control and lethal temperatures after 24 hours of exposure. 3,004 proteins were initially detected from 18,349 predicted from the genome. After normalization and imputation steps, 1,357 protein expression profiles were quantified. A differential expression analysis was conducted by making three pairwise comparisons to determine how protein expression in different treatments varied from the control (4 °C, +B₁₂). These yielded information about (1) responses to B₁₂ deprivation (control vs. 4 °C, - B₁₂) (2) elevated temperature response (control vs. 12 °C, + B₁₂), and (3) the interaction between the two stressors (control vs. 12 °C, - B₁₂). The results of this differential expression analysis showed that 96 (7%) of the proteins that were quantified

were differentially expressed in response to B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature (including the interactive effects of the two stressors) compared to control (Figure 2.3). The highest number of proteins were differentially expressed in response to the interactive effects of B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature (197), followed by elevated temperature (50) and B₁₂ deprivation alone (25; Figure 2.3).

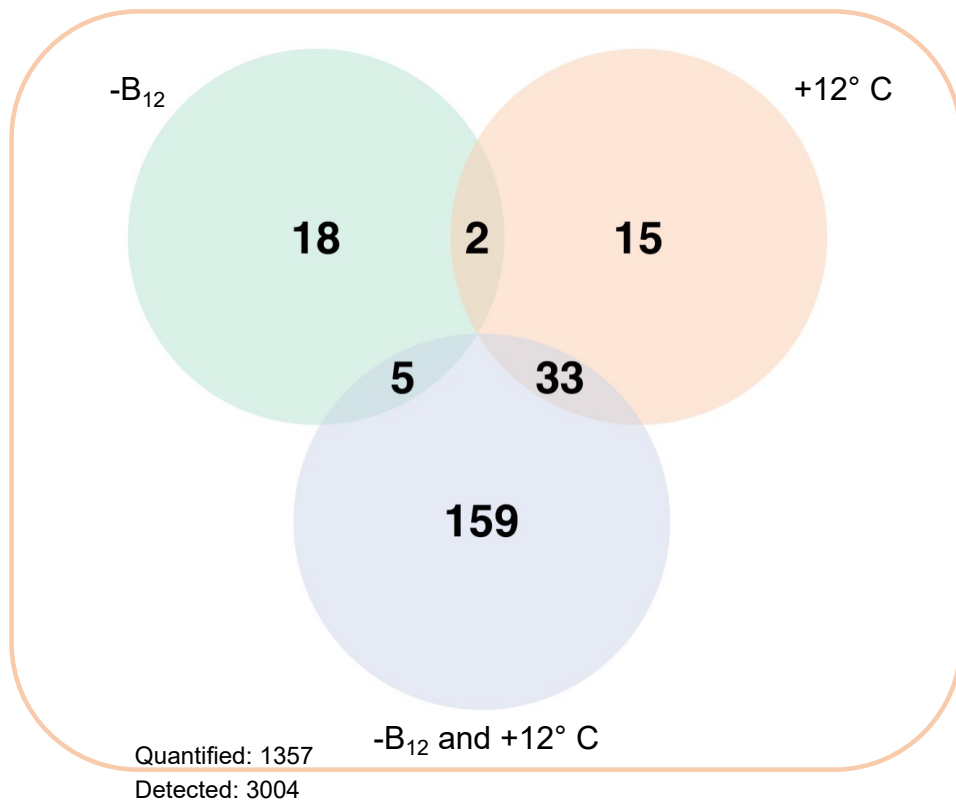


Figure 2.3: Venn Diagram of the number differentially expressed proteins in *F. cylindrus* compared to the control treatment (4 °C, + B₁₂) in samples harvested 24 hours after temperature treatment. 3004 proteins were initially detected and 1,357 were quantified. Each circle shows the number of quantified proteins found to be differentially expressed via a Bayes quasi-likelihood F-test conducted in edgeR with a corrected p-value < 0.05. Three pairwise comparisons were made: the response to B₁₂ deprivation (green; control vs. 4° C, -B₁₂); the response to elevated temperature treatment (pink; control vs. 12° C, + B₁₂); and the response between the two stressors (purple; control vs. 12° C, -B₁₂).

The functional assignments of differentially expressed proteins that had annotations available in the KEGG database can be seen in Figure 2.4. The B₁₂ response appears to be characterized by proteins associated with the Transport and Catabolism, Carbohydrate Metabolism, and Genetic Information processing. The elevated temperature response was associated with Transport and Catabolism and Genetic Information Processing, in addition to Cofactor and Vitamin metabolism. Many more proteins annotated as associated with Genetic Information Processing were differentially expressed in response to both B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature, with a large portion belonging to the Translation category. There were also many more Carbohydrate and Energy Metabolism-associated proteins, as well as signal transduction proteins: nearly 4 times more than in either other comparison.

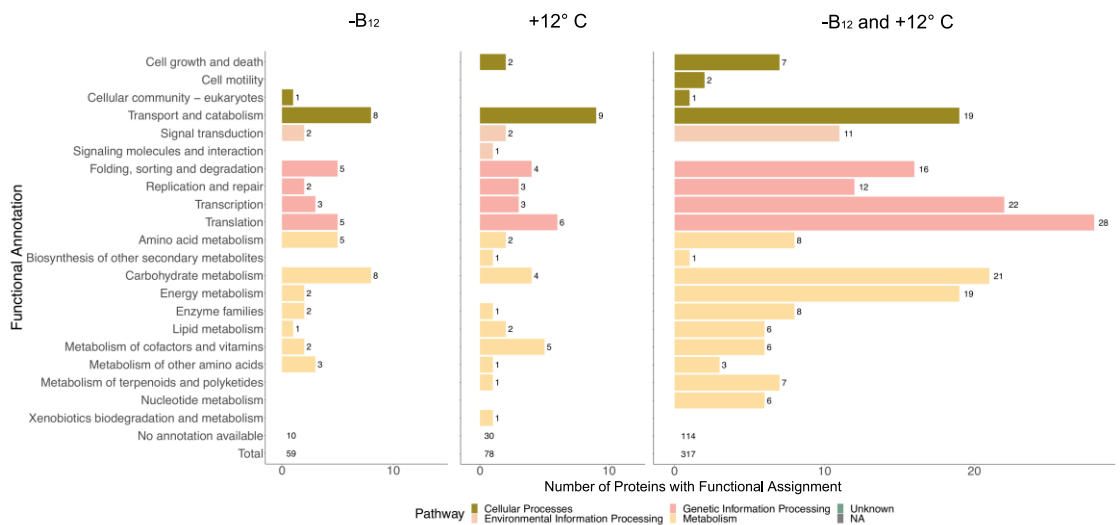


Figure 2.4: Total functional assignments for differentially expressed ($p < 0.05$) proteins that have available KEGG annotations for the 3 pairwise comparisons, representing proteins that are differentially expressed in response to B₁₂ deprivation, elevated temperature, and the combined effects of B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature. Color represents KEGG level A annotations, with KEGG level B annotations along the left side. A single protein may have multiple assignments.

Figure 2.5 shows a heatmap of significantly differentially expressed proteins with a \log_2 mean abundance greater than 10.5 from all three pairwise comparisons. Hierarchical clustering was used to group proteins by expression pattern. 53% of proteins had no annotation available. Most of the visualized proteins can be attributed to the interaction between B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature (Fig. 2.5).

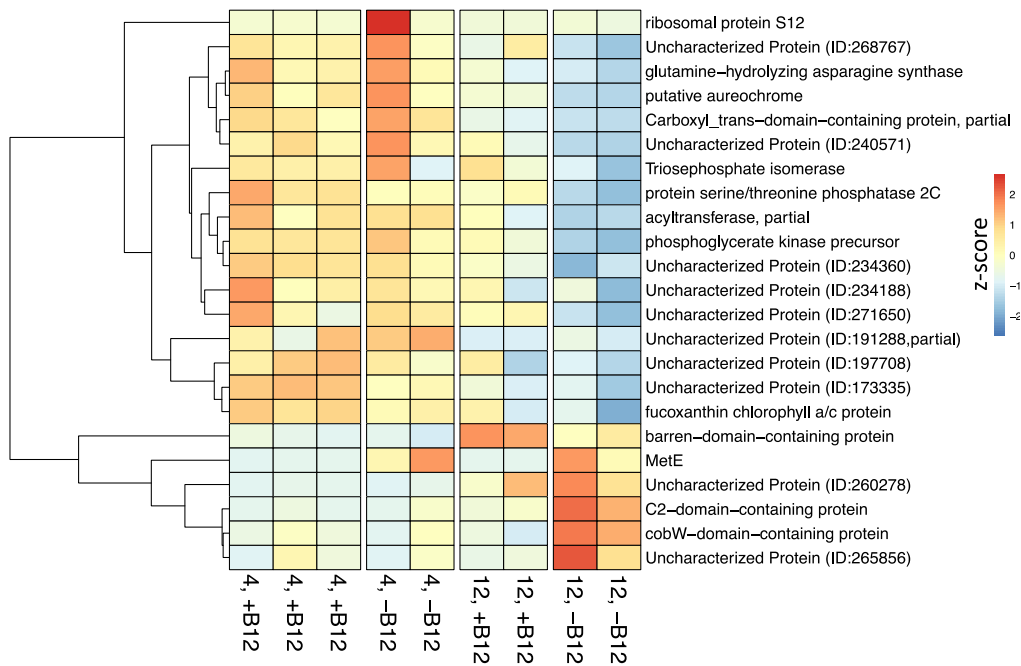


Figure 2.5: Heatmap of differentially expressed proteins from TMT experiment in *F. cylindrus* with a \log_2 mean abundance more than 10.5 and $p < 0.01$ from any pairwise comparisons between the control (4° C, +B₁₂) representing the response to B₁₂ deprivation (control vs. 4° C, -B₁₂); the response to elevated temperature treatment (control vs. 12° C, + B₁₂); and the response between the two stressors (control vs. 12° C, -B₁₂). Each row is one protein, and each column is one biological replicate. Dendrograms represent hierarchical clustering by protein from Pearson’s correlation with average linkage. Columns are ordered by treatment. The cell colors are based on mean-scaled z-score, with blue representing a protein with decreased expression and red an increased expression compared to the mean. $n = 2$ for three treatments the due to removal after normalization (12° C, + B₁₂, 12° C, - B₁₂; Supporting Information, Table S2.3) and failure to process due to a labeling error (4° C, -B₁₂).

2.4.4 Proteomic Responses to B₁₂ Deprivation – A heatmap of the seven proteins differentially expressed at $p < .01$ in response to B₁₂ deprivation can be seen in Figure 2.6.

A full list of proteins differentially expressed in response to B₁₂ deprivation can be seen in

Supporting Information, Table S2.5, along associated with p-values and fold changes. All proteins differentially expressed with a significance threshold of $p < 0.01$ were enriched in the B₁₂-depleted cultures. This prominently included B₁₂-independent methionine synthase (MetE; ID: 228154), a cobalamin acquisition protein (CBA1; ID: 246327), and a P-ATPase (ID: 168079) associated with transmembrane activity. A cytosolic chaperone, T-complex protein 1 subunit gamma (195967) was also found to be upregulated. Additionally, a P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase protein (ID: 274747), and ribosomal protein S12 (ID: 271288) were upregulated, but this trend was not consistent between replicates.

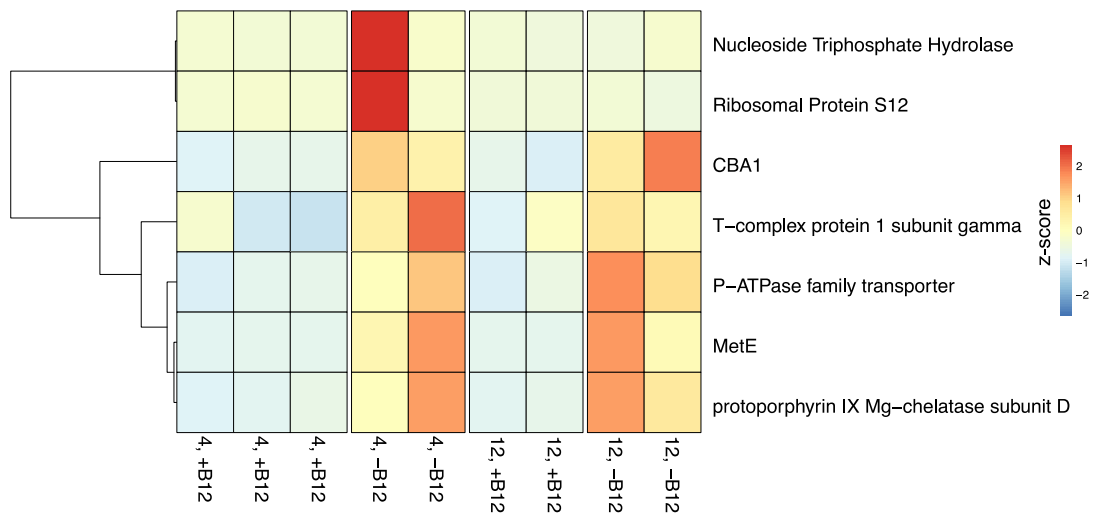


Figure 2.6: Heatmap of differentially expressed proteins from TMT experiment in *F. cylindrus* representing the response to B₁₂ deprivation (control vs. 4° C, -B₁₂). Each row shows a proteins found to be differentially expressed via a Bayes quasi-likelihood F-test conducted in edgeR with a corrected p-value < 0.01 . Each column represents the protein expression of one biological replicate. Dendrograms represent hierarchical clustering by protein from Pearson’s correlation with average linkage. Columns are ordered by treatment. The cell colors are based on mean-scaled z-score, with blue representing a protein with decreased expression and red an increased expression compared to the mean.

Other proteins of interest differentially expressed with a significance threshold of $p < 0.05$ included two additional proteins associated with the methionine cycle: cytosolic serine

hydroxymethyltransferase (cSHMT; ID: 277738), which was found to be upregulated and methionine gamma lyase (ID: 259901), which was downregulated in response to B₁₂ deprivation. A suite of proteins annotated as participating in heme biosynthesis were also among the differentially expressed proteins. Protein 247844, which is annotated as protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase subunit D (ChlD2-H) in NCBI was upregulated in the absence of B₁₂, whilst porphobilinogen synthase (ID: 218256) was downregulated. Furthermore, phosphofructokinase (ID: 263182), belonging to the glycolytic pathway, was upregulated as well, in addition to a putative blue light sensing auerochrome (ID: 260397). Additionally, acetate CoA ligase (ID: 239808), which is known to be involved in fatty acid biosynthesis was downregulated.

2.4.5 Proteomic Responses to Elevated Temperatures – A heatmap of the twenty proteins differentially expressed in response to the 12° C treatment with $p < 0.01$ is shown in Figure 2.7. A full list of proteins differentially expressed in response to the elevated temperature treatment can be seen in Supporting Information, Table S2.6, along associated with p-values and fold changes. Many of the proteins involved in responses to temperature were identified as putatively related to protein synthesis and included ribosomal biosynthesis proteins in addition to ribosomes themselves. For example, 60S ribosomal protein L24 (ID: 268718), the GTP-binding protein EngA (ID: 196010), a DEAD-domain containing protein (ID: 183391), and an unidentified protein which has similarities to RNA polymerase II (ID: 275154) were all downregulated.

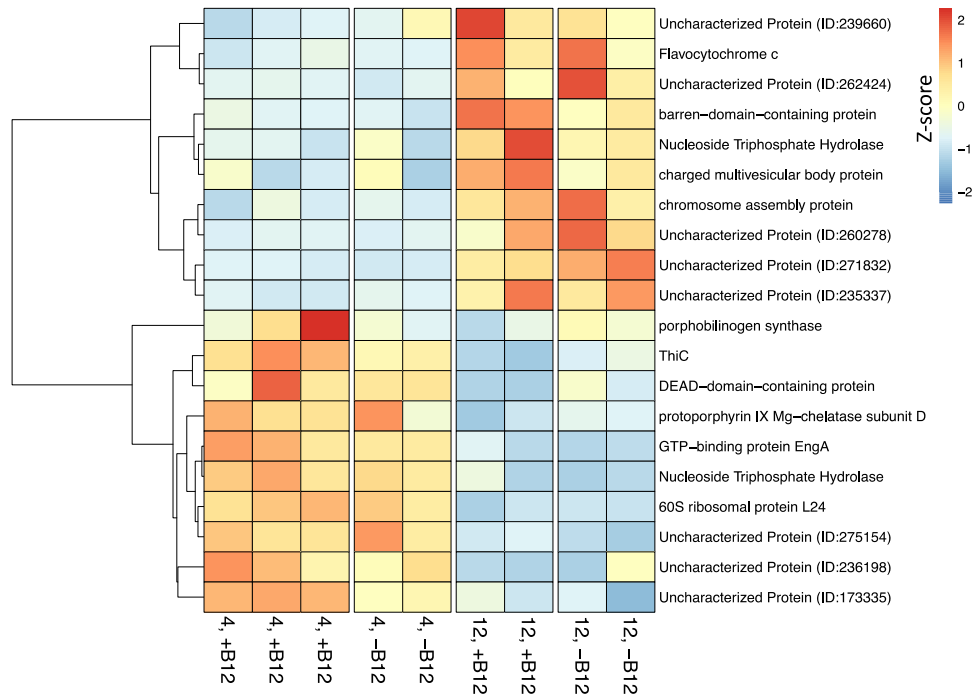


Figure 2.7: Heatmap of differentially expressed proteins from TMT experiment in *F. cylindrus* representing the response to elevated temperature (control vs. 12° C, +B₁₂). Each row shows a protein found to be differentially expressed via a Bayes quasi-likelihood F-test conducted in edgeR with a corrected p-value < 0.01. Each column represents the protein expression of one biological replicate. Dendrograms represent hierarchical clustering by protein from Pearson’s correlation with average linkage. Columns are ordered by treatment. The cell colors are based on mean-scaled z-score, with blue representing a protein with decreased expression and red an increased expression compared to the mean.

Proteins related to genetic information processing were broadly affected by temperature. 3 P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase proteins (ID’s: 208780, 205573, 182871), which are known to export peptides across membranes but also can be involved in translation and DNA repair, were found to be both up and downregulated. Furthermore, proteins associated with the condensin complex, which is involved in chromosome assembly, were also observed to be upregulated (ID’s: 233571 and 210755). Additionally, the alpha subunit of ribonucleotide reductase (RNR; ID: 205957) was downregulated with high temperatures. The thiamine biosynthesis protein ThiC was also downregulated under

high temperatures, in addition to Methionine sulfoxide reductase B (ID: 274188), which is known to be a cold response protein in *Arabidopsis* (Dos Santos *et al.*, 2005).

As in the B₁₂ treatment, proteins related to tetrapyrrole biosynthesis were also differentially expressed. However, all tetrapyrrole synthesis proteins differentially expressed in the temperature treatment were downregulated in response to the elevated temperature treatment. A protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase subunit D (ID: 170289), different from the sequence which was upregulated in response to the B₁₂ deprivation treatment, was downregulated in response to the 12° C treatment, in addition to porphobilinogen synthase (ID: 218256), and uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase (ID: 268500). The most significantly differentially expressed protein was an unknown possibly cytoskeletal protein (ID: 271832) labeled as “projectin/twitchin-related” that was upregulated at high temperatures. A BLAST search of this protein yields no similar sequences in other organisms. There were 3 other proteins differentially expressed at p < 0.01 (ID’s: 262424, 236198, 173335) that yielded a similar lack of information.

2.4.6 Interactive Proteomic Responses to Elevated Temperatures and B₁₂ Deprivation –

A heatmap of proteins differentially expressed in response to the combined elevated temperature and B₁₂ deprivation treatments can be seen in Figure 2.8. A full list of proteins differentially expressed in response to the combined stressors can be seen in Supporting Information Table S2.7, along with associated with p-values and fold changes. The interaction response shares several proteins with the canonical B₁₂ (ex: cSHMT, MetE, CBA1, P-ATPase, casein kinase delta, Mg-chelatase subunit D (ID: 247844)) and temperature (including several ribosomal and genetic information processing proteins, a Mg-chelatase subunit D (ID:170289), ThiC, and others) responses,

leaving 69 proteins unique to the treatment. The unique proteins made up 71% of all differentially expressed proteins from all treatments at $p < 0.01$. Among these unique proteins, there were additional tetrapyrrole synthesis proteins such as a partial uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase (ID: 216482) and a chloroplastic protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase (ID: 1773362895). A CobW-domain containing protein (ID: 274493) was upregulated as well.

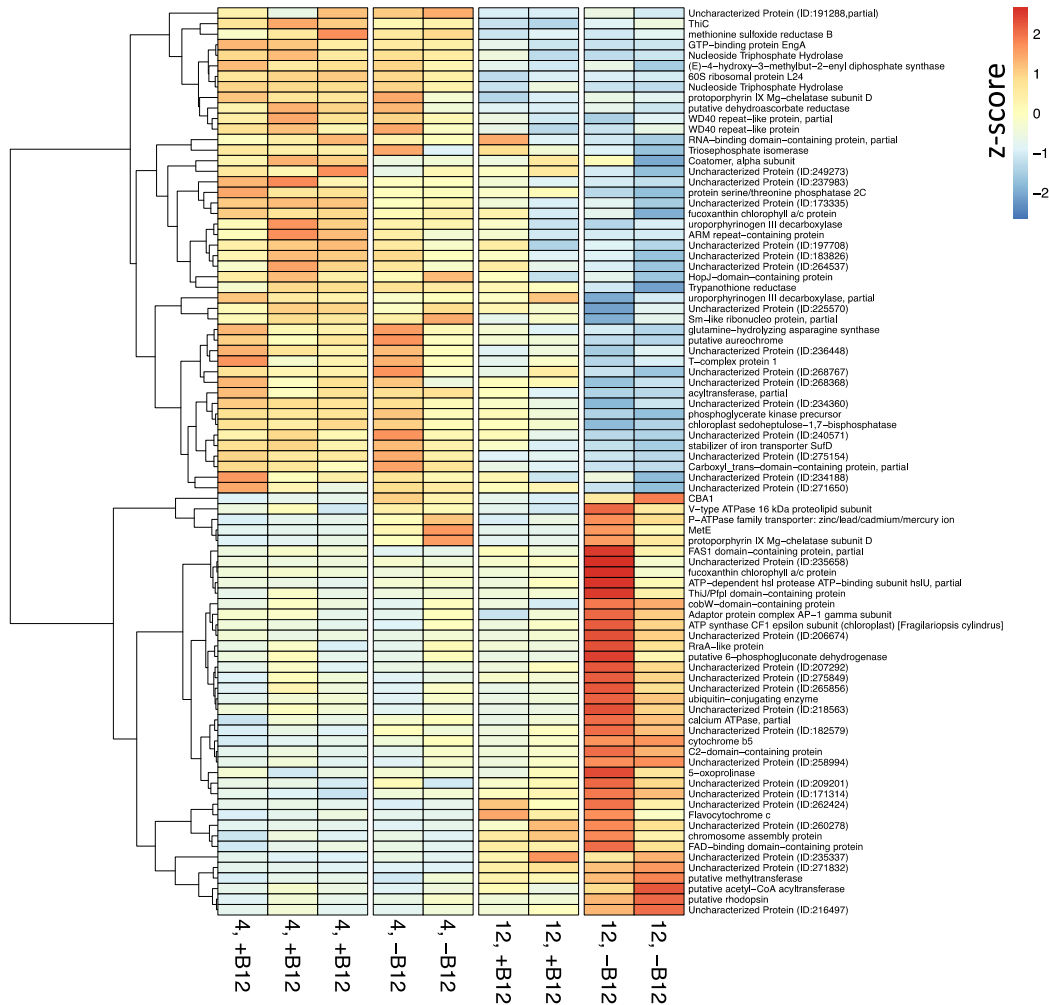


Figure 2.8: Heatmap of differentially expressed proteins from TMT experiment in *F. cylindrus* representing the interactive response to B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature (control vs. 12° C, -B₁₂). Each row shows a protein found to be differentially expressed via a Bayes quasi-likelihood F-test conducted in edgeR with a corrected p-value < 0.01. Each column represents the protein expression of one biological replicate. Dendrograms represent hierarchical clustering by protein from Pearson's correlation with average linkage. Columns are ordered by treatment. The cell colors are based on mean-scaled z-score, with blue representing a protein with decreased expression and red an increased expression compared to the mean.

Plots of the relationship between mean abundance and fold change of the differentially expressed proteins in the three comparisons can be seen in Figure 2.9. The individual responses to B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature are small (Figure 2.9a,b) compared to the response to the combined stressors, in which an increased number of proteins show high abundance and significant fold changes. It appeared that many proteins differentially

expressed in response to the combination of these external stressors displayed an apparent relationship between fold change and abundance, with larger fold changes corresponding to decreased abundance (Figure 2.9c). A few proteins do not adhere to this relationship, including MetE, an uncharacterized protein (ID: 271832), CBA1, EngA, and a nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase. An additional protein (ID: 182880) is also an outlier, but this trend is not reproduced amongst replicates (Figure 2.9c).

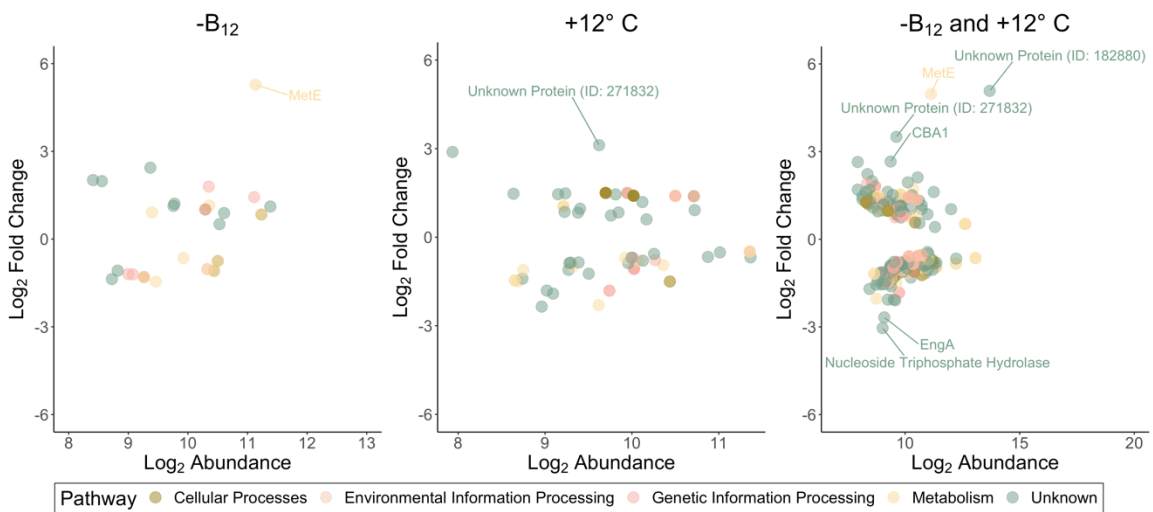


Figure 2.9: \log_2 mean abundance and \log_2 fold change of proteins differentially expressed in response to **a)** B_{12} deprivation **b)** elevated temperature **c)** combined B_{12} deprivation and elevated temperature ($p < 0.05$) in *F. cylindrus*. Colors represent KEGG functional assignment. Proteins with an absolute \log_2 fold change and \log_2 mean abundance more than 2.5 and 8, respectively, are labelled.

2.5 Discussion

This study suggests that the combined effects of B₁₂ deprivation and temperature on the proteome of *F. cylindrus* are synergistic rather than additive, leading to differences in protein expression in cultures exposed to both stressors not seen in cells treated with each stressor individually. While we found that growth decreased at supra-optimal temperatures, regardless of B₁₂ availability, complex proteomic rearrangements were observed in response to the combined stressors. Amongst these rearrangements, we identify a host of interactively enriched uncharacterized proteins, including proteins that may be used to remodel B₁₂.

2.5.1 B₁₂-Mediated Heat Resistance – We expected that the presence of exogenous B₁₂ would rescue *F. cylindrus* from heat stress. After exposure to the lethal temperature treatment, cells experienced markers of heat stress, such as cell number decline and decreased photosynthetic capacity (Figure 2.1a,b), regardless of the addition of exogenous B₁₂ to the culture medium, in contrast to results from Xie *et al.*, 2013 in *C. reinhardtii*. Therefore, our results provide evidence against the existence of B₁₂-mediated heat resistance in *F. cylindrus*. In the absence of B₁₂, Xie *et al.*, 2013 found that *metE* transcripts decreased in *C. reinhardtii* in response to increased temperatures, likely leading to decreased methylation capacity and declines in cell density. In contrast, we found no significant impact on MetE due to temperature, suggesting that the enzyme persists even at lethal temperatures, in *F. cylindrus* (Fig. 2.2b & c).

Diatoms are known to dominate in dynamic, post succession environments, demonstrating high phenotypic plasticity (Cox 2014; Sackett *et al.*, 2013). Evidence suggests that SO diatoms like *F. cylindrus* depend heavily on the use of MetE, as cobalamin is often in short

supply (Ellis *et al.*, 2017; Bertrand *et al.*, 2015). Notably, a higher proportion of SO diatoms possess the ability to utilize the B₁₂-independent methionine synthase pathway via MetE than others globally (Ellis *et al.*, 2017). Although the reasons behind why *F. cylindrus* is able to maintain the production of MetE at supra-optimal temperatures whilst *C. reinhardtii* is not remain unclear, this may be further evidence of these diatom's resilience to the SO's harsh conditions, including periodic B₁₂ limitation and heat stress.

2.5.2 Proteomic Responses to B₁₂ Deprivation – Bertrand *et al.* 2012 describes three strategies taken by diatoms to manage the effects of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation. They include efforts to (1) increase cobalamin acquisition capacity (2) decrease cobalamin demand and (3) manage their decreased methionine synthesis ability. The proteomic responses to B₁₂ deprivation observed in *F. cylindrus* by this study include these strategies, in addition to additional changes not previously identified in diatoms.

Cobalamin Acquisition: Uptake and Remodelling – Proteins which may be used to increase cobalamin acquisition, included increased expression of a cobalamin acquisition protein, in addition to possible remodelling activity. The cobalamin acquisition protein CBA1 was upregulated in response to B₁₂ deprivation (Figure 2.10). Transcripts encoding CBA1 (cobalamin acquisition protein 1), were first identified in Bertrand *et al.* 2012 in diatoms from a variety of marine environments. Although the exact mechanism of CBA1 function remains unclear, its differential expression in this study provides additional evidence of its role in cobalamin uptake in diatoms.

We hypothesize that a protein detected here may be acting as a previously undescribed part of a B₁₂ remodelling or scavenging response by activating the lower ligand of partial

cobalamin molecules, as described below (Fig. 2.10). Some B₁₂ remodellers, including some diatoms, can transform cobalamin-related compounds into cobalamin by altering the lower ligand. Helliwell and colleagues found that 2 of 8 tested alga were able to produce cobalamin when provided with pseudocobalamin and cobalamin's lower ligand, DMB (5, 6-di-methylbenzimidazole) and that this ability was removed in CobT mutants (Helliwell *et al.*, 2016). The remodeling capabilities of *F. cylindrus* have, to date, not been examined. In this study, Protein 247844, which is annotated in the JGI database as Chl-D (Mg-chelatase subunit D), was upregulated in response to B₁₂ deprivation. We will henceforth refer to this protein as a B₁₂-dependent Chl-D. The small, large, and small subunits of Mg-chelatase are hypothesized to have common evolutionary origins with corresponding subunits of the Co-chelatase enzyme (Fodje *et al.*, 2001). In particular, both Mg-chelatase and Co-chelatase share an integrin I domain and an acidic and proline-rich region (Fodje *et al.*, 2001). The Co-chelatase subunits CobT, CobS, and CobN are associated with cobalamin remodeling and are thought to be involved in DMB synthesis and activation in bacteria (Yi *et al.* 2012). There is evidence that some organisms may utilize a chimeric Co-Chelatase, using Chl-D in the place of CobT (Rodionov *et al.*, 2003). The length of the B₁₂-dependent Chl-D in *F. cylindrus* is very similar to other Mg-Chelatase subunits in bacteria and archaea (Antonov 2021) and conducting a BLAST search shows that it's closest annotated match is a *Blastochloris* sp. Chld-D (Mg-chelatase subunit D). Other close matches are a number of putative cobalt chelatses in a variety of other organisms. It is possible that *F. cylindrus* is using the B₁₂-dependent Chl-D as part of a chimeric Co-chelatase protein to activate DMB for use in remodeling cobalamin-related molecules in response to B₁₂ deprivation. We have yet to examine whether *F. cylindrus* is able to

scavenge degraded B₁₂ molecules or pseudocobalamin for use as cobalamin when provided with DMB. However, the expression patterns of this protein warrant further investigation into *F. cylindrus*' possible role as an algal cobalamin remodeler. While the original work examining cobalamin-related compound remodeling focused on pseudocobalamin, pseudocobalamin is not expected to be as common in the SO as in other ocean regions due to small cyanobacterial populations (Bertrand *et al.*, 2011). The majority of B₁₂ producers in the SO, for example Thaumarchaeota and gamma proteobacteria, produce cobalamin rather than pseudocobalamin (Doxey *et al.*, 2015). However, degraded tetrapyrrole rings could be outfitted with DMB via this putative pathway in B₁₂-scarce conditions to alleviate the effects of B₁₂ deprivation. As a potential remodeler, *F. cylindrus* may increase the pool of biologically labile B₁₂ for other consumers, contributing to their ability to survive in B₁₂ scarce environments like the SO. This result illustrates that the relationship between producers and consumers of B₁₂ has become increasingly blurred as we improve our understanding of cycling dynamics and microbial function (Helliwell *et al.*, 2016).

Moreover, an additional protein belonging to the tetrapyrrole synthesis pathway (Figure 2.10), which produces precursors to heme, chlorophyll, and vitamin B₁₂ (Oborník *et al.*, 2005) was downregulated. Porphobilinogen Synthase (PBGS; ID: 218256) is involved in the early stage of tetrapyrrole ring formation, and has been identified as a B₁₂ biosynthesis protein (Raux *et al.*, 2000). In contrast, Rao 2020 found members of the tetrapyrrole synthesis pathway to be upregulated in *P. antarctica*, a psychrophilic haptophyte, in response to B₁₂ deprivation. Like *F. cylindrus*, *P. antarctica* is incapable of producing cobalamin *de novo*, but both organisms appear to differentially express portions of the cobalamin biosynthetic pathway in response to cobalamin deprivation.

Cobalamin Demand – In addition to investing in strategies for obtaining more cobalamin, organisms can also attempt to decrease cobalamin demand to alleviate the effects of B₁₂ deprivation. This study highlighted the methionine synthase, MetE as a key protein for this task, consistent with previous work (Helliwell *et al.*, 2011; Bertrand *et al.*, 2012; Ellis *et al.*, 2017). In *F. cylindrus*, MetE was upregulated in B₁₂-deplete treatments in order to utilize the B₁₂-independent methionine synthase pathway (Figure 2.10). This trend was demonstrated in the global proteomic data as well (Figure 2.6). A P-ATPase (ID: 168079) was identified is being upregulated in the absence of B₁₂ (Figure 2.6). These types of ATPases are known to be involved in metal transport activity. MetE is known to utilize zinc as a cofactor (Zhou *et al.*, 1999) and Bertrand *et al.*, 2013 suggests that B₁₂ deprivation can lead to up to a 40-fold increase in zinc requirements in *P. tricornutum*. Therefore, it may be possible that this protein is involved in facilitating zinc uptake to meet this demand. Interestingly, neither Methylmalonyl CoA Mutase (MCM) nor any ATP:corrinoid adenosyltransferases, which is required to produce its cofactor adenosylcobalamin from cyanocobalamin (Suh *et al.*, 1993), were detected in the proteome despite their sequences' presence in the genome.

Methionine Synthase Capacity – Managing decreased methionine synthase capacity is the final described strategy for coping with B₁₂ deprivation (Bertrand *et al.*, 2012). The effects of decreased methionine synthase capacity are disruptions to folate cycling and methionine scarcity, leading to methyl folate trapping and DNA synthesis (Scott & Weir 1981; Roje 2006). Two proteins falling under this category of response were differentially expressed – cSHMT and Methionine gamma lyase. cSHMT (cytosolic serine hydroxymethyltransferase), which interconverts THF (tetrahydrofolate) and 5,10-MTHF

(5,10-methylene tetrahydrofolate), was found to be upregulated in response to B₁₂ deprivation. 5,10-MTHF is known to disrupt folate cycling in low cobalamin conditions in (Scott & Weir 1981). It has been hypothesized that cSHMT upregulation can help to prevent these disruptions (Bertrand *et al.*, 2012).

Furthermore, METase (ID: 25990; methionine gamma lyase) was downregulated in response to B₁₂ deprivation (Fig. 2.10). Decreases to SAM (S-Adenosyl Methionine; of which methionine is a precursor) are prevalent in B₁₂-deprived diatom cultures (Bertrand and Allen 2012; Bertrand *et al.* 2012; Heal *et al.* 2019). METase converts L-methionine into methanethiol to balance homocysteine levels (Sato & Nozaki 2009) and therefore, it is possible that this enzyme was no longer needed in the event of an absence of available surplus of methionine for conversion.

Other Impacts of B₁₂ Deprivation – A putative blue-light sensing aurochrome (ID: 260397) was found to upregulated in the absence of B₁₂. The light regime in the SO is one characterized by prolonged periods of darkness, requiring extensive adaptations to preserve function without light for up to four months per year (Kennedy *et al.*, 2019). Light dependent gene regulation mediated by vitamin B₁₂ has been observed in the bacterium, *Myxococcus xanthus*. In this pathway, adenosylcobalamin is involved in the transcriptional response that deals with the production of carotenoids for avoidance of light stress (Ortiz-Guerrero *et al.*, 2011). In the dark, adenosylcobalamin can bind to the CarH transcriptional factor and block a promoter region that synthesizes carotenoids. When the cell is exposed to light, adenosylcobalamin is rapidly photolyzed and the synthesis of carotenoids can begin. It is possible a similar B₁₂ response can activate the expression of this blue light

sensing aureochrome as a secondary block to unnecessary carotenoid production, warranting further investigation.

2.5.3 Proteomic Responses to Elevated Temperature – A total of 50 proteins were identified as differentially expressed in response to elevated temperature (4% of the quantified proteome). Although few studies have examined the effect of elevated temperature on the proteome in diatoms, this value is aligned with others from the literature, which ranged from 0.6 to 17% in supra-optimal temperature treatments, and lower than one study with a lethal temperature treatment in which 22% of proteins were differentially expressed (**Table 2.2**).

Table 2.2: Literature comparisons of the proteome fraction of differentially expressed proteins after exposure to elevated temperature. Included are organism type, temperature treatment (including whether the temperature treatment was an upshift or comparison between previously acclimated treatments and effect to the organism), the total number of identified proteins, the number of differentially expressed proteins, and the percentage of differentially expressed proteins out of the total number of identified proteins.

Source	Organism	Organism Type	Temperature Treatment	Number identified proteins	Number DE'd proteins
This study	<i>F. cylindrus</i>	Diatom (psychrophile)	4° → 12° C (upshift; lethal)	1357	50 (4%; p < .05)
Boyd. <i>et al.</i> , 2016	<i>P. multiseriis</i>	Diatom (subantarctic)	11° → 14° C (acclimated; supra-optimal)	1640	11 (0.6%;)
Mühlhaus <i>et al.</i> , 2011	<i>C. reinhardtii</i>	Green microalga	25 → 42 ° C (upshift, lethal)	1116	244 (22%; p < .01)
Xing <i>et al.</i> , 2018	<i>A. protothecoides</i>	Green microalga	28° → 32° C (acclimated; supra-optimal)	4181	728 (17%; p < .05)
Xu <i>et al.</i> 2012	<i>P. haitanensis</i>	Red macroalga	21° → 29°C (upshift; supra-optimal)	1263	59 (5%; p<.05)

Cold adapted organisms require substantial changes to their protein expression and function to maintain growth at low temperatures, which reduce protein turnover and membrane fluidity (Feller *et al.*, 2013). To address reduced turnover, psychrophiles can overexpress photosynthetic proteins, cold shock proteins, including chaperones for increasing folding, and proteins involved in protein transcription and translation (Collins & Margesin 2019; Toseland *et al.*, 2013). The responses to the elevated temperature treatment in *F. cylindrus* included changes to the expression of critical enzymes like those involved in protein production, photosynthetic proteins, and cold shock responses. Surprisingly, no heat shock proteins were included in the list of proteins differentially expressed in response to temperature. It may be that the temperature response was dominated by changes to baseline expression normally associated with cold adapted

organisms. A few proteins related to genetic processing, particularly translation, could be considered responses to protein degradation and misfolding due to elevated temperatures. Cold-adapted enzymes are known to be more heat-labile than others, especially within the active site (Feller 2013). A variety of ribosomal proteins were also down regulated with elevated temperature (Figure 2.8). This may have been due to a reduced demand for protein production under conditions which increase protein turnover. Additionally, two proteins associated with tetrapyrrole synthesis were downregulated in the high temperature treatment - PBGS (porphobilinogen synthase; ID: 218256) and UROD (uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase; ID: 216482) (Figure 2.10). Liang *et al.*, 2019 observed the downregulation of tetrapyrrole synthesis transcripts in an experiment in which a cold-adapted *Chaetoceros* species was exposed to supra-optimal temperatures. Perhaps this change is associated with the upregulation of photosynthesis-related proteins at low temperatures. If this was the case, in response to high temperatures, *F. cylindrus* would no longer need to overexpress proteins upstream from chlorophyll synthesis.

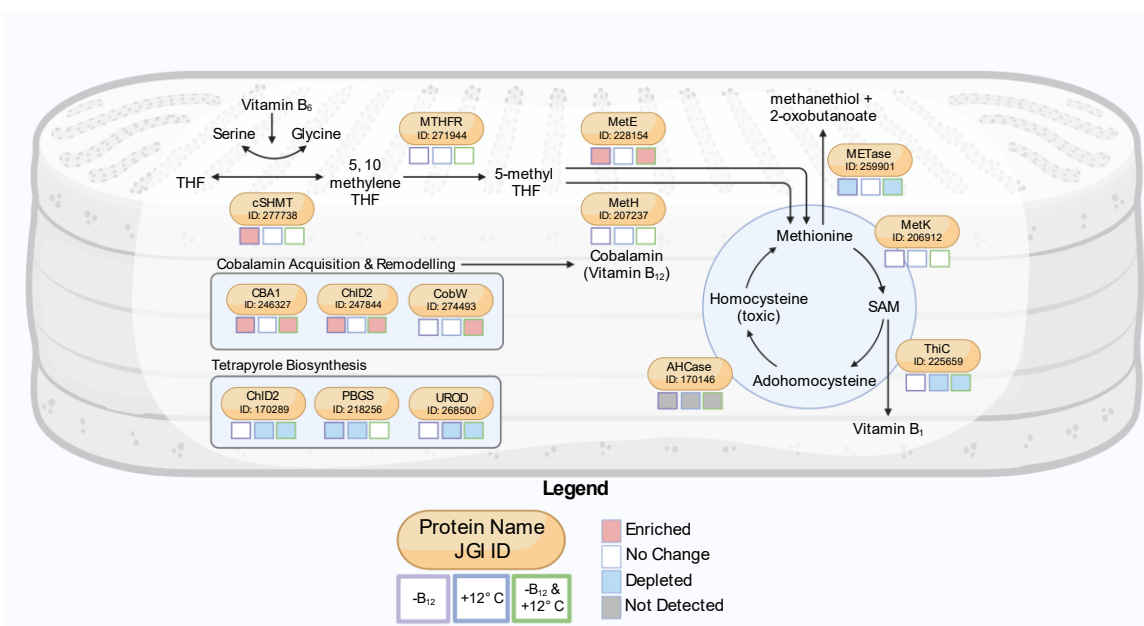


Figure 2.10: Illustration demonstrating the differential expression of proteins in the methionine cycle and related processes. Enzymes/proteins are represented as orange ovals, with JGI protein ID's below their name. Metabolites are written in black text. Each of the three boxes below a protein represent their differential expression in response to B₁₂-starvation (purple outline) elevated temperature (blue outline) the interaction between the two stressors (green outline). The box fill color represents protein expression: enriched (red), no change (white), depleted (blue) or not detected (grey). Adapted from Bertrand *et al.*, 2012 and created with BioRender.com.

2.5.4 Interactive Proteomic Responses to Elevated Temperature and B₁₂ Deprivation –

These results demonstrate that the interactive responses to elevated temperature and B₁₂ deprivation in *F. cylindrus* involve complex proteomic rearrangements. The most statistically significant responses were shared with the individual temperature and B₁₂ responses, demonstrating that biomarkers historically used to survey diatoms for B₁₂ deprivation are reliable, even at lethal temperatures. Additionally, the majority of proteins differentially expressed in response to the combined stressors were unique to this treatment. From this group, a number of highly abundant proteins with exceptional fold changes were identified in response to the interactive treatment. The presence of these unique proteins is

evidence of synergistic responses to multiple stressors, as the combined response was found to be different than the sum of the responses to each stressor individually.

2.5.5 Conclusions – Mounting evidence places B₁₂ among important drivers of microbial ecology and biogeochemistry in the SO, making it worthy of expanded exploration in the context of increasing sea surface temperatures. This study is the first to observe the molecular effects of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature in a psychrophilic diatom. Our results provide baseline information about the molecular effects of B₁₂ deprivation, providing a framework for understanding the vitamin's role in the growth and physiology of other cold-adapted diatoms and their broader communities. Clarifying how the effects of B₁₂ deprivation are affected by temperature is a crucial secondary step, as exposure to elevated temperature has become increasingly relevant as the potential for extreme microclimates and heat waves increase as ocean temperatures rise due to anthropogenic inputs of carbon dioxide. B₁₂ deprivation and elevated temperature responses were found to persist at the intersection of the two stressors, suggesting that proteomic biomarkers used to survey B₁₂ limitation in diatoms *in-situ* are reliable, even at lethal temperatures.

Clarifying controls on the growth of primary producers has proved important for making climatic predictions but making distinctions between auxotrophy and non-auxotrophy by growth rate only addresses a single facet of the physiological effects of vitamin deprivation and their broader biogeochemical consequences. We found that growth was unaffected by B₁₂ availability but observed that *F. cylindrus* employed various proteomic strategies for managing the combined stressors via an increased number of differentially expressed proteins, including possible enrichment of B₁₂ remodelling pathways. Considering *F.*

cylindrus' potential as a putative remodeller, it is possible that it can contribute to the biologically labile B₁₂ pool, allowing it and other consumers to persist in B₁₂ scarce conditions like those in the SO, affecting community composition. The results of this study highlight the important role of vitamin B₁₂ availability on the SO's biogeochemistry in the face of a warming ocean.

Chapter III: The Effects of Vitamin B₁₂ Deprivation on Physiology and Metabolite Production of the Polar Diatom, *Fragilariopsis cylindrus*

3.1 Abstract

Vitamin B₁₂, also known as cobalamin, is a cobalt-containing micronutrient estimated to be required for growth by half of all eukaryotic phytoplankton. Despite its importance, our knowledge of vitamin B₁₂ requirements and utilization remains limited in diatoms. In this study, we examine the effects of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation on diatom physiology and metabolite production and present the first direct measurements of cellular B₁₂ quotas in an ecologically significant polar diatom, *Fragilariopsis cylindrus*. We grew *F. cylindrus* cultures at 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂ and, using targeted metabolite quantification approaches, we monitored the abundance of four cobalamin factors, in addition to a suite of metabolites previously shown to be affected by B₁₂ deprivation. We also measured the expression of the B₁₂-requiring methionine synthase enzyme, MetH and its B₁₂-independent alternative, MetE. *F. cylindrus* cells contained an average of 0.30 attomoles of B₁₂ per cell in B₁₂-replete conditions and B₁₂ quotas far exceeded the MetH content of the cell, suggesting luxury uptake of the vitamin. Additionally, the abundance of DMSP and the vitamin B₁ precursor cHET increased significantly in response to B₁₂ deprivation. Our results suggest that the effects of B₁₂ scarcity may result in impacts to *F. cylindrus*' role in microbial assemblages via the potential differential production of growth stimulating compounds.

3.2 Introduction

Vitamin B₁₂, also known as cobalamin, is a cobalt-containing micronutrient found in picomolar to sub-picomolar concentrations in the ocean (Sañudo-Wilhelmy *et al.*, 2006). Over half of surveyed algal species in culture collections are B₁₂ auxotrophs, meaning that they require the vitamin for growth (Croft *et al.*, 2005). Given its combined scarcity and requirement by many microbes, it is likely that vitamin B₁₂'s availability may act as an important control of microbial community structure and bloom dynamics. The link between B₁₂ availability and community-level effects on oceanic microbes has been explored by several studies, which have demonstrated that B₁₂ availability can alter community composition, net productivity, and growth in a variety of marine environments (Sañudo-Wilhelmy *et al.*, 2006; Gobler *et al.*, 2017; Koch *et al.*, 2011; Bertrand *et al.*, 2007; Browning *et al.*, 2017). As with other trace nutrients, low concentrations of vitamin B₁₂ may significantly affect individual and community microbial dynamics in the ocean, putatively influencing processes such as nutrient cycling, carbon export, and the production of important allelopathic and climatically relevant compounds (Moore *et al.*, 2013). However, despite its importance, our knowledge of B₁₂ utilization, uptake, and cycling in ecologically significant phytoplankton species remains scarce. To date, only a single study has explored the metabolic impacts of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation in diatoms (Heal *et al.*, 2019) and no direct measurements of B₁₂ cellular quotas have been made for a cultured psychrophilic (cold-adapted) diatom.

In addition to being difficult to detect in the ocean due to low concentration and high photolability, the production and utilization of cobalamin varies significantly between microbial clades, making it challenging to study comprehensively (Helliwell *et al.*, 2016).

Cobalamin-related compounds have an upper and lower ligand, leading to various combinations that are produced and utilized by different clades and can play different biological roles. Either DMB (5, 6-di-methylbenzimidazole) or adenine can act as the lower ligand in B₁₂. The four cobalamin compounds all possess DMB as a ligand (Figure 3.1). If the lower ligand is adenine, the resulting cobamide is a pseudocobalamin variant (Tanioka *et al.*, 2009; Helliwell *et al.*, 2016). Certain groups of the prokaryotes, including some cyanobacteria, can synthesize B₁₂, in the form of pseudocobalamin (Raux *et al.*, 2000) and evidence provided by Helliwell *et al.*, 2016 suggests that pseudocobalamin is on the order of 100 times less available for use by eukaryotic algae. The four variants of cobalamins which possess DMB as the lower ligand, are adenosyl-, cyano-, methyl- and hydroxocobalamin (Figure 3.1). Adenosyl- and methylcobalamin are used in the cell as cofactors in the highly conserved enzymes, MetH (B₁₂-dependent methionine synthase) and MCM (methylmalonyl-CoA mutase), which participate in methylation and radical rearrangements, respectively, in eukaryotic algae (Croft *et al.*, 2006). Adenosyl- and methylcobalamin are both extremely photolabile, quickly degrading to hydroxocobalamin, which is considered an intermediate product, upon exposure to light (Juzeniene & Nizauskaite 2013). Hydroxo- and cyanocobalamin are not biologically active and must be converted to a biologically active form before use in the cell (Banjaree & Ragsdale 2003).

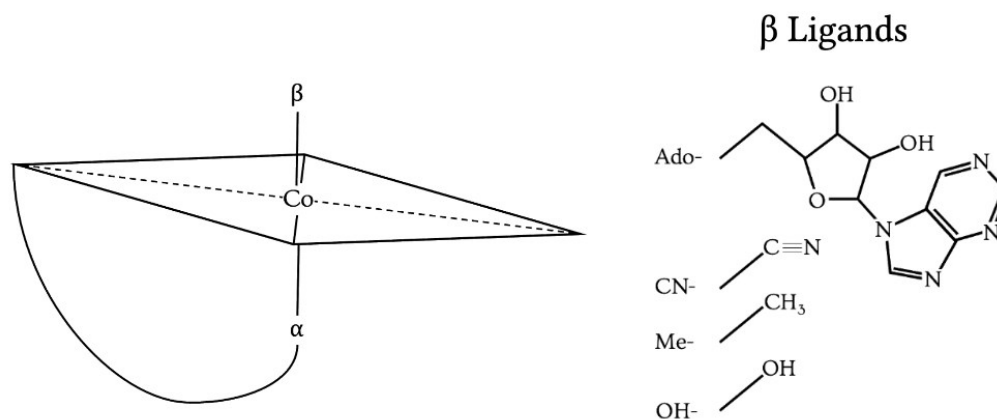


Figure 3.1: Four possible structural variants of vitamin B₁₂ based on the nature of the upper ligand. On the left, the corrin ring structure of cobalamin with a cobalt ion in the centre can be seen. Variations of the cobalamin molecule may be produced by different lower (α) or upper (β) ligand. On the right, four possible β ligands are presented: an Ado-, CN-, Me-, and OH-, which produce adenosyl-, cyano-, methyl-, and hydroxocobalamin respectively. In cobalamin, the alpha ligand is DMB. Adapted from Heal *et al.*, 2016.

Vitamin B₁₂ is used as a cofactor in the enzyme MetH, which catalyses the production of the essential amino acid methionine from methyltetra-hydrofolate using methylcobalamin as a cofactor (Banjaree & Matthews 1990). Some organisms can use a B₁₂-independent alternative, MetE, to meet their methionine synthesis needs in the absence of B₁₂ (Banjaree & Matthews 1990). Evidence suggests that MetH is the primary sink for vitamin B₁₂ in eukaryotic microalgae, as organisms with the presence of genes encoding MetH but not MetE are most often B₁₂ auxotrophs (Helliwell *et al.*, 2011). Compared to MetH, MetE has a 60-100 times slower rate of catalysis (Taylor & Weissbach 1973), which may be why it has been observed to be expressed at much higher abundance under B₁₂ deprivation than MetH. For example, Bertrand *et al.*, 2013 found that B₁₂-depleted cultures of *P. tricornutum*, a temperate diatom, expressed MetE at values proportional to the differences

in the enzymes' turnover rates, with an approximately 60-fold greater abundance of MetE compared to MetH levels in replete conditions. Bertrand and others have suggested that trade-offs between the benefits of the enzyme efficiency and resource costs of the B₁₂ dependent and independent methionine synthase pathways based on B₁₂ availability may drive the retention of MetE as a methionine synthesis strategy in eukaryotic algae (Bertrand *et al.*, 2013; Bertrand & Allen 2012; Helliwell *et al.*, 2011; Ellis *et al.*, 2017).

B₁₂ deprivation appears to have widespread effects on physiology and metabolite production in B₁₂ auxotrophs and non-auxotrophs alike, as shown by measurements made from cultures of the diatoms *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (non-auxotrophic for B₁₂) and *Thalassiosira pseudonana* (a B₁₂ auxotroph) (Bertrand *et al.*, 2012; Heal *et al.*, 2017; Heal *et al.*, 2019). These studies suggest that there are specific cellular processes which appear to be disrupted by B₁₂ deprivation in diatoms: (1) the production of methionine and its precursors and products, (2) vitamin B₁ biosynthesis, and (3) the abundance of cellular osmolyte pools.

Previous works imply that methionine synthesis capacity is reduced in both B₁₂ auxotrophs and non-auxotrophs in B₁₂-deplete conditions. Methionine is a precursor to SAM (S-adenosyl methionine), which has been demonstrated to be depleted in cobalamin-deprived cells (Bertrand & Allen 2012; Bertrand *et al.*, 2012; Heal *et al.*, 2017; Heal *et al.*, 2019). After use in methylation reactions, SAM is degraded to SAH (S-adenosyl homocysteine), which, in high concentrations, can inhibit additional methylation reactions. Bertrand *et al.*, 2012 found that the abundances of a SAM-producing protein (SAM synthetase) and a SAH-degrading protein (SAH hydrolase) in *P. tricornutum* increased with B₁₂ deprivation, likely in efforts to balance SAM starvation and SAH buildup.

SAM plays a variety of roles in the cell, including as a precursor to vitamin B₁ (thiamin) biosynthesis and the production of osmolytes like DMSP (Stefels 2000; Chatterjee *et al.*, 2008). Indeed, Bertrand and colleagues have observed that the B₁ biosynthesis protein, ThiC and its transcripts increased in response to vitamin B₁₂ deprivation in diatoms with and without MetE (Bertrand *et al.*, 2012; Bertrand & Allen 2012). ThiC catalyses the production of the B₁-precursor HMP (4-amino-5-hydroxymethyl-2-methylpyrimidine) using SAM. Bertrand and colleagues have hypothesized that it is possible that ThiC is upregulated in response to SAM deprivation, perhaps to maintain B₁ biosynthesis despite the low abundance of SAM, a required precursor.

Heal *et al.*, 2019 also noted changes to osmoregulatory and acylcarnitine pools due to B₁₂ deprivation-driven SAM starvation, including a decrease in intracellular DMSP concentrations. DMSP is an osmolyte and precursor to DMS, which is a critical component of the sulfur cycle and acts as a cloud condensation nucleus, classically thought to contribute to global albedo when released by phytoplankton exposed to supra-optimal temperature or light conditions (Charlson *et al.*, 1987), though more recent work suggests that DMSP release by phytoplankton is primarily driven by senescence caused by viral lysis or bloom termination (Ayers & Caine 2007). Furthermore, dissolved DSMP may make up to 13% of carbon pool available for uptake by heterotrophic bacteria (Kiene *et al.*, 2000) and dissolved DMSP abundance may lead to increased DMS production after bacterial assimilatory sulfur requirements have been met (Kiene *et al.*, 2000). Heal *et al.*, were not able to determine that the aforementioned decrease in particulate DMSP in diatoms due to the absence of vitamin B₁₂ was not growth rate driven, as DMSP production appeared to mirror growth rate. Exploring the link between vitamin B₁₂ and metabolite abundance is

important to improve our understanding of the vitamin's impact on the production of compounds that stimulate microbial growth and play key roles in sulfur and carbon cycles such as vitamin B₁ and DMSP.

The consequences of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation on physiology and metabolite production have yet to be explored in a psychrophilic diatom species. *F. cylindrus*, an ecologically significant Southern Ocean diatom and emerging model organism (Kang & Fryxell 1992; Faktorová *et al.*, 2020). *F. cylindrus* is non-auxotrophic, possesses the genes for production of MetE (Helliwell *et al.*, 2011) and, as established in Chapter II and previous studies (Ellis *et al.*, 2017), demonstrates no difference in growth rate due to the deprivation of vitamin B₁₂.

In this study, we aim to determine how the absence of B₁₂ affects this organisms' basic physiological properties and metabolite abundance, in addition to how those metabolites relate to the abundance of the methionine synthase enzymes, MetE and MetH. There are currently few datasets that quantitatively examine protein and metabolites together in organisms like *F. cylindrus*. Here we present a unique opportunity to examine the relationship between how much B₁₂ is taken up by *F. cylindrus*, and the resulting changes to its cellular physiology and abundance of select metabolites.

To determine how vitamin B₁₂ deprivation affects *F. cylindrus*, we grew axenic semicontinuous cultures with and without the addition of exogenous vitamin B₁₂. After acclimation, we measured particulate carbon and nitrogen, cell size, and methionine synthase expression. We also analyzed the biomass for cobalamin-related compounds and a select number of metabolites previously identified as being impacted by B₁₂ deprivation by Heal *et al.*, 2019 (Table S3.1). Our findings provide baseline information about an

ecologically significant polar diatom's responses to B₁₂ deprivation, laying the framework for future study of other microbes in the SO and how they interact with vitamin B₁₂, and the possible implications for microbial growth and nutrient cycling.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Semicontinuous Culturing – Axenic cultures of *Fragilariopsis cylindrus* (strain CCMP 1102) were obtained from Provasoli-Guillard National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota. After inoculation into 250 mL vent-capped flasks, the cultures were maintained with sterile techniques at 6 °C. 6 °C was chosen as the optimal growth temperature for *F. cylindrus* based on previous measurements (Jabre & Bertrand 2020; Mock & Hoch 2005; Supporting Information, Figure S3.1). Cells were grown in f/2 medium (Guillard and Ryther 1962; Guillard 1975) made from sterilized synthetic seawater (Sunda *et al.*, 2005, Price *et al.*, 1988/89), with and without the addition of 369 pM cyanocobalamin. Irradiance in the incubators was set to approximately 100 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in a 12:12 hour light-dark cycle. Cultures were diluted every three days, keeping them in a range of cell densities corresponding with exponential growth phase at this temperature, as established by previous cultures (Supporting information, Figure S3.2). Culture fluorescence was used to monitor cell number, as established with cell counts via flow cytometry (Supporting information, Figure S3.2). Cell counts were taken at the time of harvest with a BD Accuri™ C6 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). These measurements were also used to estimate cell size.

3.3.2 Cell Size Estimation – Three different sizes (0.75, 3, and 10 μm) of size calibration beads were suspended in Milli-Q water on a BD Accuri™ C6 flow cytometer (BD

Biosciences). Forward scatter was calibrated to bead size, allowing us to estimate *F. cylindrus* cell sizes (Figure S3.3). After plotting red fluorescence by forward scatter, a gate was manually tuned to select the cell populations. A calibration was conducted for every batch of flow cytometry runs to account for interference caused by instrument drift. Cells were assumed to be cuboid.

3.3.3 Quantification of Particulate Carbon and Nitrogen – 30 mL of each culture was filtered onto on 25 mm pre-combusted GF/F filters and stored at -80 °C. The samples were acidified for 6 hours in a glass desiccator with an open bottle of concentrated hydrochloric acid and later dried overnight in an oven at 45 °C. Then, filters were then packed in tin capsules and analyzed for particulate carbon and nitrogen on an elemental analyzer (Elementar Vario microcube) coupled to an IRMS (Isoprime 100). The samples were flash combusted at 1150 °C to convert particulate nitrogen and carbon into N₂ and CO₂ gas. These gaseous components were then analyzed by the Isoprime 100. The values were blank-corrected and divided by cell number to give per cell quota.

3.3.4 Sample Preparation for Targeted Protein Analyses – Protein extractions for methionine synthase measurements were as described in Chapter II. A Micro BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific) was used to determine protein concentration in the supernatant. Proteins were digested with an S-Trap procedure modified from Profiti 2022. 5 mM DTT (1,4-Dithiothreitol) was used to reduce the proteins. The samples were cooled and alkylated with 15 mM IAM (Iodoacetamide). The reaction was quenched with another addition of 5 mM DTT. Samples were acidified with 12% phosphoric acid to a final

concentration of 1.2%. S-Trap buffer (90% aqueous methanol in 100 mM Triethylammonium bicarbonate, pH 7.1) was added in a 1:7 vol:sample vol ratio and loaded onto an S-Trap mini columns (Protifi) attached to a vacuum manifold. After 10 washes with 600 μL of S-Trap buffer, 125 μL of digestion buffer (50 mM ammonium bicarbonate containing 25:1 wt:wt protein:trypsin) was used to saturate the column and moved to a 37 °C for 16 hours. 80 μL of 50 mM Ammonium bicarbonate was added and the columns were centrifuged at 4,000 XG for 1 min at room temperature. 80 μL 0.2% aqueous formic acid was added and the columns were centrifuge again as previously. Lastly, 80 μL of 50% acetonitrile containing 0.2% formic acid was added and the columns were centrifuged again. The peptide solutions were pooled and brought to dryness with a centrifuge concentrator. The dried peptide sample was resuspended in a 1% formic acid, 3% Acetonitrile solution to aim for 0.16 μg protein μL^{-1} . A peptide BCA (Thermo Scientific) was conducted to confirm protein concentration of each sample before injection.

3.3.5 Targeted Proteomic Analysis – As in Chapter II, a Dionex Ult 3000 UPLC integrated to a TSQ Quantiva mass spectrometer with the run same settings was used for targeted proteomic analysis. Heavy isotope labelled standards for MetE and MetH peptides were also added to the samples, as in Chapter II. For this experiment, 1 μg of protein was injected, with triplicate injections per biological replicate. The monitored peptides can be are the same from those in Chapter II (Supporting Information, Table S2.2).

3.3.6 Metabolite Sample Preparation – Our metabolite extraction is modified from Heal *et al.*, 2014 and 2017. The entirety of the sample procedure was conducted in a dark room

with a red light source and samples were kept on ice whenever possible. Sample filters were placed in bead beater tubes and an internal standard mixture with heavy C13- labelled standards sourced from Cambridge Isotope Labs was added to each filter to achieve 1 picomole of heavy labelled cyanocobalamin, 10 picomoles of thiamine (vitamin B₁) and riboflavin (vitamin B₂), and 20 picomoles of biotin (vitamin B₇) per 1000 µLs of extract. 0.2 mLs of each 100 and 400 µm silica beads were added to the tubes, along with 1000 µLs of ice-cold solvent mixture (40:40:20 acetonitrile:methanol:water) per 1.21×10^7 cells. A bead beater (MP Biomedicals) was used to agitate the cells in 3 x 40 second pulses at 1800 rotations per minute (RPM) over a 20-minute period. The tubes were briefly centrifuged, and the supernatant was removed to a clean tube. The centrifugation step was repeated once more and then the filter was rinsed with 30 µL of solvent mixture and centrifuged again. Two more similar washes were repeated with 300 µL of ice-cold methanol. At this point, the sample volume was aliquoted for metabolite analysis. The samples were then dried down with a Vacufuge and stored at -80 °C until analysis.

3.3.7 Sample Preparation for Targeted Metabolite Analyses – Samples were resuspended in varying amounts of buffer A (0.1% formic acid, 2% Acetonitrile) to correct for differences in transferred sample volume and diluted 2-fold in conical polypropylene HPLC vials (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA). A QC (Quality Control) sample was prepared by mixing 10 µL of each sample. Samples and QC's were loaded onto a Dionex Ultimate-3000 LC system coupled to the electrospray ionization source of a TSQ Quantiva triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) in selected reaction monitoring (SRM) mode, operating under the following conditions: Q1 and Q3 resolution

0.7 (FWHM), 50 msec dwell time, spray voltage 3500 (positive ion mode), sheath gas 6, aux gas 2, ion transfer tube 325°C, vaporizer temp 100°C. A 150 x 0.3 mm ID column (Acclaim PepMap RSLC, C-18, 2 µm, 100 Å) with a 5 x 0.3 mm ID guard column in front, held at 50 °C was used and subject to an HPLC gradient of 2 – 32% B over 6 min, then 32 - 60% B over 0.5 min (A, 20 mM ammonium formate, 0.1% formic acid; B, 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile) at 10 µl per min. The total run time including washing and equilibration was 12 minutes. 5 µL of each diluted sample was injected, with QC injections throughout the run to monitor instrument response and compound degradation. Authentic standards were spiked at increasing relevant concentrations (ranging from 0.5-100 femtomoles for the B₁₂ analogs (Ado-, CN-, OH-, and Me-B₁₂) and DMB and 2.5-500 femtomoles for all other compounds) in the QC and injected to create a calibration curve (Figure S3.6). Sample injection order for this experiment was randomized and interspersed between additional *F. cylindrus* extracts not included in this analysis. A list of monitored compounds and transitions can be found in Supporting Information, Table S3.1.

3.3.8 Metabolite Data Analysis – Metabolite data was processed with methods adapted from Boysen *et al.*, 2018 and modified by the Bertrand Lab. Metabolites were normalized to their corresponding heavy internal standards. The B₁₂ analogs were normalized to heavy cyanocobalamin. Thiamin (vitamin B₁) was normalized to heavy thiamin. Riboflavin (Vitamin B₂) was normalized to heavy riboflavin. Although we also added a heavy biotin (Vitamin B₇), it was not used for normalization to biotin as it led to a decrease in QC variation (Supporting Information, Figure S2). For metabolites without a corresponding internal standard, a best matched internal standard (BMIS) was chosen by selecting

normalizations that reduced QC coefficient of variation by more than 30% (Supporting Information, Figure S3.). The effect of the final chosen BMIS on QC variation in each metabolite can be seen in Supporting Information, Figure S3.5. Calibration curves were used to quantify metabolite concentration after correcting for the amount of metabolite already in each QC sample before standard addition (Figure S3.).

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Physiological Measurements – Estimated cell density for the cultures' dilution series can be seen in Figure 3.2. Growth rate during the final ten dilutions before harvest was not found to be significantly different due to B₁₂ treatment ($p = 0.63$; Table 3.1).

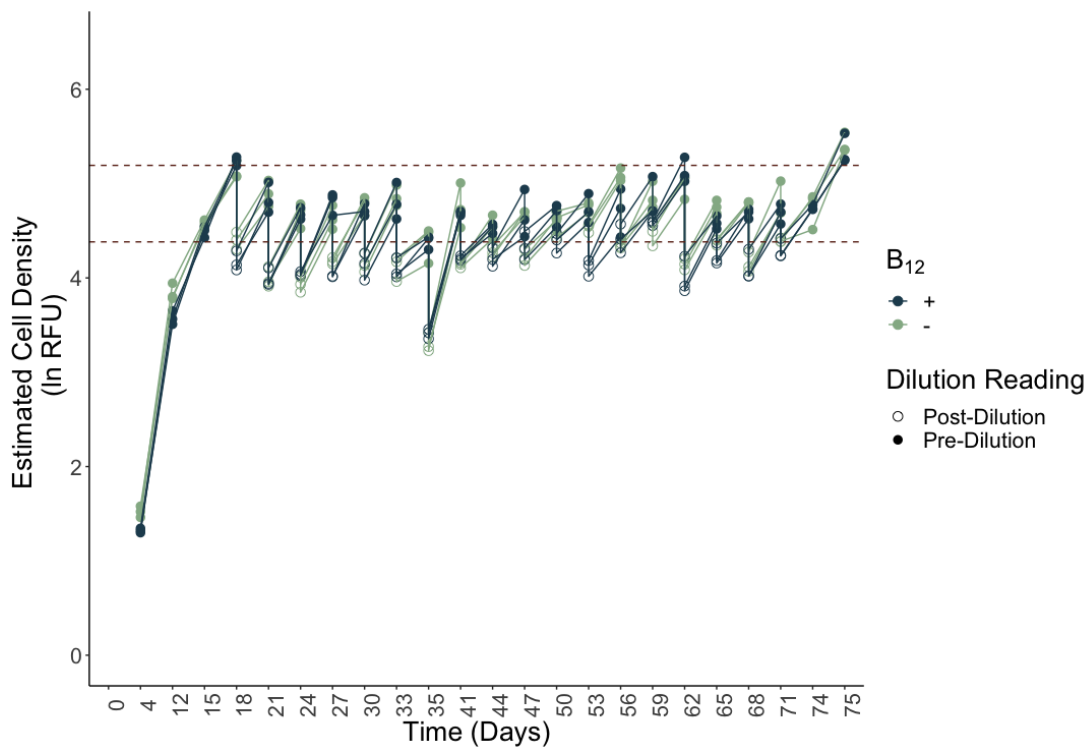


Figure 3.2: Semicontinuous dilutions of axenic *F. cylindrus* cultures with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. Fluorescence (RFU; relative fluorescence units) of each culture was measured before (filled in circles) and after (open circles) each dilution. Dotted lines represent an estimation of cell densities corresponding to exponential growth phase as established by previous cultures. Color represents B₁₂ treatment, with B₁₂-replete (+) in navy and B₁₂-deplete (-) in green. Cultures were harvested shortly after the final timepoint (day 75).

Table 3.1: Physiological parameters of *F. cylindrus* cells grown at 6 °C. Growth rates were calculated from RFU's measured during the last 10 dilutions before harvest and other parameters were measured from samples taken on day 75 (Figure 3.2). Mean and standard deviation of 3 biological replicates per treatment are presented, except for cellular carbon and nitrogen quotas, for which one +B₁₂ treatment which was unable to be quantified due to sample loss. Cellular B₁₂ quota estimates include summed adenosyl-, methyl-, and hydroxocobalamin quantifications. Any cyanocobalamin in the cultures was below the limit of detection (Supporting Information Figure S3.7). Specific uptake rate (u) was estimated using $u = \mu Q$, where Q represents intracellular quota (Droop 1973). Significance was tested with a Welch's t-test. p-values are represented in the Significance column, with $p < 0.05 = *$; $p < 0.01 = **$; and ns = no significance.

Parameter	+B ₁₂ Mean	+B ₁₂ St. Dev.	-B ₁₂ Mean	-B ₁₂ St. Dev.	Significance
μ (d ⁻¹)	0.16	1.47 x 10 ⁻³	0.16	1.02 x 10 ⁻²	ns
Pg C cell ⁻¹	11.30	0.64	11.40	1.86	ns
Pg N cell ⁻¹	2.72	0.16	2.76	0.16	ns
Estimated Diameter (μ m)	6.09	0.04	6.18	0.03	*
Femtograms protein cell ⁻¹	0.27	4.73 x 10 ⁻³	0.32	4.31 x 10 ⁻²	ns
Attomoles B ₁₂ cell ⁻¹	0.30	0.16	-	-	-
C:N:B ₁₂	106 : 26 : 0.00356	-	-	-	-
Moles total B ₁₂ :MetH	1.047 x 10 ⁵	1.11 x 10 ⁵	-	-	-
Moles Me-B ₁₂ :MetH	4.48 x 10 ⁴	5.93 x 10 ⁴	-	-	-
Specific Uptake Rate (attomoles d ⁻¹ cell ⁻¹)	0.05	0.03	-	-	-

Mean carbon and nitrogen quotas were found to be 11.3 and 2.74 pg cell⁻¹, respectively, and did not vary due to B₁₂ treatment (Figure 3.3; $p = 0.92$; 0.78). Molar C:N ratios were found to be below Redfield (6.625; Redfield *et al.*, 1963), with a mean of 4.077. An extended Redfield ratio, including vitamin B₁₂ was calculated (Table 3.1).

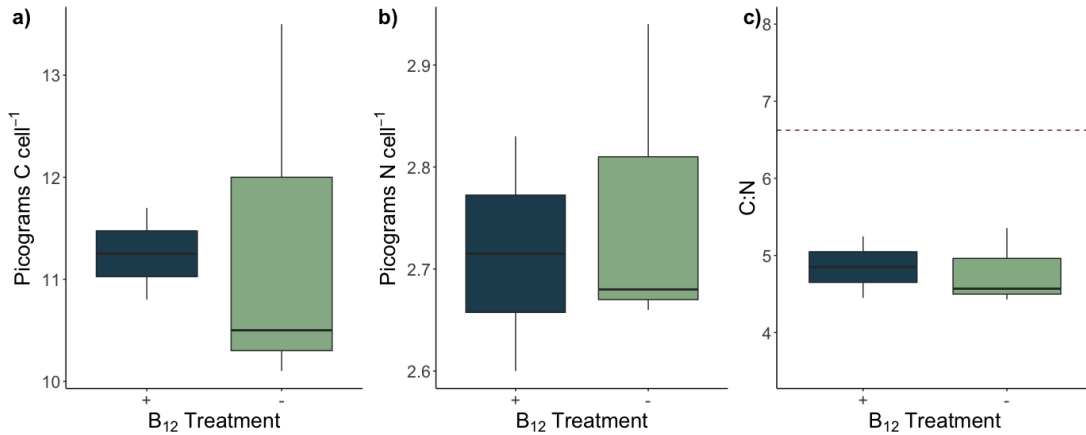


Figure 3.3: Particulate carbon and nitrogen measurements from *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. a) Picograms of carbon per cell b) Picograms of nitrogen per cell c) and molar C:N ratios (dotted line = Redfield; 106 C: 16 N; Redfield 1963) Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment and triplicate injections. Color represents B₁₂ treatment, with B₁₂-replete (+) in navy and B₁₂-deplete (-) in green.

Cell size was estimated to be 6.14 μm on average, and B₁₂ deprivation appeared to result in larger cells (Table 1; Figure 3.4a; p < 0.05). By assuming cuboidal cells, we were able to calculate an estimated biovolume for *F. cylindrus* cells as well (Figure 3.4b).

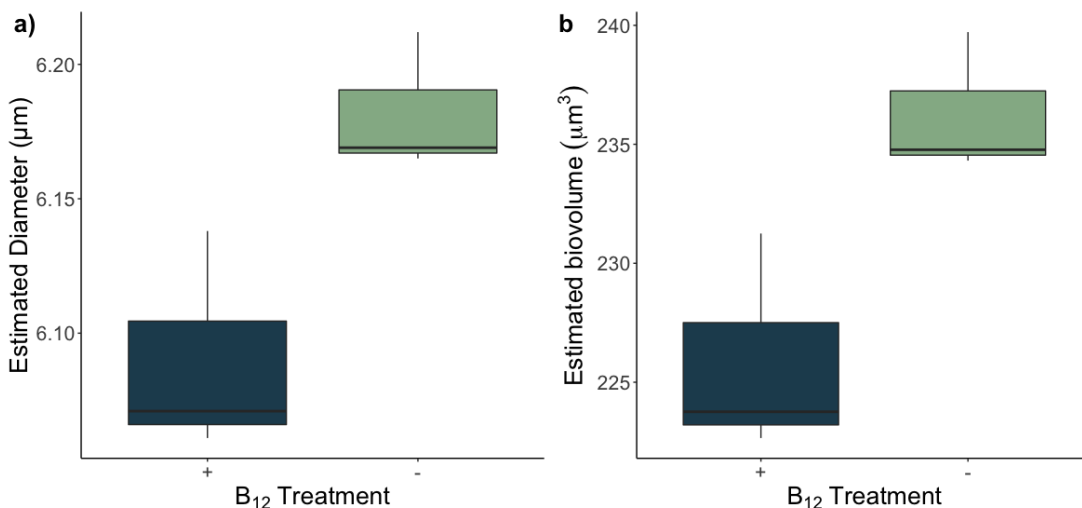


Figure 3.4: a) Estimated cell diameter and b) estimated cell volume of *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment. Color represents B₁₂ treatment, with B₁₂-replete (+) in navy and B₁₂-deplete (-) in green.

3.4.2 Methionine Synthase Concentrations – Total protein per cell increased from 0.27 to 0.32 femtograms cell⁻¹ in the B₁₂ deprived treatment, but this change was not statistically significant (Table 3.1, Figure 3.5a; p = 0.19). MetE abundance in the B₁₂-deprived cultures was 4.5-fold that of the MetH expression in B₁₂ replete cultures. Cellular MetH quotas were, on average, 4.37 x 10⁻⁹ femtomoles per cell under B₁₂ replete conditions and decreased in B₁₂-deprived cultures, but not significantly (p = 0.40; Figure 3.5b). However, MetE abundance did vary significantly, and was starkly reduced in the presence of B₁₂ to an average abundance of 1.95 x 10⁻⁸ femtomoles per cell (p < 0.01; Figure 3.5c).

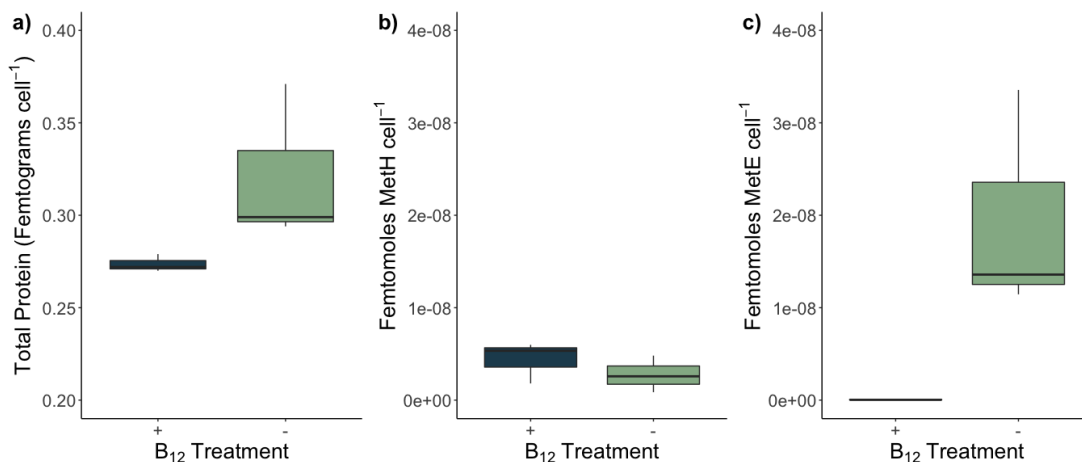


Figure 3.5: Protein measurements from *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. **a)** Total cellular protein content (μg cell⁻¹) **b)** Femtomoles of diagnostic MetH (KJ866915.1) peptide cell⁻¹ and **c)** Femtomoles of diagnostic MetE (KJ866917.1). Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment and triplicate injections. Color represents B₁₂ treatment, with B₁₂-replete (+) in navy and B₁₂-deplete (-) in green.

3.4.3 Metabolite Measurements – Out of the 25 compounds we sought to monitor, we were able to provide relative quantification for 8 compounds and absolute quantification for an additional 8 (Supporting Information, Table S3.2). The amino acids methionine and homocysteine were below the limit of detection in most of our samples. We found that *F.*

cylindrus took up a mean of 0.30 ± 0.16 attomoles of B₁₂ per cell, with the majority of the cellular B₁₂ quota being attributed to hydroxocobalamin (Figure 3.6; Table 3.1). All B₁₂ replete samples contained trace or quantifiable amounts of adenosyl- and methylcobalamin. Trace amounts of adenosylcobalamin were also identified in one B₁₂ deplete replicate (Supporting Information, Figure S3.7). All cyanocobalamin measurements in the samples were below our calculated limit of detection (Supporting Information, Figure S3.7).

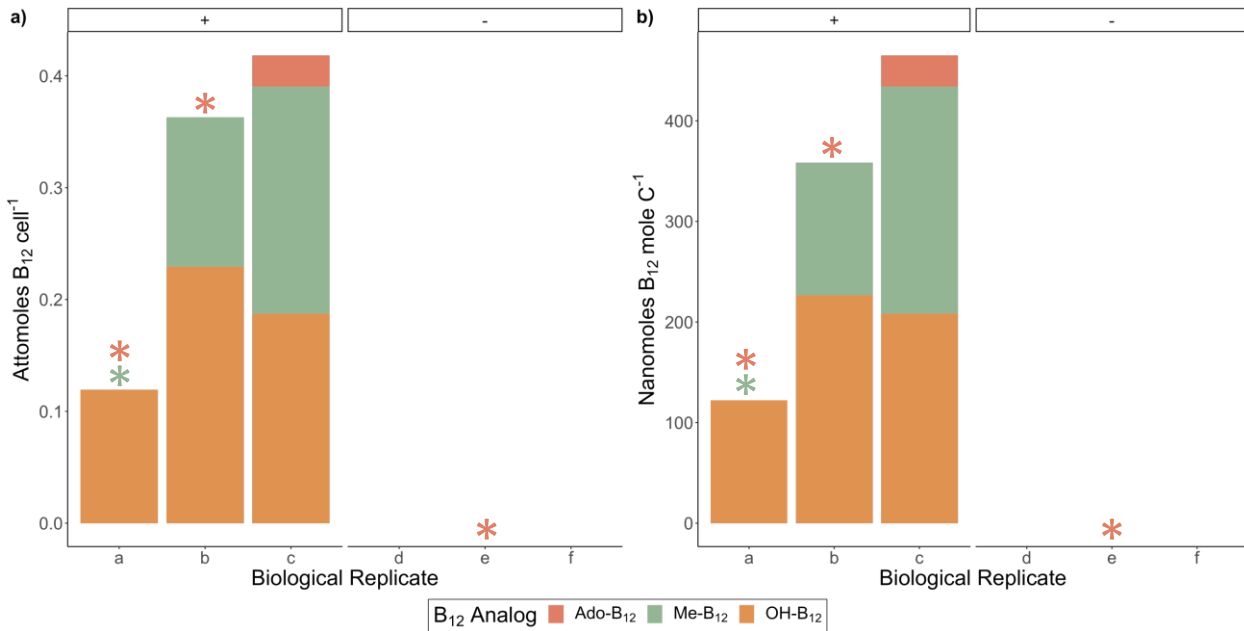


Figure 3.6: B₁₂ quotas from *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂ shown in a) attomoles cell⁻¹ b) Nanomoles mole C⁻¹. Color represents B₁₂ analog, which include adenosylcobalamin (Ado-B₁₂, pink), methylcobalamin (Me-B₁₂, green), and hydroxocobalamin (OH-B₁₂, orange). The mean of triplicate injections for three biological replicates per B₁₂ treatment (+ and -) are shown. A star indicates that trace quantities of an analog were detected in a sample but was below the LOQ. Cyanocobalamin was not detected in any sample.

Measurements of the osmolytes GBT and DMSP yielded relative quantification. GBT levels remained constant with B₁₂ treatment (Figure 3.7a; $p = 0.22$). In contrast, DMSP

concentration significantly increased with B₁₂ deprivation (Figure 3.7b; $p < 0.05$). Another major osmolyte in *F. cylindrus*, proline, was also monitored and did not change significantly (Supporting Information Table S3.2).

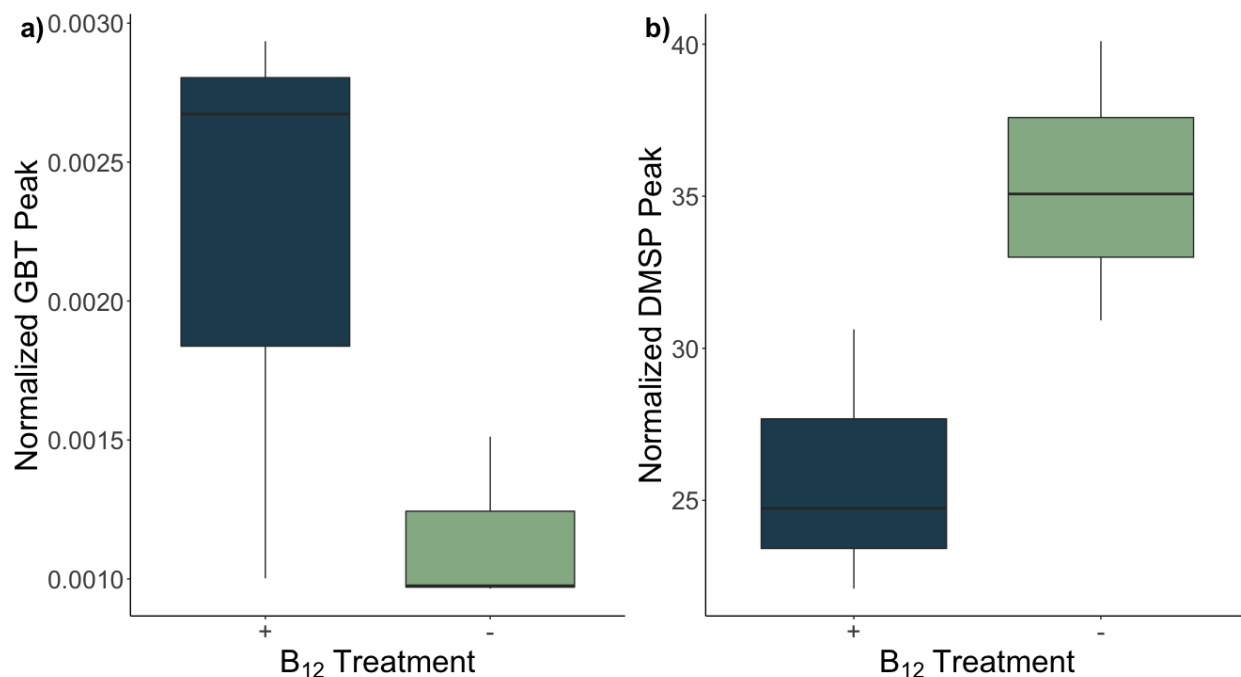


Figure 3.7: Metabolite measurements from *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. **a)** Normalized GBT (Glycine betaine) peak area cell⁻¹ and **b)** Normalized DMSP peak area cell⁻¹. Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment and triplicate injections. Color represents B₁₂ treatment, with navy boxes representing B₁₂-replete treatments and green boxes representing B₁₂-deplete treatments.

SAH levels increased with B₁₂ deprivation, but this change was not found to be statistically significant (Figure 3.8a; $p = 0.23$). SAM levels appeared to be approximately the same between B₁₂ treatments and did not change significantly (Figure 3.8b; $p = 0.22$). The ratio of SAH:SAM was also found to increase with B₁₂ deprivation (Figure 3.8c).

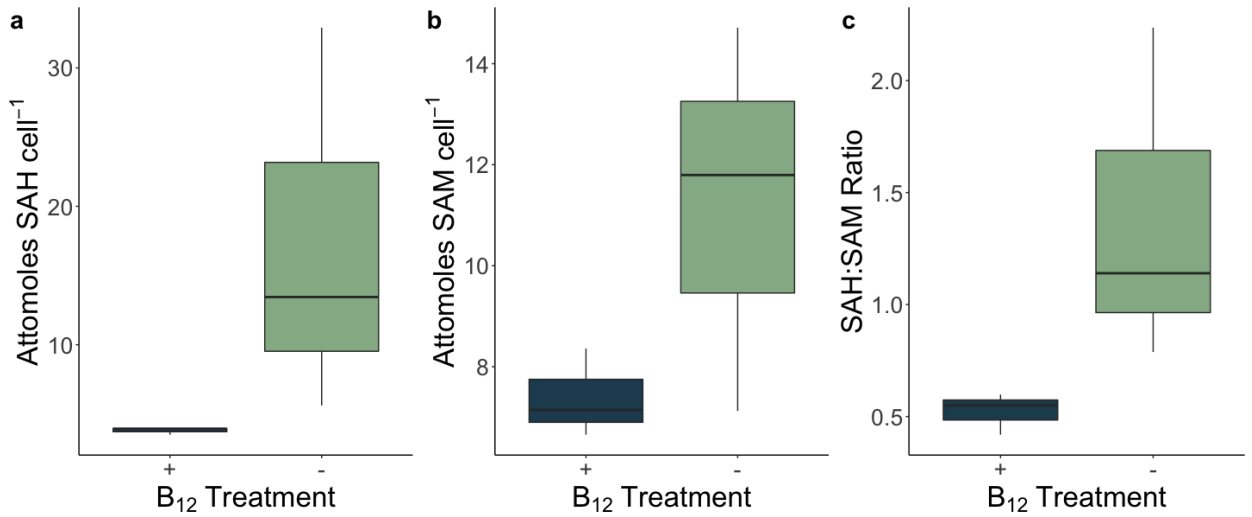


Figure 3.8: Metabolite measurements from *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. **a)** Attomoles of SAH (S-Adenosyl Homocysteine) cell⁻¹ and **b)** Attomoles of SAM (S-Adenosyl Methionine) cell⁻¹ **c)** Ratio of cellular SAH:SAM content. Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment and triplicate injections. Color represents B₁₂ treatment, with navy boxes representing B₁₂-replete treatments and green boxes representing B₁₂-deplete treatments.

Vitamin B₁ quotas did not change significantly with vitamin B₁₂ treatment and were 4.40 ± 1.98 attomoles cell⁻¹ on average (Figure 3.9a; $p = 0.376$). The vitamin B₁ biosynthesis precursors, cHET and HMP, were also monitored. Cellular cHET content increased significantly with B₁₂ deprivation (Figure 3.9b; $p < 0.05$). There were also trace amounts of HMP detected, but only in B₁₂-replete samples. All HMP measurements were below the detection limit in B₁₂ deprived samples.

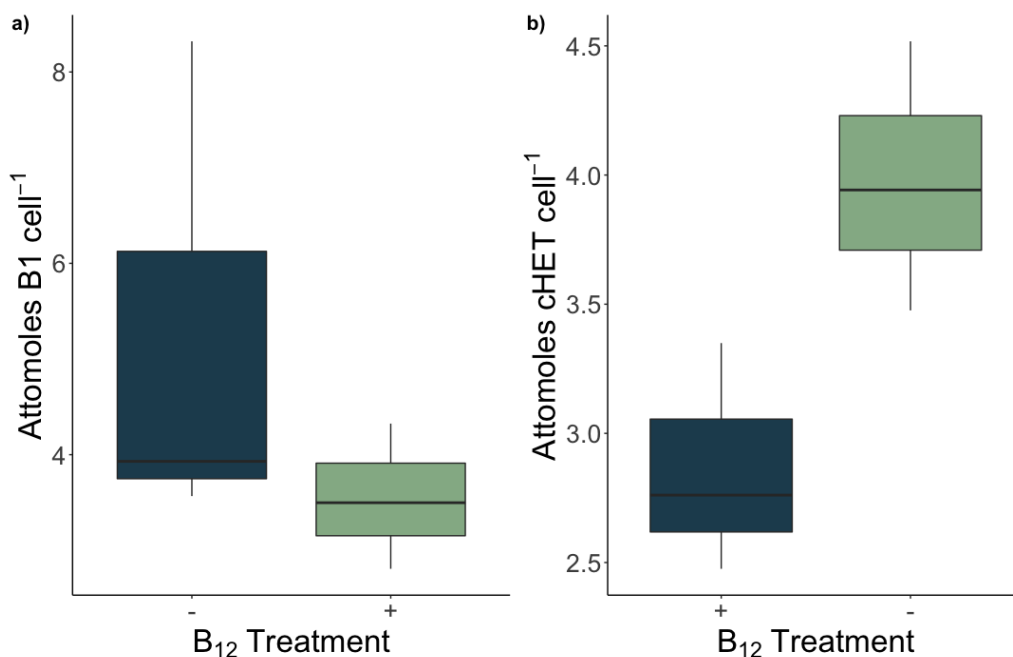


Figure 3.9: Metabolite measurements from *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C, with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂ **a)** Normalized peak area of Vitamin B₁ (thiamine) cell⁻¹ **b)** Attomoles of cHET (5-(2-hydroxyethyl)-4-methyl-1,3-thiazole-2-carboxylic acid) cell⁻¹. Boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment triplicate injections. Color represents B₁₂ treatment, with navy boxes representing B₁₂-replete treatments and green boxes representing B₁₂-deplete treatments.

3.5 Discussion

3.5.1 Physiological parameters – Broadly, physiological parameters in *F. cylindrus* were not affected by vitamin B₁₂ deprivation, with the exception of size (Table 3.1). Cellular C:N ratios content was found to be lower than Redfield, but comparable to previous measurements made in *F. cylindrus* cultures (Mills *et al.*, 2010; Alderkamp *et al.*, 2012) and the range of variation observed for a single species under identical culture and analysis conditions in other microalgae (Geider & LaRoche 2002). Cell size increased with B₁₂ deprivation, which could have been fueled by swelling driven by increases in osmolyte content, notably DMSP (Figure 3.7; Stefels 2000).

3.5.2 Methionine Synthase Measurements – Observations of the two methionine synthase enzymes, MetH and MetE, were comparable to those in Chapter II from *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 4 °C and previous studies (Figure 3.10; Bertrand *et al.*, 2013). Comparisons between methionine synthase expressions in *F. cylindrus* and *P. tricornutum* suggest that *F. cylindrus* may maintain a higher baseline expression of MetH to cope with reduced catalysis rates of the enzyme at colder temperatures. At maximal expression, *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C produce 298 times more MetH than *P. tricornutum* (Fig. 3.10). In contrast, they only produce 18 times more MetE (Figure 3.10). It is possible that MetH works less efficiently at low temperatures, resulting in overexpression of the enzyme in psychrophilic species and leading to reduced disparity between the effects of utilization of the B₁₂-dependent methionine pathway via MetH compared to the B₁₂-independent pathway via MetE. Further supporting this hypothesis, environmental samples collected in strongly diatom dominated communities in Antarctic waters (McMurdo Sound) showed

less of a disparity compared to our measurements, with MetH expression being about 26 times higher in *F. cylindrus* (Figure 3.10; Bertrand *et al.*, 2013). The MetE signal is more difficult to compare as B₁₂ concentrations were not measured at the time of sampling in Bertrand *et al.*, 2013. The MetE peptide which was used was also less specific to diatoms, so there may be an additional signal from bacterial and fungal MetE (Bertrand *et al.*, 2013). The catalysis rate of MetH and MetE at temperatures of 37 °C and higher has been measured in *E. coli* (Grabowski *et al.*, 2012), but not at lower temperatures to our knowledge. Notably, increased baseline expression of critical enzymes has been proposed as an adaptation to address reduced reaction rates at cold temperatures in psychrophiles (Collins & Margesin 2019). The high MetH abundance in *F. cylindrus* and polar diatom dominated communities (Bertrand *et al.*, 2013; Figure 3.10) compared to the mesophile *P. tricornutum* illustrates the selective pressure to maintain methionine synthesis in Southern Ocean diatoms. The Southern ocean's environment, including low populations of producers and high levels of UV radiation leading to degradation, make vitamin B₁₂ scarce (Bertrand *et al.*, 2011; Cruzen 1992 as cited in Bertrand *et al.*, 2007). Overexpression of MetH may mean that the enzyme has an increased chance of encountering a co-factor in the cell at low intracellular B₁₂ concentrations. The selective pressure for methionine production despite B₁₂ deprivation the Southern Ocean is also illustrated by findings in Ellis *et al.*, 2017, which demonstrated that a higher proportion of Southern Ocean diatom have genes for the biosynthesis of MetE than diatoms from other regions.

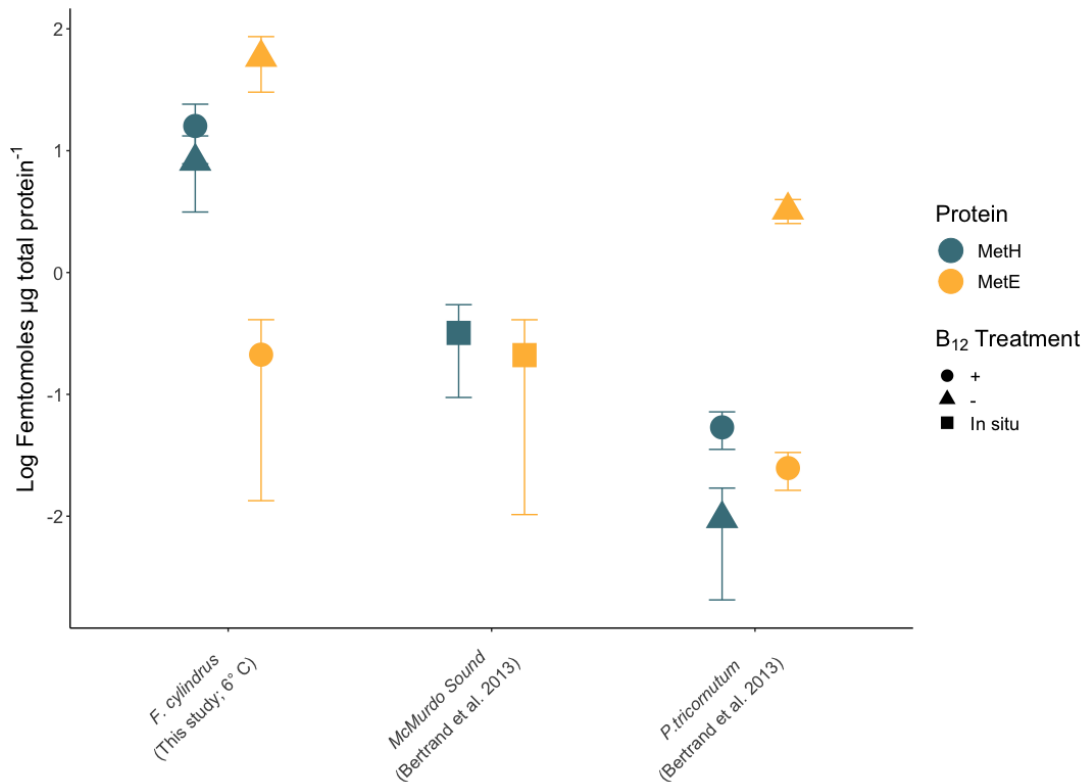


Figure 3.10: Measurements (femtomoles $\mu\text{g total protein}^{-1}$) of diagnostic MetH (blue) and MetE (yellow) peptide in *F. cylindrus* in this study, compared to measurements from *P. tricornutum* and environmental samples collected in McMurdo Sound, Antarctica in Bertrand *et al.*, 2013. B₁₂ treatment is represented by shape, with circles denoting B₁₂-replete cultures and triangles B₁₂-deplete cultures. Environmental measurements taken *in situ* are shown as squares.

3.5.3 Cobalamin quotas – Mean B₁₂ quotas in *F. cylindrus* (315.27 nmol mol C⁻¹) were comparable to measurements of cobalamin in *T. pseudonana* (800 ± 85 nmol mol C⁻¹) presented in Heal *et al.*, 2019. Additionally, experiments which measured B₁₂ quotas in sea ice algae with a >90% diatom makeup, also demonstrated comparable values, with a mean of 550 nmol mol C⁻¹ of cobalamin (Taylor & Sullivan 2008). Trace amounts of adenosylcobalamin were detected in B₁₂-deplete sample “e” (Supporting Information, Figure S3.7). However, this trend was not consistent throughout replicate injections (Supporting Information, Figure S3.7). It is possible that this compound was still present in samples without the addition of exogenous B₁₂ due to carryover from when the culture

was initially inoculated. Another explanation is that there is analytical carryover between injections due to analytes remaining on the column. In the future, an increased number of blank injections should be run between samples to further explore this. Molar B₁₂ to MetH ratios were much higher in *F. cylindrus* than expected (Table 3.1). There were six orders of magnitude more total available molecules of B₁₂ and five more of solely methylcobalamin than could be used in MetH (Table 3.1). Mechanisms of B₁₂ storage in diatoms have not been explored, but this result suggests luxury uptake and storage in the cell, and/or cryptic uses for B₁₂ which have yet to be identified.

A rough estimation of uptake rate by *F. cylindrus* was calculated using the formula for specific uptake rate (0.048 attomoles d⁻¹ cell⁻¹; Droop 1973). Considering published *F. cylindrus* cell densities in the Wendell Sea ice edge zone during late austral summer/early austral autumn, which were found to be 5.28 x 10⁹ cells m⁻², integrated over the first 150 meters of water (Kang & Fryxell 1993), 1.7 x 10⁶ attomoles L⁻¹ d⁻¹ would be taken up by *F. cylindrus* cells. Although B₁₂ production rates in the SO remain largely unexplored, we can provide context for this rate by comparing it the few measurements of ambient dissolved B₁₂. Heal and colleagues' work suggests that the upper estimates of total dissolved B₁₂ was 7 pM in Puget Sound, Washington (mostly composed of hydroxo- and adocobalamin; 5.8 and 1.2 pM, respectively; Heal *et al.*, 2014). In the case of a pulse of B₁₂ at this concentration, an *F. cylindrus* community of the aforementioned size could take up all of the available B₁₂ within 5.76 hours. This small timescale suggests that dense blooms of *F. cylindrus* may be capable of quickly taking up the majority of available B₁₂ in the Southern Ocean, illustrating the disparity between B₁₂ availability and B₁₂ demands in the Southern Ocean. However, this value may be an underestimation as SO B₁₂

availability is expected to be less than values in Heal *et al.*, 2014 due absence of cyanobacteria and otherwise small populations of heterotrophic bacterial producers (Bertrand *et al.*, 2007).

3.5.4 Other Metabolic Effects – We were unable to detect the amino acids methionine and homocysteine in our samples. Targeted MS metabolite methods like ours tend to be biased against small polar molecules such as amino acids (Johnson *et al.*, 2017). The abundance of most metabolites examined here (SAM, SAH, B1, GBT, Proline) did not change with B₁₂ deprivation. However, contrary to original hypotheses, DMSP content increased in B₁₂-deprived cultures rather than decreased, as was observed by Heal *et al.*, 2019. Heal and colleagues hypothesized that the decrease in DMSP production in *T. pseudonana* in B₁₂-deplete condition was driven by methionine deprivation. DMSP production in many eukaryotes is known to be catalyzed by DYSB enzymes which facilitate SAM-dependent MMT (methylthiohydroxybutyrate methyltransferases) reactions (Curson *et al.*, 2018). In *F. cylindrus*, we did not observe significant changes to SAM content, which may explain the absence of a decrease in DMSP production. DMSP is a precursor to DMS, which is a key player in the sulfur cycle, in addition to its climactic importance as a cloud forming nucleus (Charlson *et al.*, 1987). Additionally, DMSP is hypothesized to be a significant carbon and sulfur source for bacteria in some environments (Kiene *et al.*, 2000). Studies place pennate diatoms such as *Fragilariopsis spp.* among significant DMSP producers in the SO (Sheehan *et al.*, 2020). Increases in DMSP production in *F. cylindrus* due to B₁₂ deprivation could potentially increase dissolved DMSP concentrations in the Southern Ocean via senescence-driven release during bloom termination. This increase in DMSP could fuel bacterial growth, accelerating the microbial loop and decreasing carbon export.

Furthermore, there is potential for a negative feedback loop between B₁₂ deprivation and production via DMSP exchange, as heterotrophic bacteria and chemoautotrophic archaea are known to be the main cobalamin producers in the absence of cyanobacteria in the Antarctic waters (Doxey *et al.*, 2015). This increase in DMSP production should be further explored, with emphasis on improving our method for quantification of this compound in order to present absolute DMSP quotas in the presence and absence of vitamin B₁₂.

The abundance of cHET, which is a precursor for *de novo* synthesis of vitamin B₁, also increased with B₁₂ deprivation. It has been postulated that vitamin B₁ biosynthesis and B₁₂ availability may be linked due to connections related to sulfur metabolism. cHET has been observed to be used in place of vitamin B₁ by microalgal eukaryotes when provided with HMP, another precursor to vitamin B₁ biosynthesis (Paerl *et al.*, 2018). HMP was found in trace concentration in B₁₂-replete samples and not detected in B₁₂-deprived samples. Bertrand *et al.*, 2012 found that the thiamine biosynthesis protein ThiC was more abundant in response to B₁₂ deprivation and postulated whether it might be activated in response to SAM starvation. The changing balance in the abundance of these two vitamin B₁ precursors, despite absence of SAM starvation, implies that there may be an upstream control to their dynamics that may not regulated be directly regulated by SAM, but rather B₁₂ availability, warranting further investigation.

3.5.5 Conclusions – Our results provide baseline physiological information about cold-adapted diatom's responses to vitamin B₁₂ deprivation. We postulate that *F. cylindrus*' physiological parameters are not as firmly regulated by the availability of the vitamin as organisms that display decreases to growth rate under B₁₂ scarcity such as *T. pseudonana*

(without MetE) and *P. tricornutum* (with MetE) (Heal *et al.*, 2019; Bertrand *et al.*, 2012). The disparity between the effects of utilizing B₁₂-dependent methionine synthesis as compared to the B₁₂-independent pathway may be smaller in *F. cylindrus* due to a decreased functionality of the MetH enzyme at low temperatures, as evidenced by increased MetH quotas compared to *P. tricornutum* and the difference in the magnitude of MetE and MetH responses (Figure 3.10). The maximal difference in MetE abundance changes in *F. cylindrus* was much less than that of MetH, emphasizing the difference in cost of use between the two enzymes. Furthermore, *F. cylindrus* B₁₂ quotas were also much higher than could be used in MetH at a time suggesting luxury uptake and storage and/or use in unidentified B₁₂-requiring enzymes. Lastly, the change in abundance of metabolites, including DMSP and cHET, highlight that growth rate should not be considered the sole method for assessing the impact of nutrient deprivation in marine phytoplankton. In this study, the effects of B₁₂ scarcity catalyzed changes that may have putative impacts to *F. cylindrus*' role in its wider community via the potential synthesis and differential production of growth stimulating and climatically significant compounds.

Chapter IV: Conclusions

Overview – This dissertation aimed to characterize the molecular consequences of B₁₂ deprivation in an ecologically significant polar diatom. Chapter II investigated the interactive proteomic responses of B₁₂ and elevated temperature. In this chapter, I found that proteomic biomarkers typically used to survey vitamin B₁₂ limitation *in situ* are reliable for *F. cylindrus*, even at lethal temperatures. Furthermore, I identified a host of proteins differentially expressed in response to the combined stressors. Lastly, there were hints of a putative B₁₂ remodelling pathway in this diatom, which warrants additional investigation. Chapter III examined the effects of vitamin B₁₂ deprivation on diatom physiology and metabolite production, in addition to presenting the first direct measurements of cellular B₁₂ quotas in *Fragilariopsis cylindrus*. We observed that *F. cylindrus* took up more B₁₂ than could be used in MetH, which appears to be the main B₁₂-requiring enzymes in eukaryotes, suggesting luxury uptake, and raising questions regarding the existence of additional cryptic B₁₂-utilizing enzymes. We also noted the increased production of DMSP and thiamine related compounds in B₁₂ deprived cultures. Changes to DMSP production are particularly intriguing and suggest that *F. cylindrus* may stimulate bacterial growth in the absence of B₁₂.

Recommended Future Works – There are a few experiments which could be conducted in order to expand on the research presented here. In Chapter II, we tested to see if *F. cylindrus* experiences B₁₂-mediated heat resistance, as was presented in *C. reinhardtii* by Xie et al., 2013. We determined that B₁₂ did not confer heat stress tolerance in *F. cylindrus*, but were not able to propose a mechanism for the difference in responses. MetE transcripts declined in *C. reinhardtii* at lethal temperatures. In contrast, we were able to detect the protein in *F.*

cyllindrus after exposure to lethal temperatures. However, it is possible we detected MetE peptides after transcripts had already decreased in *F. cyllindrus*. In order to elucidate the reason for the difference in responses between *F. cyllindrus* and *C. reinhardtii*, a time series experiment should be conducted with protein and transcript measurements in both organisms. The difference in activity of *F. cyllindrus* and *C. reinhardtii* MetH and MetE should also be compared at a range of temperatures. Chapter II also presented possible evidence that *F. cyllindrus* may be able to remodel degraded cobalamin molecules with a chimeric Co-chelatase. *F. cyllindrus*' ability to utilize portions of degraded cobalamin molecules and DMB should be explored using multifactorial experiments in a -MetE mutant.

In Chapter III, it was postulated that *F. cyllindrus* maintains a high baseline MetH expression compared to *P. tricornutum* due to decreased methionine synthesis capacity at low temperatures. The catalysis rate of MetH and MetE at temperatures of 37 °C and higher has been measured in *E. coli* (Grabowski *et al.*, 2012), but not at lower temperatures to our knowledge. The activity of these enzymes at temperatures between -2 °C and 37 °C should be quantified in order to continue to examine this hypothesis in the context of psychrophiles. Lastly, the quotas of major osmolytes in *F. cyllindrus* (DMSP, proline, and GBT, and homarine; Boroujerdi *et al.*, 2012) under vitamin B₁₂ deprivation should be quantified. We were able to provide relative quantification of DMSP between treatments for our samples, but absolute quantification would allow for calculations of carbon and sulfur availability to heterotrophic bacteria from lysed *F. cyllindrus* cells. For these measurements, our MS method can be altered to facilitate better quantification of these metabolites.

Implications & Significance – As researchers studying microbial ecophysiology, we attempt to make assertions about the nature of organism function under varying environmental conditions. This is conducted in careful, controlled environments, and in the case of these experiments and many others, with a single organism in isolation. Additionally, changes to growth rate have been historically considered the prominent method for assessing nutrient limitation. However, these idealized conditions and narrow scope fail to capture the notion that microbial eukaryotes like *F. cylindrus* inhabit complex and diverse assemblages that freely exchange compounds for energy, signalling, and a variety of other purposes. Thereby, any response to an environmental variable has the possibility to impact others in the community, leading to cascading consequences. We still possess only a shallow understanding of the granularity required to address the consequences of micronutrient limitation on microbial interactions (Worden *et al.*, 2015). This research, along with other proteomic and metabolomic studies both in culture and *in situ*, contributes information that begins to allow us to unravel the mystery of microbial function and interactions in the face of stressors like vitamin B₁₂ deprivation.

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Appendix A: Supporting Information

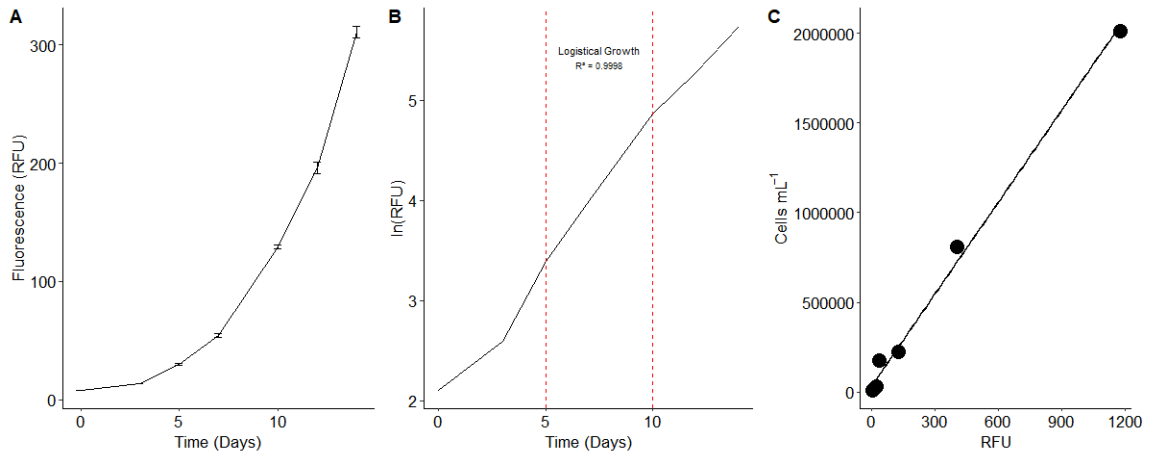


Figure S2.1: a) Fluorescence measurements in RFU (Relative Fluorescence Units) of a single culture of *F. cylindrus* with each symbol representing the mean of 3 technical replicates taken by a Turner hand-held fluorometer. Error bars represent standard deviation. Fluorescence is expected to increase proportionally with cell density due to the presence of chlorophyll-a. **b)** $\ln(\text{RFU})$ of the same culture's growth. Exponential growth phase marked by the time points at which the slope of $\ln(\text{RFU})$ is linear (between 29 and 129 RFU) . $R = .9998$. **c)** Regression demonstrating a linear relationship between cell counts and RFU measure on a Turner handheld fluorometer from *F. cylindrus* cells in the logistical stage of growth. $R^2 = .9941$; $y = 5.827e-04x - 1.866e+01$.

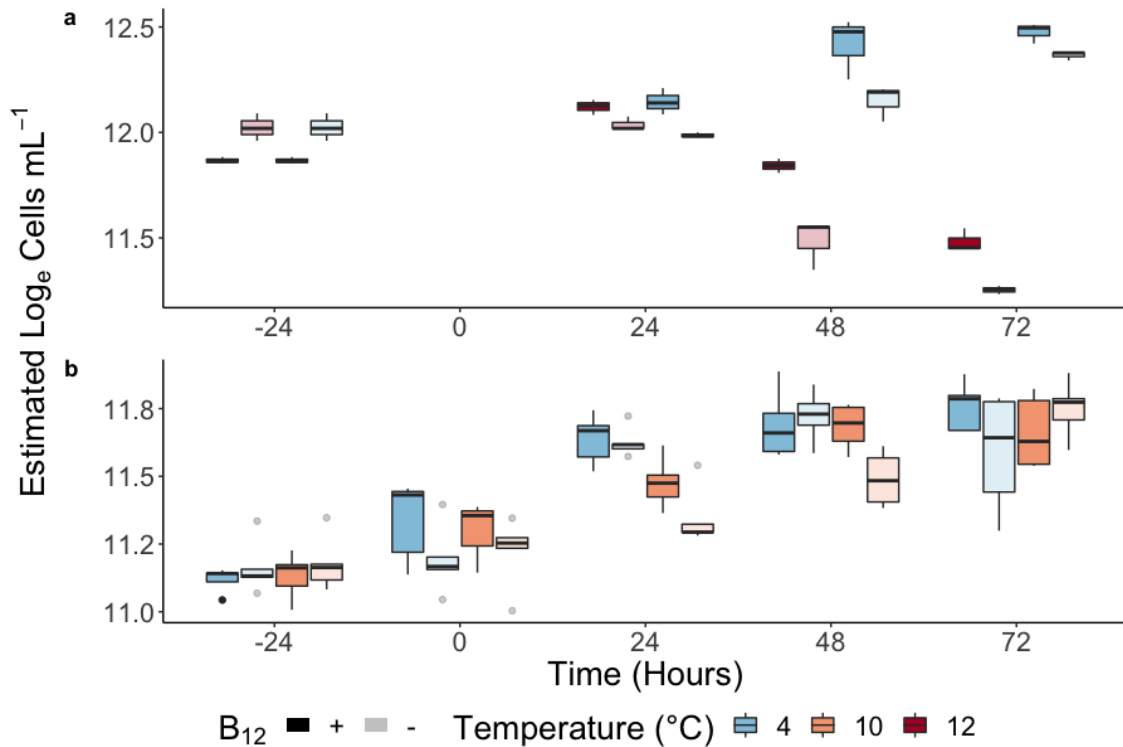


Figure S2.2: Boxplot of *F. cylindrus* cell densities over time after exposure to temperature treatments, estimated from chl-a fluorescence measured with a handheld fluorometer. **a)** Biomass was split and exposed to control (4 °C; blue), and lethal (12 °C; red) temperature treatments at 0 hours, and with and without the addition of vitamin B₁₂ to the culture medium. Cell density declines over time after exposure to 12° C compared to control. **b)** Biomass was split and exposed to control (4 °C; blue), and sub-lethal (10 °C; orange) temperature treatments at 0 hours, and with and without the addition of vitamin B₁₂ to the culture medium. Cell density in the 10 °C treatment remains similar to that of the control. In both plots, boxes show IQR (interquartile range), with horizontal lines denoting the median and vertical lines showing minimum and maximum values of 3 biological replicates per treatment. Color saturation represents B₁₂ treatment, with translucent boxes representing B₁₂-deplete and saturated boxes representing B₁₂ replete treatments.

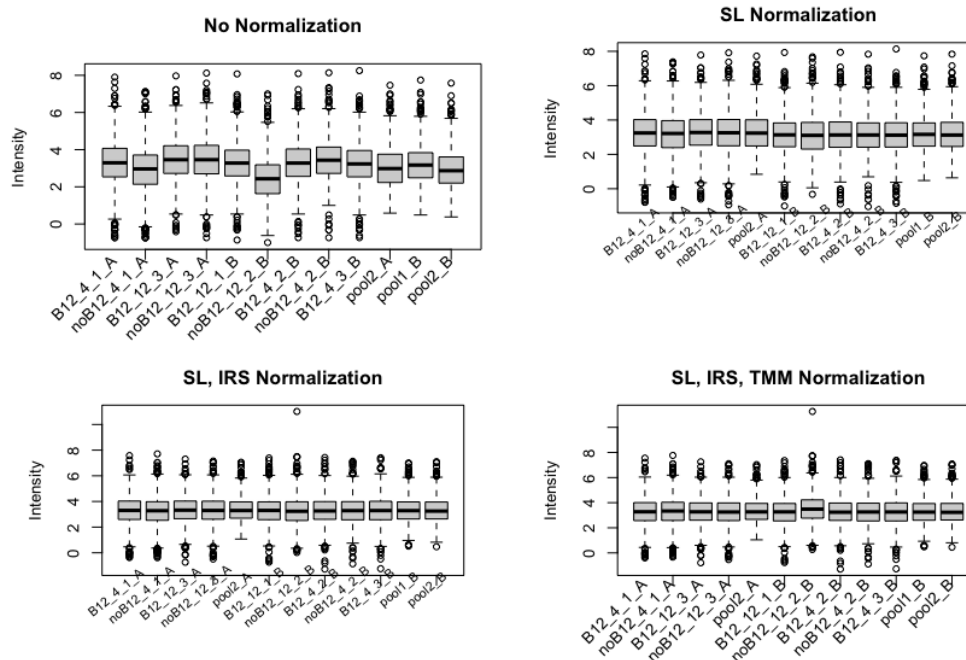


Figure S2.3: Plots showing the effects of each normalization step for protein data collected from the TMT discovery experiment. Protein intensity distributions are shown for each treatment or pool. Panel A shows protein intensities before normalization, panel B shows them after sample loading normalization, panel C shows them after internal reference scaling (IRS) normalization, and panel D shows them after trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) normalization. Sample names on the x-axis denote treatment details as follows: B₁₂ treatment (B₁₂ or noB₁₂) temperature treatment (4 or 12 °C), replicate number (1, 2, or 3) and TMT pool (A or B).

Table S2.1: Wash steps for in-gel protein digestion procedure

Volume (µl)	Solvent	time (min.)	Temp (°C)	Note
1000	50% Acetonitrile 50% 100 mM Ammonium Bicarbonate	60	20	350 rpm shaking
1000	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
300	10 mM Dithiothreitol, 100 mM Ammonium Bicarbonate	30	56	350 rpm shaking
1000	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
1000	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
300	55 mM IAM, 100 mM Ammonium Bicarbonate	30	20	incubate in the dark, no shaking
1000	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
1000	100 mM Ambic	30	20	350 rpm shaking
1000	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
1000	100 mM Ammonium Bicarbonate	30	20	350 rpm shaking
1000	50% Acetonitrile 50% 100 mM Ammonium Bicarbonate	30	20	350 rpm shaking
600	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
600	Acetonitrile	5	20	350 rpm shaking
	Dry in vacufuge	15	-	Proceed to digestion or store at -80 °C

Table S2.2: Details of peptides analyzed for targeted proteomic analysis, including peptide sequence and charge, precursor and product m/z, fragment ions, collision energy, and SRM rank (with 1 having greatest signal), retention time (RT), limit of detection (LOD), and limit of quantification (LOQ). Peptide details for MetE and MetH are from Bertrand *et al.*, 2012 and 2013, respectively.

Peptide name	Peptide (charge state)	Precursor (m/z)	Product (m/z)	Fragment ion	Collision Energy (V)	SRM rank	RT (min)	LOD	LOQ	Internal standard
<i>F. cylindrus</i> MetE	VIQVDEPALR(+2)	570.32	456.29	y4	26.8	1	20	0.2	0.6	98% pure
			700.36	y6	19.7	3				
			799.43	y7	19.1	2				
			927.49	y8	19.2	4				
	VIQVDEPAL(13C15N)R(+2)	573.83	463.31	y3	26.8	1				
			707.38	y4	19.7	3				
			806.45	y5	19.1	2				
			934.51	y6	19.2	4				
			588.31	y5	28	3				
			800.46	y7	32.7	4				
1296.69	y12	26.8	2							
<i>F. cylindrus</i> MetH	ISGGISNLSFGFR(+2)	677.86	613.31	y5	23.9	2	27	0.2	1.3	99.8% pure
			840.44	y7	24.2	3				
			927.47	y8	24	1				
			1154.60	y11	24.6	4				
	ISGGISNL(13C15N)SFGFR(+2)	681.37	613.31	y5	23.9	2				
			847.45	y7	24.2	3				
			934.49	y8	24	1				
			1161.61	y11	24.6	4				

Table S2.3: Matrix of sample and pool labeling for tandem mass tagging (TMT) workflow. Each channel represents one of the ten TMT10plex isotopic labels. Each pool is one set of the two TMT10plexes used. Pools were made by mixing 10 μ L of each sample. 44 μ L of each sample and pool was labeled with 16 μ L of corresponding TMT reagent. Samples are denoted by B₁₂ (+/-B₁₂) and temperature (4 or 12) treatment. Some channels contained samples from a separate experiment not described in this manuscript.

Pool	Channel									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	+B ₁₂ /4	-B ₁₂ /4	+B ₁₂ /10	-B ₁₂ /10	+B ₁₂ /12	-B ₁₂ /12	+B ₁₂ /10	EMPTY	EMPTY	POOL
B	+B ₁₂ /12	-B ₁₂ /12	-B ₁₂ /12	+B ₁₂ /12	-B ₁₂ /10	+B ₁₂ /4	-B ₁₂ /4	+B ₁₂ /4	POOL	POOL

Table S2.4: Table demonstrating how the removal of treatments affects protein quantification yield after IRS normalization in the TMT experiment on *F. cylindrus* biomass 24 hours after exposure to high temperature treatment. We chose to exclude both B12_12_2_B and noB12_12_1_B from the analysis to increase the number of proteins which could be quantified². Sample names indicate B₁₂ treatment (B₁₂ or noB₁₂), temperature treatment (4 or 12), biological replicate number (1, 2, or 3), and TMT experiment (either A or B, as we used two TMT 10plex sets) separated by underscores.

	Including all Samples	Removal of Sample B12_12_2_B	Removal of Samples B12_12_2_B and noB12_12_1_B
Number of Proteins for Relative Quantification	495	1344	1357

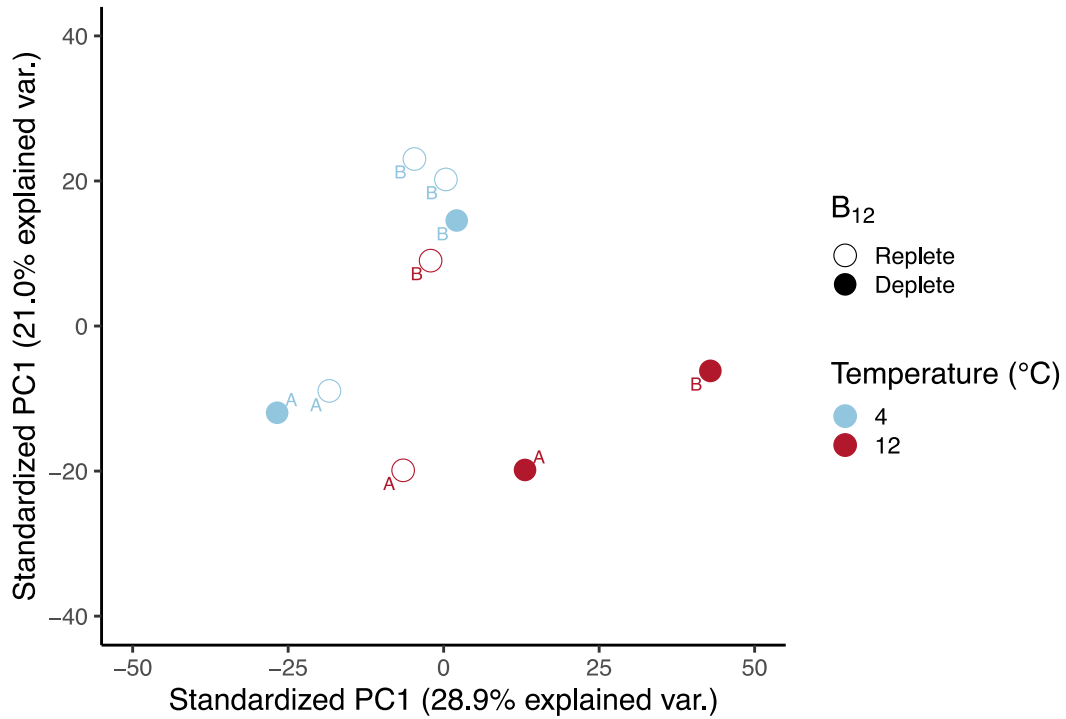


Figure S2.4: Principal component analysis of all normalized proteins observed in a TMT experiment with biomass from *F. cylindrus* cultures 24 hours after exposure to temperature treatments. Colors represent temperature treatment, with blue representing the control treatment (4 °C) and red representing the elevated temperature treatment (12 °C). Open circles represent B₁₂-replete cultures and closed circles represent B₁₂-deplete cultures. Each point is labeled by pool (either A or B, as we used two TMT 10plex sets).

Table S2.5: List of proteins differentially expressed in response to B₁₂ deprivation in *F. cylindrus*. This list was generated by a pairwise comparison between control cultures (cultured at 4 °C in B₁₂ replete media) and cultures grown at 4 °C with B₁₂ deplete media. NCBI protein products, gene ID's and corresponding KEGG numbers (KO) are included. A negative fold change represents a protein that is downregulated in the absence of B₁₂.

Protein Product	Name	Gene ID	KO	log2 Fold Change	log2 mean spectral abundance	P-Value
OEU11144.1	MetE	228154	K00549	5.28	11.13	3.85E-06
OEU10229.1	protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelata- se subunit D	247844	-	1.98	8.56	1.68E-03
OEU11214.1	CBA1	246327	-	2.44	9.37	1.84E-03
OEU18387.1	P-ATPase family transporter: zinc/lead/cadmium/merc ury ion	168079	K01534	1.21	9.77	3.00E-03
OEU08987.1	T-complex protein 1 subunit gamma	195967	K09495	1.01	10.29	6.26E-03
OEU18337.1	P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase protein	274747	K12812	1.80	10.35	8.01E-03
OEU09871.1	ribosomal protein S12	271288	K02951	1.44	11.11	9.46E-03
OEU15295.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_20884 8	208848	K14006	-1.20	9.00	1.95E-02
OEU21485.1	Cys_Met_Meta_PP- domain-containing protein	259901	-	-1.37	8.72	2.03E-02
QGA73596	photosystem I p700 chlorophyll A apoprotein B (chloroplast)	177336 2818	-	0.89	10.61	2.25E-02
OEU18451.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_26039 7	260397	-	1.13	9.76	2.51E-02
OEU11984.1	casein kinase I delta	211208	K08959	-1.30	9.26	2.58E-02
OEU17392.1	Putative glucose-6- phosphate dehydrogenase	207660	K00036	0.84	11.23	2.68E-02
OEU16003.1	porphobilinogen synthase	218256	K01698	-1.09	10.44	2.76E-02
OEU09987.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_27116 2	271162	-	2.02	8.41	2.82E-02
OEU17697.1	argininosuccinate synthase	207847	K01940	-0.75	10.50	3.04E-02
OEU15128.1	acetate CoA ligase	239808	K01895	-1.45	9.46	3.04E-02
OEU18543.1	TPR-like protein	183685	K09553	-1.21	9.08	3.38E-02

OEU07841.1	serine hydroxymethyltransferase	277738	K00600	1.14	10.36	3.77E-02
OEU14774.1	Chloro_a_b-bind-domain- containing protein	170761	-	0.51	10.53	3.93E-02
OEU21644.1	mitochondrial 2- oxoglutarate/malate carrier protein	291486	-	1.11	11.38	4.19E-02
OEU12438.1	phosphofructokinase	263182	K00895	0.91	9.40	4.29E-02
OEU15780.1	chlorophyll a/b-binding protein	170453	-	-1.08	8.82	4.50E-02
OEU21243.1	cell division protease ftsH 4	206298	K03798	-1.03	10.33	4.72E-02
OEU15135.1	3-phosphoshikimate 1- carboxyvinyltransferase	226008	K00800	-0.65	9.92	5.00E-02

Table S2.6: List of proteins differentially expressed after 24 hours of exposure to an elevated temperature treatment (12 °C) in *F. cylindrus*. This list was generated by a pairwise comparison between control cultures (cultured at 4 °C in B₁₂ replete media) and cultures grown at 12 °C with B₁₂ replete media. NCBI protein products, gene ID's and corresponding KEGG numbers are included. A negative fold change represents a protein that is downregulated in response to elevated temperatures.

Protein Product	Name	Gene ID	KO	log2 Fold Change	log2 mean spectral abundance	P-Value
OEU08040.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_27 1832	271832	-	3.12	9.62	1.49E-05
OEU16390.1	ThiC	225659	K03147	-2.30	9.62	6.55E-05
OEU17510.1	60S ribosomal protein L24	268718	K02896	-1.81	9.74	1.18E-04
OEU23398.1	barren-domain- containing protein	233571	K06676	1.39	10.71	2.38E-04
OEU08856.1	GTP-binding protein EngA	196010	-	-1.91	9.09	2.41E-04
OEU12584.1	chromosome assembly protein	210755	K06674	1.50	9.95	5.88E-04
OEU08435.1	Flavocytochrome c P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase protein	196661	-	1.45	9.81	8.51E-04
OEU15214.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_23 5337	208780	-	-1.81	9.02	1.50E-03
OEU19288.1	P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase protein	235337	-	2.89	7.93	1.61E-03
OEU23066.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_26 2424	205573	-	1.45	9.15	1.80E-03
OEU13881.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_23 6198	262424	-	1.48	9.23	2.43E-03
OEU20131.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_27 5154	236198	-	-2.35	8.96	2.78E-03
OEU17620.1	DEAD-domain- containing protein	275154	-	-1.24	9.50	3.01E-03
OEU18398.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_26 0278	183391	K12823	-1.07	10.02	3.92E-03
OEU20259.1	protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase subunit D charged	260278	-	0.92	10.72	4.43E-03
OEU15576.1	multivesicular body protein	170289	K03404	-0.95	10.36	4.61E-03
OEU15125.1		169934	K12197	1.40	10.02	4.86E-03

OEU10171.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_17 3335	173335	-	-0.67	10.87	5.10E-03
OEU16003.1	porphobilinogen synthase	218256	K01698	-1.50	10.44	7.23E-03
OEU17057.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_23 9660	239660	-	1.47	8.64	8.38E-03
OEU13503.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_24 1836	241836	-	1.19	10.12	1.00E-02
OEU20628.1	(E)-4-hydroxy-3- methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate synthase	259614	K03526	-0.80	10.08	1.20E-02
OEU20689.1	Ribonuc_red_lgC- domain-containing protein putative	205957	-	-1.11	9.27	1.33E-02
OEU07775.1	dehydroascorbate reductase	229440	-	-0.79	10.13	1.35E-02
OEU18066.1	protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase subunit H methionine	261055	K03403	-1.49	8.69	1.53E-02
OEU21646.1	sulfoxide reductase B putative GDP- mannose 4,6- dehydratase	274188	-	-1.40	8.74	1.78E-02
OEU20813.1	putative glutathione S-transferase	206067	K01711	-1.46	8.65	1.95E-02
OEU08698.1	putative glutathione S-transferase	196320	K04097	1.05	9.21	2.13E-02
OEU12494.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_19 1288, partial FAD-binding	191288	-	-0.68	11.37	2.15E-02
OEU17774.1	domain-containing protein	207885	-	0.97	9.40	2.28E-02
OEU13317.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_24 1655	241655	-	-0.88	9.96	2.37E-02
OEU09370.1	WD40 repeat-like protein	228652	K14830	-0.78	10.27	2.46E-02
OEU17651.1	FAD-linked oxidoreductase	268766	K00318	-1.00	9.32	2.46E-02
OEU13382.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_17 0947, partial	170947	-	-0.51	11.01	2.60E-02
OEU08538.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_17 4052, partial	174052	K07905	1.50	9.70	2.97E-02
OEU17546.1	proteasome subunit alpha	275128	K02729	1.40	10.50	3.11E-02
OEU20754.1	P-type ATPase	206011	K14950	0.84	9.85	3.14E-02

OEU15601.1	WD40 repeat-like protein, partial	156423	K14556	-0.70	10.01	3.21E-02
OEU21863.1	peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase B	232008	-	0.83	9.38	3.38E-02
OEU08126.1	Carboxyl_trans-domain-containing protein, partial	145710	K11262	-0.48	11.36	3.52E-02
OEU22171.1	Band_7-domain-containing protein	205091	-	0.74	9.76	3.58E-02
OEU17563.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_237983	237983	-	-0.86	9.30	3.83E-02
OEU20373.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_236448	236448	-	-0.85	9.39	3.90E-02
OEU18937.1	uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase	268500	K01599	-1.11	8.75	3.94E-02
OEU15135.1	3-phosphoshikimate 1-carboxyvinyltransferase	226008	K00800	-0.70	9.92	3.95E-02
OEU22102.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_179260	179260	-	-0.69	10.00	4.08E-02
OEU18445.1	P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase protein, partial	182871	-	-0.88	9.28	4.38E-02
OEU20523.1	Aldo/keto reductase	180596	-	0.60	10.17	4.39E-02
OEU07292.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_251075	251075	-	0.86	9.22	4.90E-02
OEU17472.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_183826	183826	-	-0.56	10.25	4.94E-02

Table S2.7: List of proteins differentially expressed after 24 hours of exposure to both the elevated temperature treatment (12 °C) and B₁₂ deprivation in *F. cylindrus*. This list was generated by a pairwise comparison between control cultures (cultured at 4 °C in B₁₂ replete media) and cultures grown at 12 °C with B₁₂ deplete media. NCBI protein products, gene ID's and corresponding KEGG numbers (KO) are included. A negative fold change represents a protein that is downregulated in response the stressors.

Protein Product	Name	Gene ID	KO	log ₂ Fold Change	log ₂ mean spectral abundance	P-Value
OEU08040.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_271 832	271832	-	3.50	9.62	2.70E-06
OEU11144.1	MetE	228154	K00549	4.97	11.13	7.17E-06
OEU08856.1	GTP-binding protein EngA	196010	-	-2.67	9.09	2.81E-05
OEU17620.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_275 154	275154	-	-2.06	9.50	5.12E-05
OEU17510.1	60S ribosomal protein L24	268718	K02896	-1.83	9.74	7.77E-05
OEU15214.1	P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate hydrolase protein	208780	-	-3.04	9.02	9.53E-05
OEU10171.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_173 335	173335	-	-1.17	10.87	1.17E-04
OEU14436.1	C2-domain- containing protein	269584	-	1.32	10.61	1.76E-04
OEU13762.1	phosphoglycerate kinase precursor	209933	K00927	-1.22	10.73	1.80E-04
OEU22265.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_258 994	258994	K01624	1.48	10.27	3.45E-04
OEU12251.1	cytochrome b5	172305	K23490	2.23	8.36	4.30E-04
OEU17472.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_183 826	183826	-	-1.31	10.25	4.30E-04
OEU16390.1	ThiC	225659	K03147	-1.51	9.62	4.81E-04
OEU19455.1	ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme	167665	K06689	1.82	8.69	5.33E-04
OEU20628.1	(E)-4-hydroxy-3- methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate synthase	259614	K03526	-1.16	10.08	5.51E-04
OEU17563.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_237 983	237983	-	-1.52	9.30	5.92E-04
OEU11214.1	CBA1	246327	-	2.66	9.37	6.78E-04
OEU18387.1	P-ATPase family transporter: zinc/lead/cadmium/m ercury ion	168079	K01534	1.40	9.77	8.00E-04

OEU08126.1	Carboxyl trans-domain-containing protein, partial hypothetical protein	145710	K11262	-0.96	11.36	8.20E-04
OEU13881.1	FRACYDRAFT_262424	262424	-	1.62	9.23	8.43E-04
OEU20381.1	5-oxoprolinase	260195	K01469	1.73	10.35	1.02E-03
OEU12584.1	chromosome assembly protein hypothetical protein	210755	K06674	1.36	9.95	1.10E-03
OEU17661.1	FRACYDRAFT_268767	268767	-	-1.05	11.19	1.14E-03
OEU10229.1	protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase subunit D	247844	-	1.99	8.56	1.33E-03
OEU18937.1	uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase	268500	K01599	-2.03	8.75	1.37E-03
1773362865	ATP synthase CF1 epsilon subunit (chloroplast) [Fragilariopsis cylindrus] protein	-	-	1.29	9.30	1.46E-03
OEU21928.1	serine/threonine phosphatase 2C hypothetical protein	204950	K14803	-0.82	11.10	1.48E-03
OEU18940.1	FRACYDRAFT_207292	207292	K00326	1.06	9.86	1.61E-03
OEU20373.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_236448	236448	-	-1.61	9.39	1.69E-03
OEU19890.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_206674	206674	-	1.16	9.37	1.70E-03
OEU18901.1	acyltransferase, partial hypothetical protein	158788	K00630	-1.01	10.85	1.74E-03
OEU20259.1	FRACYDRAFT_260278	260278	-	1.03	10.72	1.79E-03
OEU21739.1	ATP-dependent hsl protease ATP-binding subunit hslU, partial	158033	K03667	1.90	8.34	1.96E-03
OEU14527.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_218563	218563	K02266	0.84	10.48	2.14E-03
OEU16276.1	glutamine-hydrolyzing asparagine synthase	208140	K01953	-0.83	12.22	2.17E-03
OEU17774.1	FAD-binding domain-containing protein	207885	-	1.19	9.40	2.24E-03
OEU18445.1	P-loop containing nucleoside triphosphate	182871	-	-1.38	9.28	2.36E-03

OEU09292.1	hydrolase protein, partial chloroplast sedoheptulose-1,7- bisphosphatase	195411	K01100	-1.02	10.06	2.51E-03
OEU14387.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_275 849	275849	K08994	1.04	10.24	2.57E-03
OEU15875.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_240 571	240571	-	-0.88	10.89	2.69E-03
OEU10445.1	putative rhodopsin	287459	-	1.14	9.84	2.85E-03
OEU08420.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_264 537	264537	-	-1.21	9.66	3.04E-03
OEU15601.1	WD40 repeat-like protein, partial putative	156423	K14556	-1.11	10.01	3.09E-03
OEU07775.1	dehydroascorbate reductase	229440	-	-1.02	10.13	3.13E-03
OEU22263.1	RNA-binding domain-containing protein, partial	155400	-	-2.07	9.25	3.64E-03
OEU18828.1	stabilizer of iron transporter SufD	268455	-	-1.18	9.58	3.65E-03
OEU17803.1	fucoxanthin chlorophyll a/c protein	260998	-	-0.73	10.83	3.78E-03
OEU20728.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_234 360	234360	-	-0.83	11.29	3.85E-03
OEU20070.1	putative acetyl-CoA acyltransferase	268162	K07508	1.53	9.80	3.96E-03
OEU19288.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_235 337	235337	-	2.64	7.93	4.10E-03
OEU21654.1	putative aureochrome	205854	-	-0.76	11.22	4.40E-03
OEU20818.1	HopJ-domain- containing protein	259707	-	-0.99	9.91	4.60E-03
OEU15771.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_209 201	209201	-	1.07	9.42	4.98E-03
OEU14002.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_171 314	171314	-	1.69	8.45	5.03E-03
OEU20557.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_234 188	234188	K15128	-0.85	10.56	5.06E-03
OEU18602.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_268 368	268368	-	-1.12	9.86	5.06E-03
OEU15576.1	protoporphyrin IX Mg-chelatase subunit D	170289	K03404	-0.90	10.36	5.20E-03

OEU07355.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_197 708	197708	-	-0.85	10.76	5.22E-03
OEU08435.1	Flavocytochrome c	196661	-	1.11	9.81	5.41E-03
OEU20496.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_216 497	216497	K17278	1.45	8.60	5.62E-03
OEU19598.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_235 658	235658	-	1.52	9.46	5.65E-03
OEU19234.1	cobW-domain- containing protein	274493	-	1.62	11.25	5.65E-03
OEU16551.1	fucoxanthin chlorophyll a/c protein	208340	-	1.95	10.12	5.68E-03
OEU13767.1	Coatomer, alpha subunit	226883	K05236	-0.77	10.50	5.80E-03
OEU21652.1	uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase, partial	216482	K01599	-1.07	9.85	6.23E-03
OEU10218.1	FAS1 domain- containing protein, partial	194372	-	1.30	8.70	6.39E-03
OEU08930.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_249 273	249273	-	-1.12	9.49	6.43E-03
OEU15320.1	ThiJ/PfpI domain- containing protein	269315	-	1.62	8.29	6.54E-03
OEU22272.1	V-type ATPase 16 kDa proteolipid subunit	205176	K02155	1.41	8.76	6.55E-03
OEU16201.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_225 570	225570	K15979	-1.37	9.43	6.65E-03
OEU21646.1	methionine sulfoxide reductase B	274188	-	-1.55	8.74	6.98E-03
OEU16091.1	calcium ATPase, partial	136216	K01535	0.94	9.62	7.29E-03
OEU13387.1	ARM repeat- containing protein	170952	K20221	-0.92	9.82	7.41E-03
OEU22110.1	putative methyltransferase	178178	K07755	1.12	9.20	7.44E-03
OEU18800.1	T-complex protein 1	237081	K09496	-1.30	9.48	7.56E-03
OEU09370.1	WD40 repeat-like protein	228652	K14830	-0.97	10.27	7.89E-03
OEU20434.1	RraA-like protein	216468	-	0.85	10.02	8.02E-03
OEU09038.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_271 650	271650	-	-0.74	10.58	8.29E-03
OEU06473.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_265 856	265856	-	1.16	10.73	8.35E-03
OEU15467.1	Triosephosphate isomerase	269372	-	-0.66	12.23	8.68E-03

OEU17549.1	Adaptor protein complex AP-1 gamma subunit	225310	K12391	0.99	9.27	8.74E-03
OEU11139.1	putative 6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase	211512	K00033	1.45	10.24	8.74E-03
OEU09673.1	Trypanothione reductase	228584	-	-1.22	9.32	8.76E-03
OEU22140.1	Sm-like ribonucleo protein, partial	215974	K11086	-1.09	10.36	8.98E-03
OEU12494.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_191288, partial	191288	-	-0.80	11.37	9.17E-03
OEU18900.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_182579	182579	K14617	0.96	9.52	9.35E-03
OEU20131.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_236198	236198	-	-1.55	8.96	1.02E-02
OEU14823.1	extrinsic protein in photosystem II	269688	-	-0.91	10.85	1.08E-02
OEU19975.1	protein prenyltransferase	260174	K14050	-1.17	9.31	1.08E-02
OEU23729.1	4-Diphosphocytidyl-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol synthase	205256	K00991	-0.77	10.13	1.09E-02
OEU18748.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_182880	182880	-	5.08	13.69	1.15E-02
OEU11299.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_270952	270952	-	-0.98	9.61	1.15E-02
OEU15300.1	kinase domain-containing protein	269308	K08794	0.73	10.26	1.16E-02
OEU11757.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_263309	263309	-	1.23	8.71	1.19E-02
OEU17909.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_238339	238339	-	1.51	10.31	1.19E-02
OEU17651.1	FAD-linked oxidoreductase	268766	K00318	-1.08	9.32	1.19E-02
OEU15623.1	Peptidase_M16-domain-containing protein	209078	K01408	-1.32	9.42	1.19E-02
OEU20689.1	Ribonuc_red_lgC-domain-containing protein	205957	-	-1.05	9.27	1.20E-02
OEU12919.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_263086	263086	K00366	-1.04	9.41	1.20E-02
OEU10909.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_246784	246784	-	-0.81	10.24	1.22E-02

OEU20087.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_268 171, partial	268171	-	-0.84	10.29	1.26E-02
OEU11984.1	casein kinase I delta	211208	K08959	-1.49	9.26	1.27E-02
OEU16010.1	pyruvate carboxylase	186955	K01958	-1.08	9.47	1.28E-02
OEU18398.1	DEAD-domain- containing protein	183391	K12823	-0.80	10.02	1.35E-02
OEU18742.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_217 304	217304	-	1.06	9.06	1.35E-02
OEU20457.1	NAD(P)-binding protein	267643	K00344	-2.09	9.57	1.38E-02
OEU21875.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_232 020	232020	-	1.70	7.94	1.42E-02
OEU11005.1	Band_7-domain- containing protein	270904	-	1.03	12.01	1.46E-02
OEU20597.1	eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 subunit alpha	267694	K03237	1.32	8.97	1.47E-02
OEU16607.1	zeaxanthin epoxidase	208380	K09838	-0.74	11.00	1.52E-02
OEU16909.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_156 996, partial	156996	-	-1.17	9.33	1.53E-02
1773362895	Mg-protoporphyrin IX chelatase (chloroplast) [Fragilariopsis cylindrus]	-	-	-0.88	10.36	1.53E-02
OEU18675.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_236 954	236954	-	-0.86	10.26	1.53E-02
OEU21733.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_231 878	231878	K14721	-0.66	10.72	1.59E-02
OEU15012.1	ribulose-1,5- bisphosphate carboxylase-like protein	269187	-	-0.78	10.11	1.59E-02
OEU15501.1	ribosomal protein L13	170235	K02872	-0.79	9.98	1.60E-02
OEU18465.1	actin depolymerizing factor	206967	K05765	0.83	9.64	1.67E-02
OEU21653.1	geranylgeranyl reductase	267781	K10960	-1.03	9.66	1.68E-02
OEU15628.1	putative nucleoside- diphosphate kinase	269435	K00940	-1.02	9.42	1.70E-02
OEU07664.1	FAS1 domain- containing protein	250682	-	-0.86	9.81	1.70E-02
OEU17742.1	rieske iron-sulfur protein of cytochrome B6/F complex	268792	K02636	1.48	8.83	1.75E-02
OEU20988.1	transaldolase	216674	-	-1.70	8.45	1.76E-02

OEU18733.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_268 420	268420	K11275	1.22	8.80	1.78E-02
OEU18802.1	3HCDH_N-domain- containing protein	207194	-	-1.41	8.81	1.78E-02
OEU13018.1	GrpE nucleotide exchange factor	219337	K03687	1.06	9.70	2.03E-02
OEU10937.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_193 278	193278	-	-0.64	10.60	2.07E-02
OEU14763.1	V-ATPase subunit A4	170746	K02145	0.57	10.44	2.12E-02
OEU18180.1	putative UDP- glucose-4-epimerase	291631	K01784	-0.72	10.15	2.16E-02
OEU13634.1	cyclophilin-like protein	226832	-	0.95	9.91	2.18E-02
OEU16045.1	serine-tRNA ligase	185157	K01875	1.44	10.16	2.20E-02
OEU07882.1	putative UDP- glucose 6- dehydrogenase	271881	K00012	-0.91	9.54	2.32E-02
OEU12635.1	CKS-domain- containing protein	191189	K02219	-0.71	11.19	2.33E-02
OEU14710.1	TPT-domain- containing protein	188055	-	0.55	10.62	2.33E-02
OEU18421.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_260 383	260383	-	-1.43	9.17	2.39E-02
OEU16221.1	hydroxymethylglutar yl-CoA reductase	268919	K00021	-0.89	9.47	2.44E-02
OEU21853.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_258 825	258825	-	-0.81	9.80	2.45E-02
OEU16482.1	prohibitin 2	208283	K17081	-1.10	10.41	2.47E-02
OEU15673.1	ribosomal protein S19	261793	K02974	-1.13	9.02	2.54E-02
OEU22910.1	SpoU_methylase- domain-containing protein	178319	K15507	-0.83	10.58	2.55E-02
OEU11877.1	CONSTANS interacting protein 3	172528	-	0.74	9.81	2.58E-02
OEU23312.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_267 500, partial	267500	-	1.46	8.13	2.58E-02
OEU21268.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_234 895	234895	-	-1.17	8.95	2.59E-02
OEU22415.1	long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase	259065	-	0.80	9.70	2.60E-02
OEU13317.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_241 655	241655	-	-0.82	9.96	2.67E-02
OEU18400.1	SOUL-domain- containing protein	168094	-	-1.00	10.08	2.68E-02
OEU13347.1	HEAT repeat- containing protein	209669	K12828	0.80	9.90	2.75E-02

OEU15709.1	Ribokinase-like protein, partial chloroplast	159706	K00852	-0.56	10.71	2.77E-02
OEU22459.1	ferredoxin dependent NADH oxireductase hypothetical protein	205285	K02641	-0.64	13.07	2.77E-02
OEU13382.1	FRACYDRAFT_170947, partial hypothetical protein	170947	-	-0.50	11.01	2.77E-02
OEU14218.1	FRACYDRAFT_261913 hypothetical protein	261913	-	-0.79	9.74	2.83E-02
OEU15063.1	FRACYDRAFT_275536 hypothetical protein (chloroplast)	275536	K11275	1.20	9.15	2.86E-02
1783488216	[Fragilariopsis cylindrus]	-	-	0.99	9.02	2.87E-02
OEU14547.1	NAD(P)-binding protein, partial hypothetical protein	141982	-	1.21	9.09	2.92E-02
OEU14125.1	FRACYDRAFT_189149	189149	-	-0.90	9.35	2.92E-02
OEU18685.1	HAD-superfamily hydrolase	168304	-	-1.06	10.98	2.92E-02
OEU10673.1	Phosphoadenosine phosphosulfate reductase	211685	-	-0.91	9.40	2.93E-02
OEU09587.1	RecF/RecN/SMC protein hypothetical protein	212269	K06636	-1.07	9.56	2.99E-02
OEU14009.1	FRACYDRAFT_262468 protein	262468	-	1.29	8.47	3.00E-02
OEU16586.1	serine/threonine phosphatase 2C hypothetical protein	185298	K04461	1.01	8.83	3.05E-02
OEU08001.1	FRACYDRAFT_250221	250221	-	-0.84	10.56	3.09E-02
OEU09192.1	pyruvate kinase	228971	-	-0.74	10.02	3.11E-02
OEU09561.1	RPB5 subunit of DNA-directed RNA polymerase	271383	K03013	-0.57	10.58	3.19E-02
OEU17018.1	valyl-tRNA synthetase hypothetical protein	225934	K01873	-0.85	10.35	3.19E-02
OEU18358.1	FRACYDRAFT_260352	260352	-	0.86	10.98	3.20E-02
OEU14082.1	FRACYDRAFT_210096 hypothetical protein	210096	K09560	0.75	9.57	3.30E-02
OEU17081.1	ferredoxin NADP reductase	208164	K02641	-0.54	10.71	3.30E-02

OEU18328.1	Peptidase_M16-domain-containing protein	206890	K01408	-0.69	11.02	3.34E-02
OEU16122.1	RecF/RecN/SMC protein	208027	-	-0.93	9.75	3.36E-02
OEU16565.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_239160	239160	-	-0.96	9.36	3.41E-02
OEU17546.1	proteasome subunit alpha	275128	K02729	1.35	10.50	3.41E-02
OEU22012.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_258886	258886	-	-1.13	8.95	3.44E-02
OEU21377.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_259880	259880	-	1.17	9.04	3.48E-02
OEU07692.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_271909	271909	-	1.16	9.80	3.57E-02
OEU22606.1	S1-domain-containing protein	267338	-	-0.82	9.79	3.59E-02
OEU08045.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_271833	271833	-	0.42	11.30	3.69E-02
OEU15101.1	phosphoglycerate kinase precursor vacuolar ATP	208673	K00927	-0.85	9.54	3.70E-02
OEU13681.1	synthase subunit D 1, partial	161225	K02149	1.20	8.39	3.76E-02
OEU19363.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_268006	268006	-	-0.80	10.13	3.77E-02
OEU13365.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_269789	269789	-	1.36	8.14	3.81E-02
OEU15722.1	ARM repeat-containing protein	269467	K02144	1.27	8.30	3.90E-02
OEU16192.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_169281	169281	-	-1.09	9.44	4.03E-02
OEU19684.1	tRNA-synt_2c-domain-containing protein	206558	K01872	-0.58	10.17	4.04E-02
OEU07887.1	RecF/RecN/SMC protein	212991	-	0.96	9.79	4.05E-02
OEU13605.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_269879	269879	-	-0.88	9.87	4.11E-02
OEU16561.1	large ribosomal subunit L27	269038	K02901	-0.77	9.65	4.15E-02
OEU09468.1	ARM repeat-containing protein	271348	-	0.95	8.81	4.18E-02
OEU21089.1	fucoxanthin chlorophyll a/c protein	206215	-	-0.84	11.09	4.21E-02

OEU13453.1	2-oxoacid_dh- domain-containing protein	170993	K00627	0.52	12.62	4.25E-02
OEU17497.1	ribosomal protein L2	268713	K02938	-0.97	9.49	4.29E-02
OEU08344.1	carbanyl phosphate synthetase	264682	-	-1.54	9.08	4.36E-02
OEU19211.1	1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate synthase	206899	K01662	-1.18	8.65	4.67E-02
OEU11855.1	phosphoglycerate mutase	211179	K01834	0.97	9.25	4.75E-02
OEU17951.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_238 382	238382	-	1.09	8.59	4.84E-02
OEU21292.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_259 855	259855	-	2.12	10.55	4.90E-02
OEU15228.1	aminotransferase, classes I and II superfamily	226057	-	-0.78	9.52	4.91E-02
OEU10013.1	hypothetical protein FRACYDRAFT_271 172, partial	271172	-	-0.44	10.98	4.97E-02
OEU17572.1	Topoisom_I_N- domain-containing protein	225326	K03163	-0.53	10.74	5.00E-02

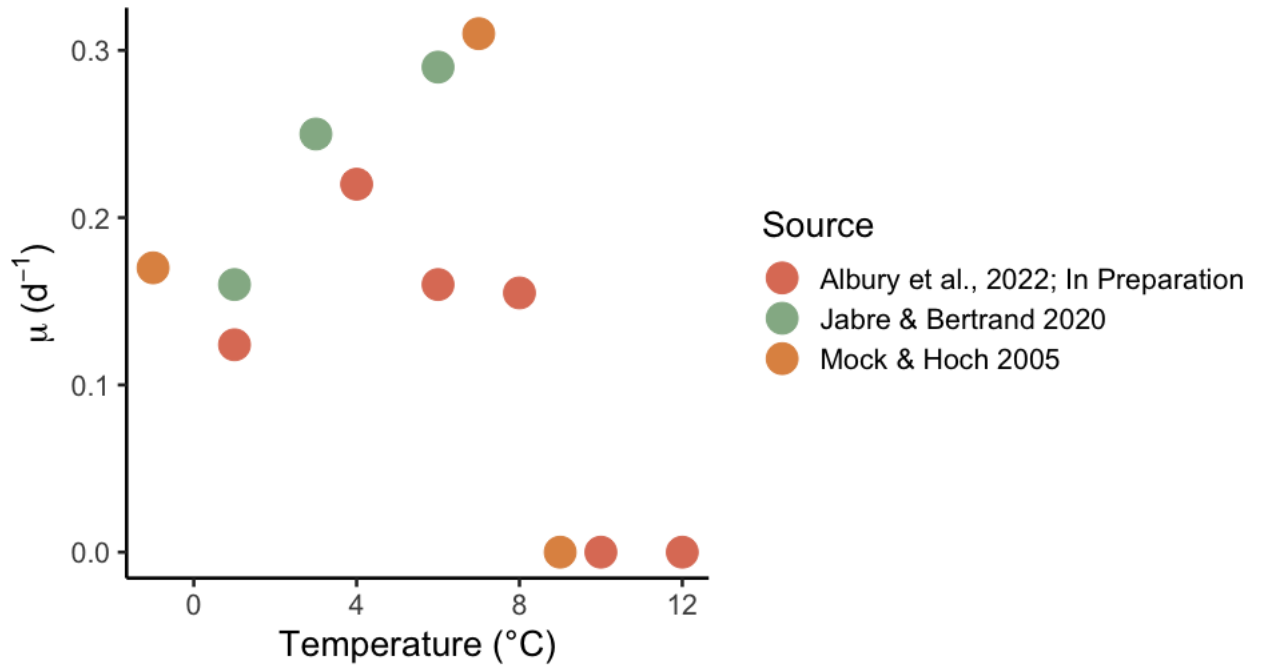


Figure S3.1 A comparison of growth rates (μ ; d^{-1}) between preliminary experiments conducted for this dissertation and other published values.

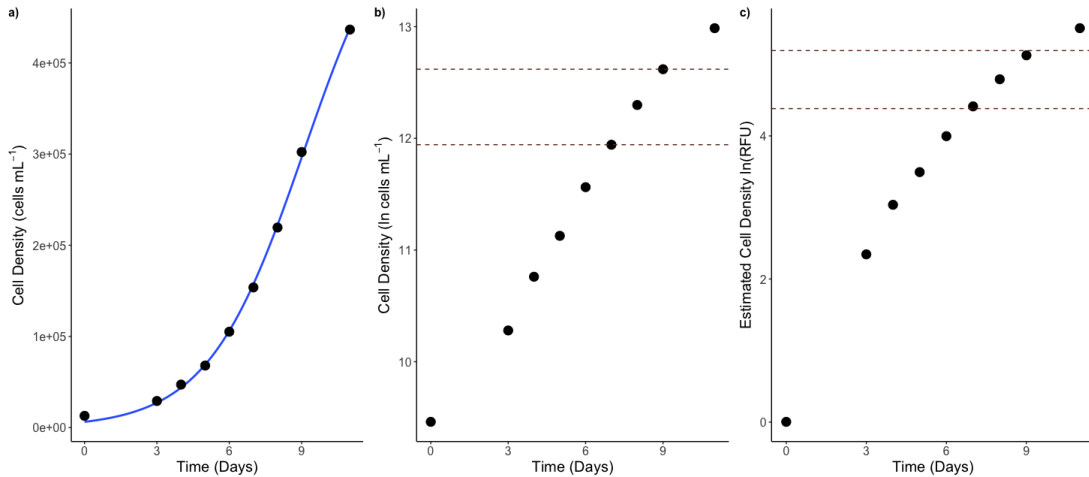


Figure S3.2: Data used to determine cell densities corresponding to late exponential growth phase in *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 $^{\circ}C$. Dotted lines correspond to exponential growth. Data collected by Loay Jabre.

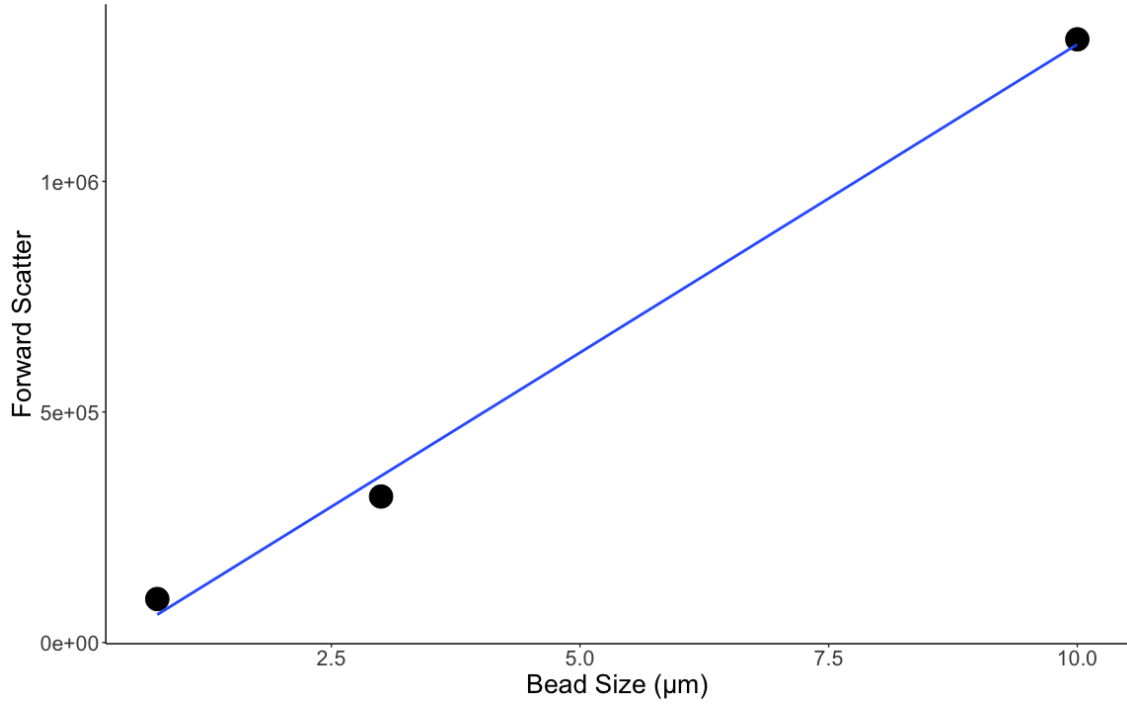


Figure S3.3: Calibration curve for cell size estimation in *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C. $R^2 = 0.9961$. Forward scatter = $6 \times 10^{-6}(\text{bead size}) + 0.3145$. Data adapted from Jabre and Bertrand 2020.

Table S3.1: A list of monitored metabolite transitions, with precursor and product mass over charge (M/Z), collision energy (volts), and retention time (RT; minutes)

Molecule Name	Precursor M/Z	Product M/Z	Collision Energy (V)	RT (min.)
Heavy B1	268.1	147.1	12.2	2.1
Heavy B1	268.1	122.1	12.8	2.1
Heavy B1	268.1	116.1	40	2.1
Heavy B1	268.1	42.354	37.3	2.1
Heavy B2	383.2	249.1	21.1	5.7
Heavy B2	383.2	204.1	28.3	5.7
Heavy B2	383.2	202.1	35.3	5.7
Heavy B2	383.2	175.1	35.5	5.7
Heavy B12-CN	681.9	366.1	23.7	5.5
Heavy B12-CN	681.9	154.1	38	5.5
B1	265.16	144.2	15.8	2.1
B1	265.16	122.27	16.2	2.1
B2	377.183	243.054	24	5.7
B2	377.183	172.054	37.6	5.7
Homarine	138.122	94.054	20.3	2.1-2.4
Homarine	138.122	78.054	22.8	2.1-2.4
Homarine	138.122	51.125	35.4	2.1-2.4
SAH	386.183	250.054	13.7	2.6
SAH	386.183	136.054	22	2.6
SAH	386.183	88.071	38.1	2.6
SAM	399.209	298.054	13.5	2.1
SAM	399.209	250.04	16.1	2.1
SAM	399.209	136.111	28.3	2.1
B12-OH	665	359.1	24.4	4.2
B12-OH	665	147.1	37.4	4.2
B12-CN	678.4	359.1	22.7	5.5
B12-CN	678.4	147.1	37.8	5.5
B12-Ado	790.9	359.1	29.7	5.2
B12-Ado	790.9	147.1	43.3	5.2
B12-Me	673.5	359.1	26	4.2
B12-Me	673.5	147.1	40.8	4.2
Proline	116.2	70.1	16	5.5
Proline	116.2	43.3		5.5
GBT	118.4	58.1	23	2.1-2.2
GBT	118.4	42.2		2.1-2.2
B3	123.1	80.1	21.3	2.1
B3	123.1	53.1		2.1
HMP	140.1	122.2	12.3	2.1
HMP	140.1	81.3	19.5	2.1
HET	144.1	113.2	24	2.8
HET	144.1	112.2	32	2.8
cHET	188.1	170.1	14.6	3.9
cHET	188.1	140.2	21.1	3.9
B5	220.1	184	13.5	1.2
B5	220.1	90		
B7	245.1	227.1	13.2	5.6
Heavy B7	249.1	231.1	13.2	5.6
B9	295	120		2.6
Glutathione	308.091	162		2.6
TMP	345.2	122.1		2.1



Figure S3.4: The effects of different normalizations on the coefficient of variation (CV) among quality control (QC) samples injected periodically during the metabolite analysis run. Normalizations which reduced QC CV by more than 10% were chosen as the best matched internal standard (BMIS) for that compound. The chosen BMIS is marked for each compound with a star. If no star is included, the compounds was not normalized to a BMIS.

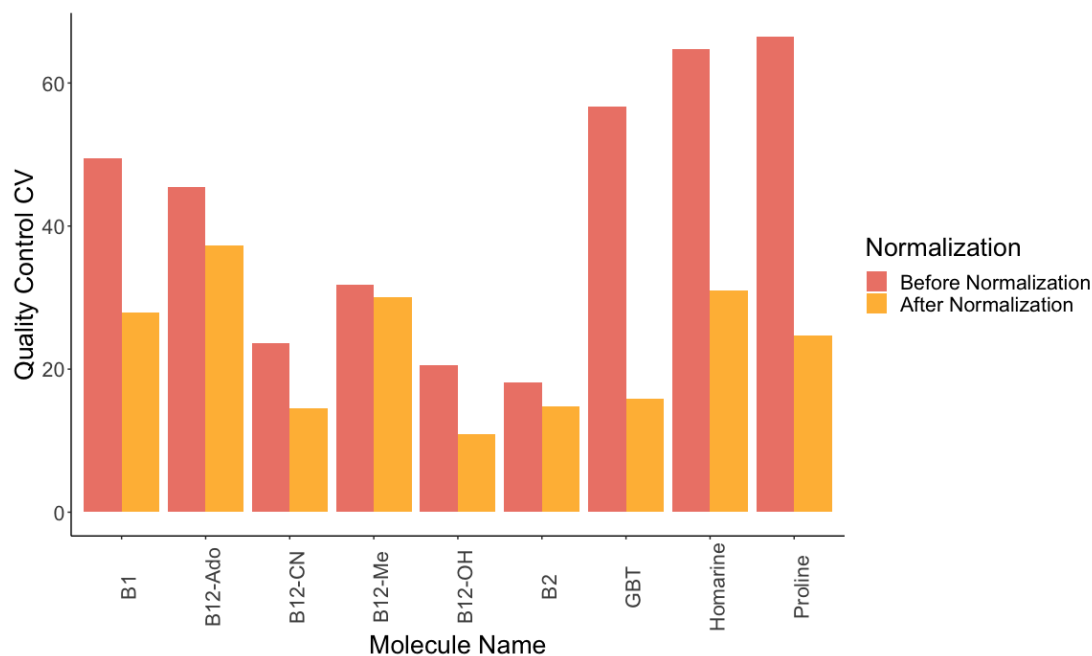


Figure S3.5: The effects of chosen normalizations with BMIS (best matched internal standard) on the coefficient of variation among QC (quality control) samples injected periodically between samples during the metabolite analysis run.

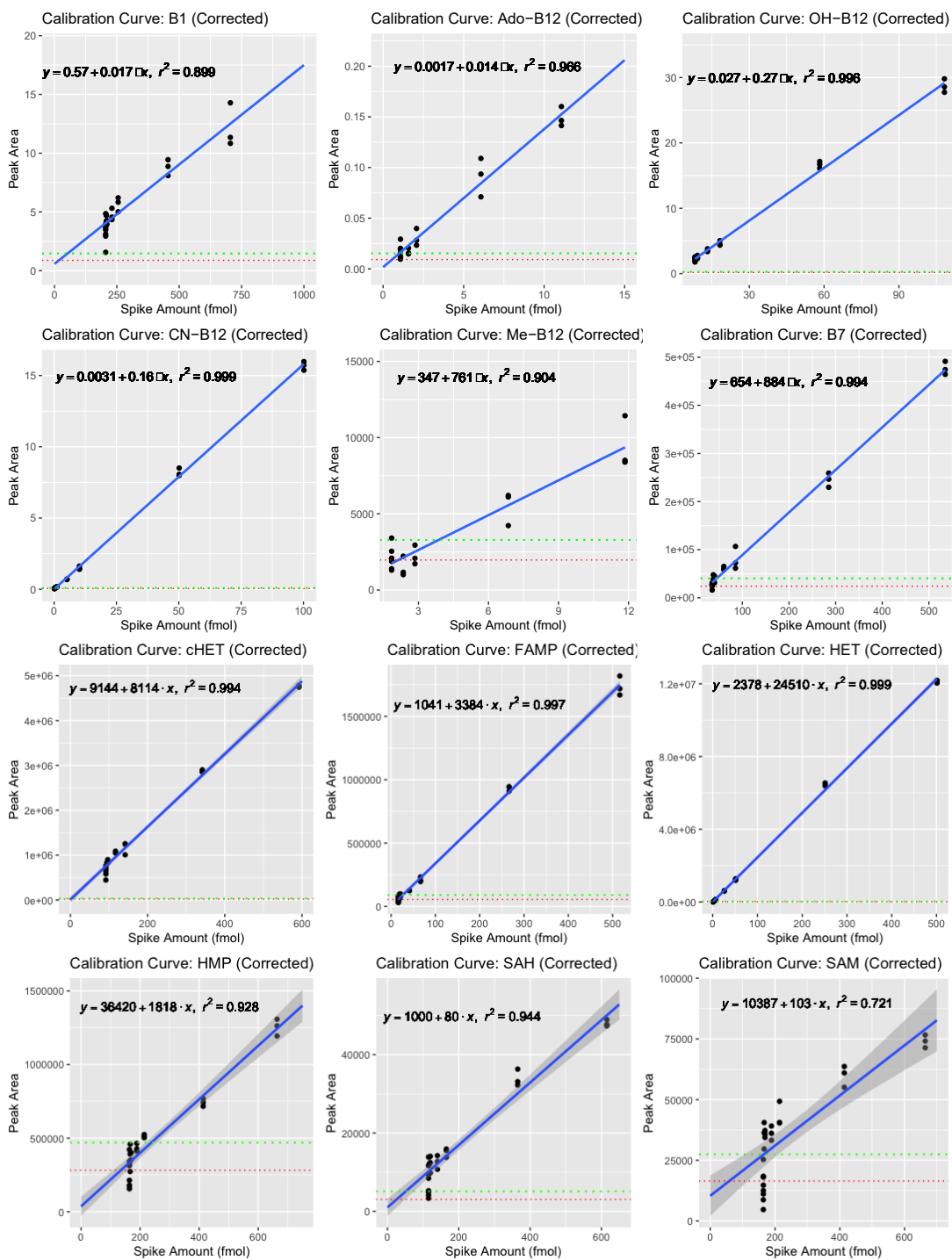


Figure S3.6: Calibration curves used to quantify metabolites of interested in *F. cylindrus* cultures grown at 6 °C. Normalized peak area by spike amount after corrections that estimate the amount of an endogenous metabolite in the QC itself. The Limit of Detection (LOD; 3 x time standard deviation of the QC with no authentic standard added) and Limit of Quantification (LOQ; 5 x time standard deviation of the QC with no authentic standard added) are denoted by a red and green dotted line, respectively for each metabolite of interest. The regression used to quantify each metabolite of interest is annotated, along with an R^2 value in black.

Table S3.2: Fold changes of metabolites that were above detection limit in B₁₂ replete and deplete cultures of *F. cylindrus*. For compounds with a calibration curve, biological replicates were considered candidates for absolute quantification if the mean of triplicate injections were above the LOQ (limit of quantification). If the mean of a biological replicate was not above the LOQ, but above the LOD (limit of detection), it is listed as detected in trace amounts. Units for compounds with absolute quantification, are given in Femtomoles cell⁻¹. For compounds without a calibration curve, units are Normalized Peak Area cell⁻¹. p-values are listed in the Significance column, with p < 0.05 = *; p < 0.01 = **; and ns = no significance. Trace amounts of adenosylcobalamin were detected in one replicate of three B₁₂ deplete cultures (Figure 6a). nd = not detected. Methionine, Homocystine, HET, Glutathionine, and TMP were below the detection limit. Trace amounts of HMP were only detected in B₁₂ replete samples, but not B₁₂ deprived samples.

Molecule Name	BMIS Used	Mean Value +B ₁₂	Mean Value -B ₁₂	Fold Change	Significance	Quantification Type
B1	Heavy B ₁	3.54 x 10 ⁻³	5.27 x 10 ⁻³	-0.33	ns	Absolute
Ado-B ₁₂	Heavy CN-B ₁₂	9.32 x 10 ⁻⁶	trace	-	-	Absolute
Me-B ₁₂	Heavy CN-B ₁₂	1.12 x 10 ⁻⁴	nd	-	-	Absolute
OH-B ₁₂	Heavy CN-B ₁₂	1.79 x 10 ⁻⁴	nd	-	-	Absolute
B ₂	none	0.72	0.96	-0.25	ns	Relative
B ₃	none	10.78	14.74	-0.27	ns	Relative
B ₇	none	2.00 x 10 ⁻³	5.04 x 10 ⁻³	-0.60	ns	Absolute
B ₉	none	0.95	1.48	-0.36	ns	Relative
cHET	none	2.86 x 10 ⁻³	3.98 x 10 ⁻³	-0.28	*	Absolute
DMSP	none	24.99	35.36	-0.29	*	Relative
GBT	Heavy B ₁	2.20 x 10 ⁻³	1.15 x 10 ⁻³	0.91	ns	Relative
Homarine	Heavy B ₁	1.01 x 10 ⁻²	1.81 x 10 ⁻²	-0.44	ns	Relative
IAA	none	1.59	1.97	-0.19	ns	Relative
Proline	Heavy B ₁	1.09 x 10 ⁻²	1.93 x 10 ⁻²	-0.43	ns	Relative
SAH	none	3.80 x 10 ⁻³	1.73 x 10 ⁻²	-0.78	ns	Absolute
SAM	none	7.38 x 10 ⁻³	1.12 x 10 ⁻²	-0.34	ns	Absolute

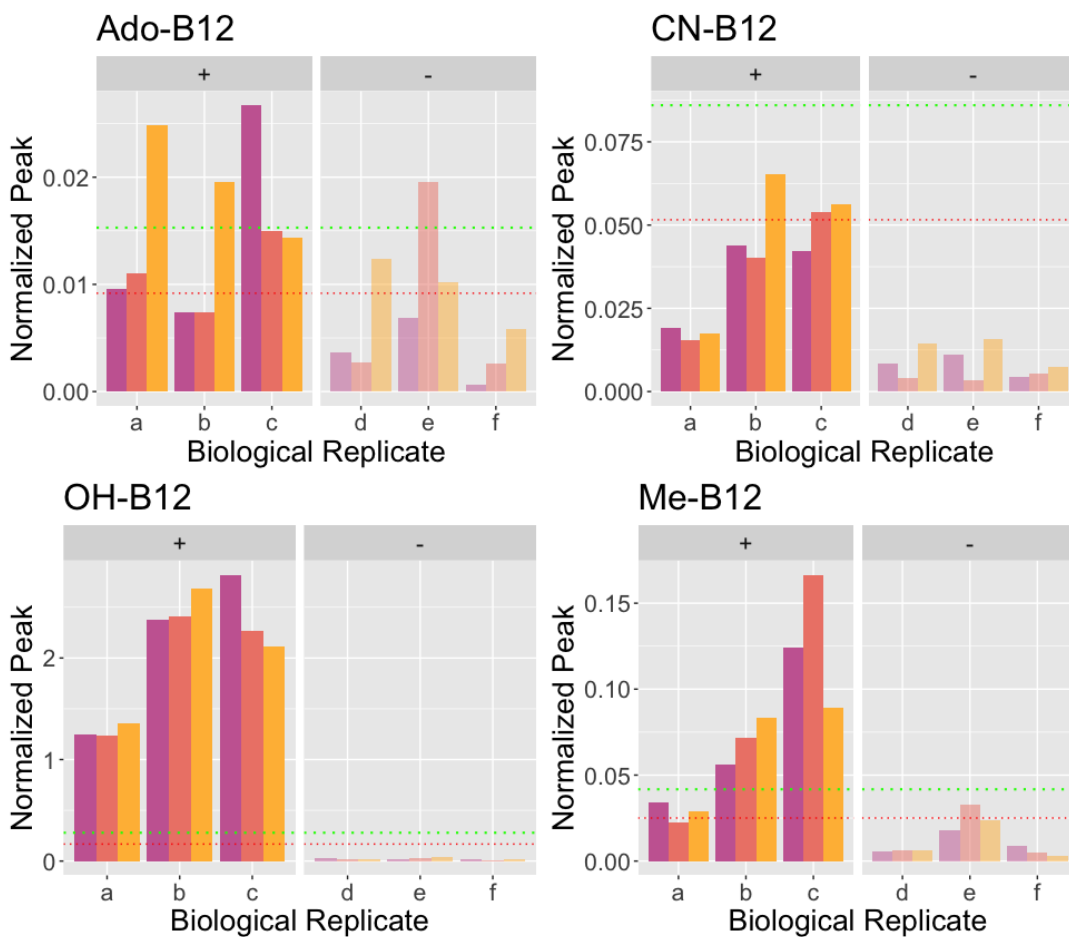


Figure S3.7: The normalized spectral abundance of cobalamin compounds in three technical replicates (purple, orange, yellow), of three biological replicates (a-f) per B₁₂ treatment (+ or -) for *F. cylindrus* cultures grown with and without the addition of exogenous B₁₂. The red and green dotted lines represent LOD and LOQ respectively. Any sample with a signal above the LOD but below the LOQ is considered to have trace amounts of the compound. Samples with a mean signal below the LOD are considered “not detected” for the compound. The B₁₂-deplete sample e displayed trace amounts of adenosylcobalamin.