

1 **Global distribution and diversity of marine Parmales**

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14 Section.

15 **Abstract**

16 Parmales (Bolidophyceae) is a minor eukaryotic phytoplankton group, sister to diatoms, that exists
17 as two distinct forms of unicellular organisms: silicified cells and naked flagellates. Since their
18 discovery, many field studies of Parmales have been performed, but their global distribution
19 remains under-investigated. Here, we compile over 3,000 marine DNA metabarcoding datasets
20 targeting the V4 region of the 18S rRNA gene from the EukBank database. By linking this large
21 dataset with the latest morphological and genetic information, we provide updated estimates on
22 the diversity and distribution of Parmales in the global ocean at a fine taxonomic resolution.
23 Parmalean amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were detected in nearly 90% of the analyzed
24 samples. However, the relative abundance of parmaleans in the eukaryotic community is less than
25 0.2% on average, and the estimated true richness of parmalean ASVs is about 316 ASVs,
26 confirming their low abundance and low diversity. Phylogenetic analysis clearly divides these
27 algae into four clades, and three known morphotypes of silicified cells were classified into three
28 different clades. The abundance of Parmales is generally high in the pole and decreases toward the
29 tropics, and individual clades/subclades show further distinctions in distributions. Overall, our
30 results suggest their clade/subclade-specific adaptation to different ecological niches.

31 **Keywords**

32 global distribution, metabarcoding, ocean, Parmales

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34

Introduction

35 The order Parmales (class Bolidophyceae) comprises eukaryotic microalgae of two
36 morphologically distinct forms: one form is a naked flagellate (1–1.7 μm) and the other form has
37 silicified cell walls (2–5 μm) (Booth and Marchant, 1987; Guillou et al., 1999; Ichinomiya et al.,
38 2011, 2016). The silicified forms were originally established as a new order, Parmales, within
39 Chrysophyceae (Booth and Marchant, 1987). Following the first isolation of a parmalean from the
40 Oyashio region near Japan (Ichinomiya et al., 2011), phylogenetic analyses revealed that
41 parmaleans form a monophyletic group with the previously known naked flagellates
42 (bolidophytes) (Ichinomiya et al., 2011, 2016; Tajima et al., 2016) that comprise a sister group to
43 diatoms (Guillou et al., 1999). Consequently, the order Parmales was re-established under the class
44 Bolidophyceae (Ichinomiya et al., 2016). The two forms have a phylogenetically nested
45 relationship, and the silicified strains possess the genomic potential to form flagella, suggesting
46 that these two forms represent different stages in the life cycle of the same organisms (Ichinomiya
47 et al., 2016; Yamada et al., 2020; Ban et al., 2023). Currently, there are four identified morphotypes
48 of silicified parmaleans, each distinguished by the morphological features of their silicified cell
49 walls: *Triparma*, *Tetraparma*, ‘Scaly parma’, and *Pentalamina*, of which the last morphotype has
50 not yet been isolated (Booth and Marchant, 1987; Ban et al., 2023; Sato et al., Unpublished).

51 Their life cycle and predicted phago-mixotrophic nutrient acquisition contrast sharply with those
52 of diatoms, their closest evolutionary photo-autotrophic relatives (Ban et al., 2023). Therefore,
53 Parmales is a key eukaryotic group in understanding the physiology, ecology, and evolution of
54 diatoms, the most successful phytoplankton group in the modern ocean (Kuwata et al., 2018; Ban
55 et al., 2023). In particular, characterizing the diversity and biogeography of Parmales across space
56 and niches is expected to provide fundamental information on the difference in the ecological and
57 evolutionary strategies between diatoms and Parmales.

58 Based on field observations to date, the silicified form of Parmales is widely distributed, from
59 frequently-reported polar and subpolar regions including coastal sites (Booth et al., 1980, 1981;
60 Silver et al., 1980; Nishida, 1986; Taniguchi et al., 1995; Komuro et al., 2005; Konno et al., 2007;
61 Ichinomiya et al., 2010, 2019; Ichinomiya and Kuwata, 2015; Luan et al., 2018) to the tropics
62 (Kosman et al., 1993; Bravo-Sierra and Hernandez-Becerril, 2003; Fujita and Jordan, 2017).
63 However, these observations were based on microscopic analyses of silicified cell wall
64 morphology, and thus naked flagellates were missed in the observations. There were also potential

65 issues regarding cryptic species (Bickford et al., 2007) and variation within a single species due to
66 morphological phenotypic plasticity (Konno et al., 2007). Thus, an accurate and consistent taxon
67 identification method is needed to quantify the abundance and diversity of *Parmales*.

68 Recently, DNA metabarcoding targeting the V4 or V9 region of the 18S rRNA gene has become
69 an effective method to explore the eukaryotic diversity and community composition of the ocean
70 (De Vargas et al., 2015; Massana et al., 2015; Cordier et al., 2022). DNA metabarcoding bypasses
71 microscopic taxonomy identification and provides abundant comprehensive data that may resolve
72 the issues with microscopic observation. Previous studies have investigated the distribution of
73 *Parmales* using the V9 metabarcoding dataset produced by the *Tara Oceans* expedition
74 (Ichinomiya et al., 2016) and the V4 metabarcoding datasets from multiple studies covering coastal,
75 Arctic, and Antarctic oceans not represented in the *Tara Oceans* data (Kuwata et al., 2018). These
76 studies characterize the global distribution of *Parmales* in the ocean, revealing their consistently
77 low frequency in microeukaryotic communities and suggesting that each clade of *Parmales* has its
78 own distribution pattern. However, the data used by Ichinomiya et al. (2016) from the *Tara Oceans*
79 expedition do not cover coastal areas and some oceanic regions such as the Indian Ocean and
80 Antarctic Sea, and the data used by Kuwata et al. (2018) underrepresent the Southern Hemisphere.
81 Additionally, when these studies were conducted, the sequence information of isolated strains was
82 only available for one clade, *Triparma*, of the four morphotypes.

83 In this study, we use the EukBank database, which provides by far the largest dataset for DNA
84 metabarcodes targeting the 18S rRNA gene V4 region (Kaneko et al., 2023), and associate these
85 data with the current knowledge of *Parmales*, including information from recent isolates from
86 *Triparma*, *Tetraparma*, and ‘Scaly parma’ (Yamada et al., 2020; Ban et al., 2023). The EukBank
87 project consolidates multiple datasets originating from various sampling projects including *Tara*
88 Oceans (Pesant et al., 2015; Sunagawa et al., 2020), Malaspina (Logares et al., 2020), and
89 Australian Microbiome (Brown et al., 2018). The dataset comprises over 15,000 DNA
90 metabarcoding samples targeting the 18S rRNA gene V4 region, with samples derived from
91 various biomes such as marine, freshwater, and soil biomes. After appropriate filtering, we
92 compiled over 3,000 marine samples from pole-to-pole oceanic regions, including coastal areas.
93 Our results quantitatively describe the diversity and distribution of *Parmales* at fine taxonomic
94 resolution.

95 **Material and Methods**

96 **EukBank data preprocessing**

97 The EukBank database provides amplicon sequencing variant (ASV) sequences and their
98 taxonomic annotations, and also includes table data representing read counts of ASVs in each
99 sample with metadata. Detailed information on the preprocessing of raw data is provided in
100 Kaneko et al. (2023).

101 First, we selected seawater samples with metadata and a total read count over 10,000.
102 Subsequently, we filtered the samples based on the availability of sampling site information on
103 latitude, longitude, and depth. During this process, samples without specific depth information
104 were also retained if the range of sampling depth could be determined from other information
105 (Supplementary Information). Depth information was finally classified as either surface layer (0–
106 10 m) or euphotic zone (10–200 m). We subsequently retained only samples (depth 0–200 m)
107 with a lower limit of size fraction being less than 1 μ m. This size threshold was determined with
108 the expectation that it would allow all paramecian morphological forms to be captured on the
109 filter. Next, we categorized the samples based on their seafloor depth at the sampling sites; sites
110 shallower than 200 m were defined as coastal ocean sites, while deeper sites were defined as
111 open ocean sites. The depths of the sampling sites were calculated by interpolating the depth data
112 from the global relief model (ETOPO 1) (Amante, 2009) using latitude and longitude information
113 with the Julia package “Interpolations.jl”. Finally, we collected 3,200 marine samples, of which
114 1,633 were coastal ocean samples and 1,567 were open ocean samples (Fig. S1).

115 We also obtained 432 ASV sequences that were annotated as “Bolidophyceae” from the total
116 EukBank ASV sequences.

117

118 **Phylogenetic analyses and ASVs annotation**

119 We collected full-length paramecian 18S rRNA genes from the SILVA database (categorized as
120 “Bolidomonas”; accessed Jun 2023) (Quast et al., 2012) and from published work (Ban et al.,
121 2023). We added some diatom sequences as outgroups to the dataset and then removed
122 previously reported chimeric sequences (Ichinomiya et al., 2016) and sequences shorter than 900
123 bp. We aligned and masked the sequences using the “ssu-align” and “ssu-mask” commands of
124 SSU-ALIGN (v 0.1.1) (Nawrocki, 2009) with default parameters. A maximum likelihood tree

125 was estimated with a GTR + G + F model and 1000 bootstrap replicates using RAxML-ng (v
126 1.0.2) (Kozlov et al., 2019). We defined clades and subclades based on the topology of the
127 estimated phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1).

128 Next, ASVs were assigned phylogenetic placement on the estimated reference tree. First, the
129 full-length 18S rRNA gene sequences were aligned to make a reference multiple sequence
130 alignment using the “ssu-align” command with default parameters, but default masking causes a
131 loss of resolution in distinguish ASVs, so masking of the alignment was done using the “ssu-
132 mask” command with the “--rfonly” option. Sequences of 432 parmalean ASVs were also
133 aligned and masked using the “ssu-align” command with default parameters and the “ssu-mask”
134 command with the previously produced mask file from the full-length 18S rRNA gene
135 alignments. Model parameters for phylogenetic replacement were evaluated with the full-length
136 18S rRNA gene alignment and the estimated tree using RAxML-ng (Kozlov et al., 2019) with
137 the “--evaluate” option (v 1.0.2) specifying the GTR + G +F model. Phylogenetic placement was
138 done using EPA-ng (Barbera et al., 2019) under the evaluated model with the ASV alignment as
139 the query and the maximum likelihood tree and the full-length 18S rRNA gene alignment as the
140 reference.

141 To annotate each ASV into a clade/subclade, we used the “extract” command of gappa (v 0.8.4)
142 (Czech et al., 2020). ASVs were annotated into Clades I–IV, “basal_branches”, and “outgroup”.
143 Here we prioritize EukBank’s taxonomy, so ASVs annotated as “outgroup” are treated as
144 Parmales origin, and those annotated as “basal_branches” and “outgroup” are grouped together
145 as “uncertain” sequences of Parmales. At the subclade level, Clade III was divided into Clades
146 IIIa–IIIc, and Clade IV was divided into Clades IVa–IVd (Fig. 1). ASVs annotated as Clade III
147 or IV at the clade level but annotated as “basal_branches” at the subclade level were re-annotated
148 as “Clade III uncertain” or “Clade IV uncertain”, respectively.

149 The parmalean ASV sequences were also aligned to the full-length 18S rRNA gene sequences
150 using vsearch (v 2.22.1) (Rognes et al., 2016).

151

152 **Ecological analyses**

153 The rarefaction curves were obtained by plotting the expected count of ASVs calculated under
154 the assumption that all reads from 3,200 samples were pooled and then sub-sampled. The

155 number of reads sub-sampled increased in increments of 10,000. The slopes of the rarefaction
156 curves were calculated from the last data points and its predecessors.

157 Preston's log-normal distribution (Preston, 1948) was used to estimate the completeness of
158 sampling by fitting a left-truncated normal distribution to the log2-transformed total counts of
159 each ASV in 3,200 samples using function "prestondistr" in the R package "vegan" via Julia
160 package "RCall.jl".

161 The relationships between latitude and parmalean ASV abundances were visualized by LOESS
162 (Locally Estimated Scatterplot Smoothing; span = 0.8) using the Julia package "Loess.jl".
163 Confidence intervals were computed using 100 bootstrap resampling iterations.

164 To characterize the habitats of each clade and subclade, the weighted average temperature
165 (WAT) was used as the index for clade/subclade temperature preferences using the relative
166 abundance in the 2002 of 3200 samples for which temperature information was available. This
167 index was calculated using the following equation:

$$WAT_k = \frac{\sum w_{ki} t_i}{\sum w_{ki}}$$

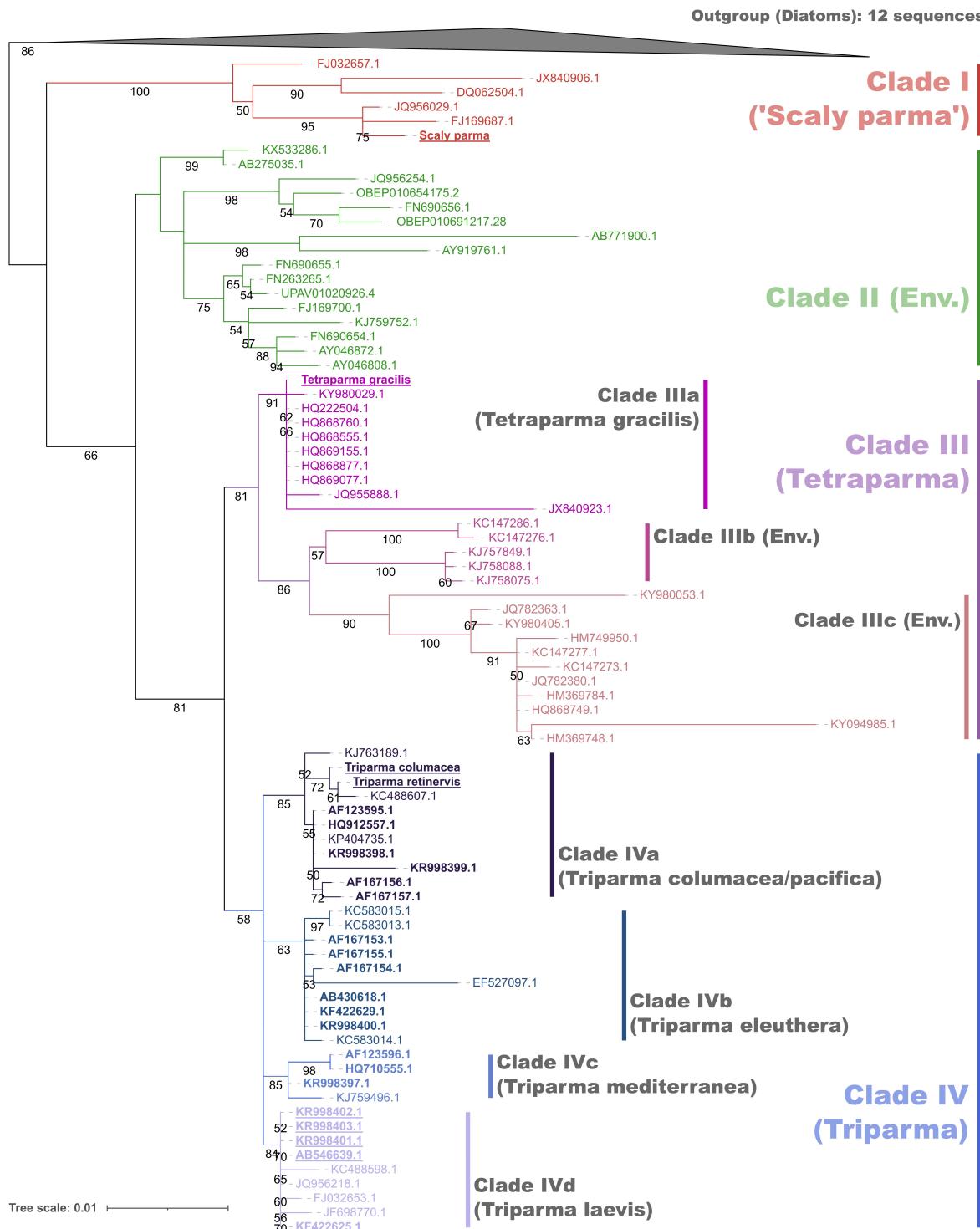
168 where WAT_k is the weighted average temperature index of clade/subclade k , and w_{ki} and t_i
169 are the relative abundance of clade/subclade k and water temperature in sample i , respectively.

170
171 Plots were generated using the Julia packages "Makie.jl" (Danisch and Krumbiegel, 2021) and
172 "GeoMakie.jl".

173

174 **Statistical test**

175 For each clade and subclade, the Mann-Whitney U test (Mann and Whitney, 1947) was
176 employed using the Julia package "HypothesisTests.jl" to evaluate whether a difference exists in
177 relative abundance between coastal ocean samples (n=1633) and open ocean samples (n=1567).
178 The results were further validated using the rank-biserial correlations (RBC), which is an effect
179 size of the Mann-Whitney U test (Wendt, 1972; Kerby, 2014). Positive RBC values indicate a
180 preference for the coastal ocean and negative values indicate a preference for the open ocean; the
181 absolute value (0–1) indicates the strength of the preference.



182

183 Fig. 1 | Phylogenetic tree of 18S rRNA genes.

184 Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of the full-length 18S rRNA genes of Parmales and diatoms
185 (outgroup). IDs of isolates are in bold and, if isolates are of the silicified form, IDs are underlined.
186 Bootstrap values > 50 are noted on the nodes. The clades/subclades were separated based on the
187 tree topology.

188

Results

189

Phylogenetic analyses

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The maximum likelihood tree (Fig. 1) based on the phylogenetic analysis of the full-length 18S rRNA gene sequences showed clear grouping of parmalean sequences into four clades (Clade I, Clade II, Clade III, Clade IV), which is consistent with previous findings (Kuwata et al., 2018). Clade I is the most basal clade, containing “Scaly parma” that are morphologically distinct from other parmalean taxon (Ban et al., 2023; Sato et al., Unpublished). Clade II consists only of environmental sequences and does not include any sequences from isolated or cultured strains of either silicified forms or naked flagellates. Clade III was divided into three subclades based on topology (Clade IIIa, Clade IIIb, Clade IIIc). Clade IIIa contains a silicified isolate sequence (*Tetraparma gracilis*) and a sequence of unknown morphology (KY980029: *Triparma pacifica* isolate NY13S_157), and Clade IIIc contains two sequences of unknown morphology (KY980053: *Triparma pacifica* isolate NY13S_197; KY98405: *Triparma pacifica* isolate BH65_151). Clade IIIb consists only of environmental sequences. The taxonomic annotation of *Triparma* for the three sequences of unknown morphology in Clade III may be misannotation of samples that properly belong to *Tetraparma*. Clade IV was also divided into four subclades (Clade IVa, Clade IVb, Clade IVc, Clade IVd). Clade IVa and Clade IVd contain sequences from silicified isolates and naked flagellates, with *Triparma columacea* and *Triparma retinervis* representing the silicified form and *Triparma pacifica* RCC205 (HQ912557) representing the naked flagellate for Clade IVa. In Clade IVd, *Triparma laevis* f. *inornata* (AB546639) represents the silicified form and *Triparma* sp. RCC1657 (KF422625) represents the naked flagellate. Clade IVb and Clade IVc do not have any sequences from silicified form isolates, with *Triparma eleuthera* (KR998400) and *Triparma mediterranea* (KR998397) representing naked flagellates for Clade IVb and Clade IVc, respectively.

212

As a result of phylogenetic placement of ASVs in the reference maximum likelihood tree, 86.3% of ASVs were annotated into one of the four clades (Table 1). There were no ASVs that matched best with outgroup sequences in the sequence similarity search, suggesting that all ASVs are derived from Parmales. The ASVs that were annotated into clades, as well as those that were not annotated, had sequence identities of 91.7% and 83.1%, respectively, with their

217 closest matching parmalean sequences (Fig. S2). Clade II, the environmental clade, contained the
218 most annotated ASVs, followed by Clade I, Clade III, and Clade IV (Table 1).

219

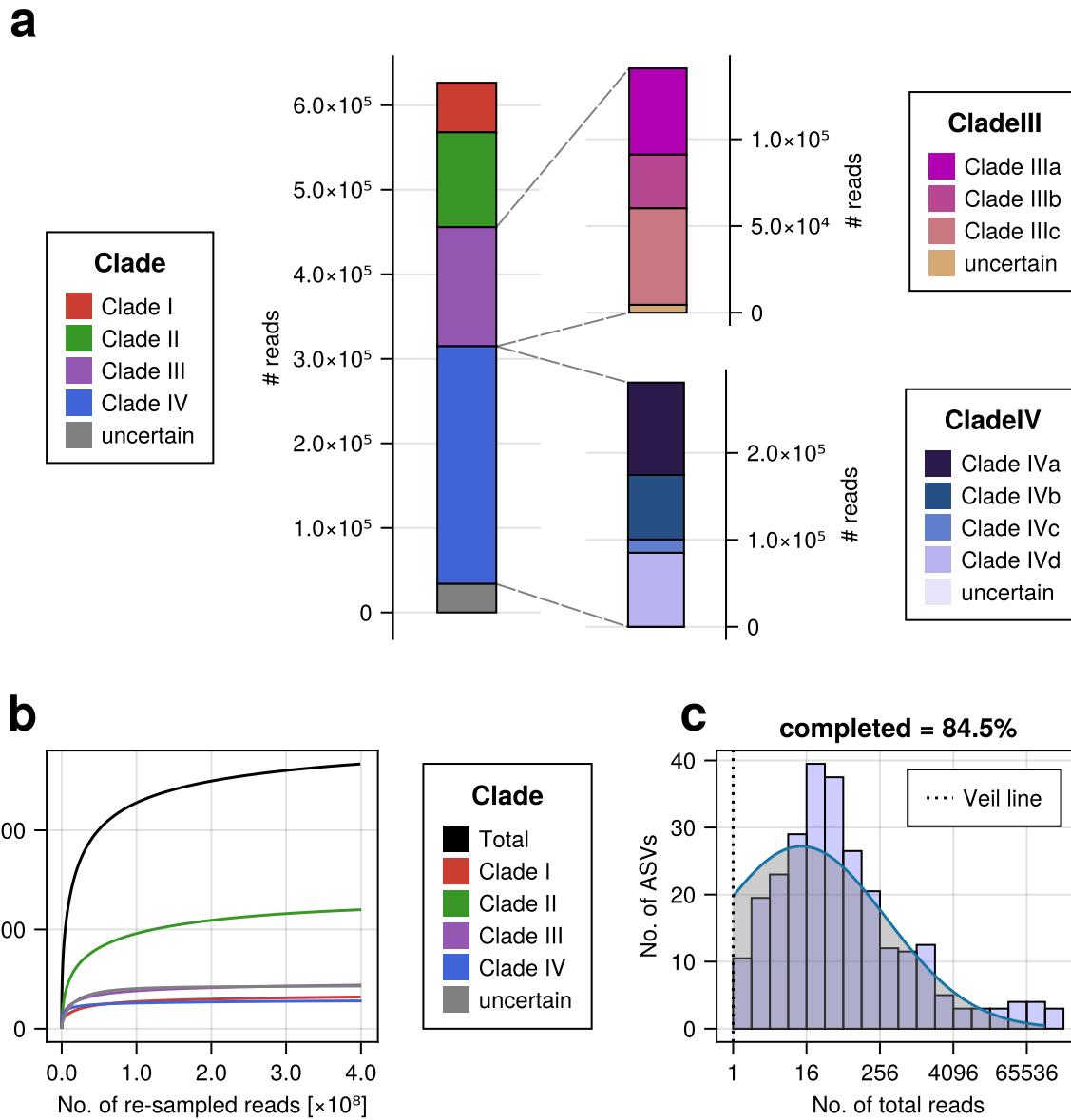
220 **Table 1. Counts of parmalean ASVs in each annotation category.**

| Annotation | No. of parmalean ASVs in all EukBank samples | No. of parmalean ASVs in the 3200 marine samples |
|--------------|---|---|
| Clade I | 76 | 32 |
| Clade II | 214 | 120 |
| Clade III | 50 | 44 |
| Clade IV | 33 | 28 |
| Uncertain | 59 | 43 |
| Total | 432 | 267 |

221

222 **Global marine dataset of parmalean ASVs**

223 After filtering samples from the EukBank database, we finally obtained a total of 3200 marine
224 water samples containing about 402 million reads. Although the coastal ocean samples were
225 predominantly from Europe and Australia, the open ocean samples range widely from pole to
226 pole, with some exceptions (e.g., the West Pacific) (Fig. S1). From 432 EukBank ASVs, 267
227 ASVs appeared at least once and accounted for about 630,000 of the total reads. Overall, 94.6%
228 of parmalean ASV reads were assigned to four clades (Fig. 2a), of which Clade IV was the most
229 dominant, followed by Clade III, Clade II, and Clade I (Fig. 2a). This order of abundance is not
230 consistent with the order of the diversity inside the clades (Table 1). Within Clade III, Clade IIIc
231 was slightly more abundant than Clade IIIa, with Clade IIIb being the least abundant (Fig. 2a).
232 Within Clade IV, Clade IVa was the most abundant, followed by Clade IVd and Clade IVb, with
233 Clade IVc being substantially less abundant (Fig. 2a). Rarefaction analysis indicated that the
234 ASV richness of all global ocean parmaleans was far from saturation (Fig. 2b). Particularly,
235 Clade II had the largest slope (Table S1). The fitted Preston model (blue line in Fig. 2c)
236 extrapolated the true parmalean ASV richness to 315.85 ASVs, indicating that the analyzed
237 samples uncover ~ 84.5% of parmalean ASVs in the global ocean (right side of the veil line in
238 Fig. 2c).



239

240 **Fig. 2 | Overview of the parmalean ASV dataset.**

241 (a) The number of reads of parmalean ASVs in each clade from 3200 samples. (Top right) The
 242 number of reads of parmalean ASVs in Clade III. (Bottom right) The number of reads of parmalean
 243 ASVs in Clade IV. (b) Rarefaction curve, representing parmalean ASV richness. Each curve shows
 244 the expected number of parmalean ASVs against the number of re-sampled reads for each clade.
 245 The slopes of each curve are listed in Table S1. (c) Preston's log-normal distribution of parmalean
 246 ASVs. The x-axis is transformed to log2. The histogram represents the frequency of actual
 247 parmalean ASVs binned by abundance in octaves. The blue line indicates the fitted left-truncated

248 normal distribution. The left side of Preston's Veil line (dashed black vertical line) corresponds to
249 ASVs that did not appear in the samples. The total parmalean ASV richness was extrapolated to
250 ASVs on this side.

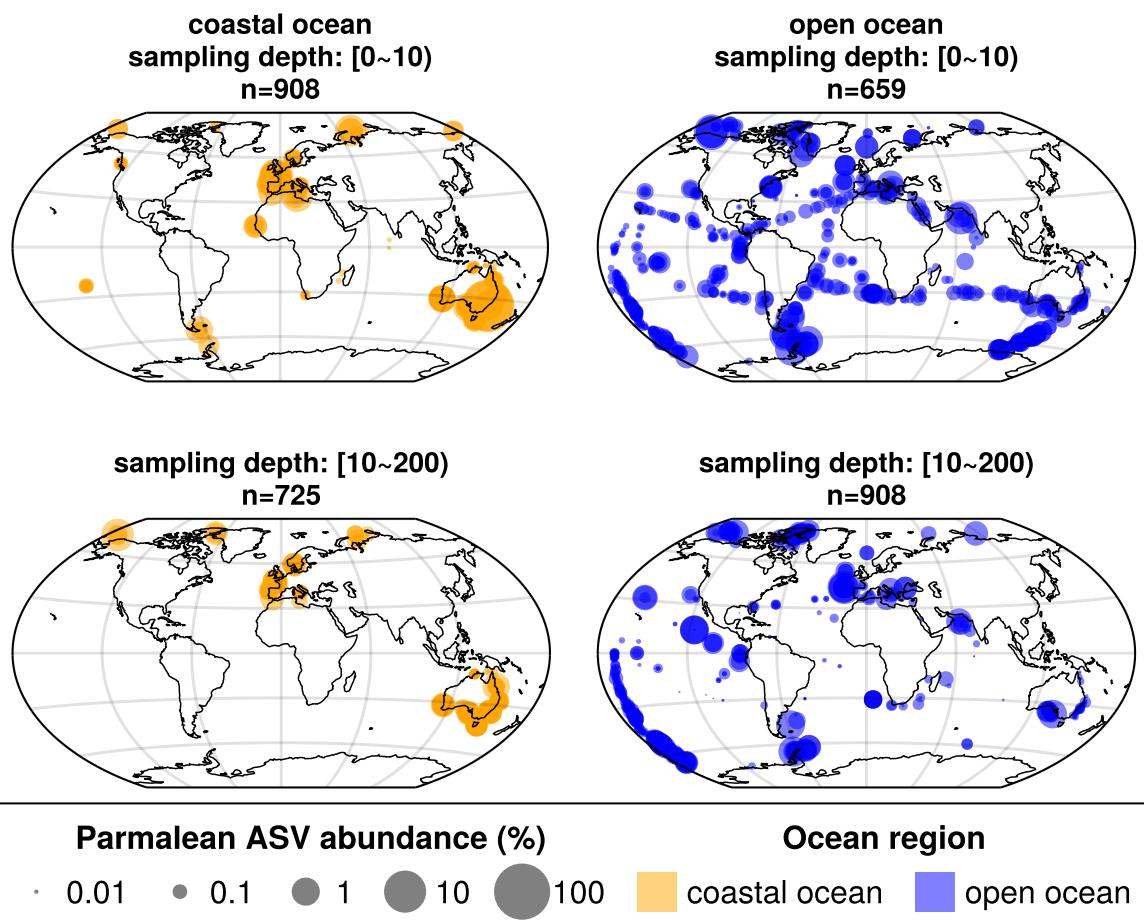
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252 **Oceanic distribution of parmalean ASVs**

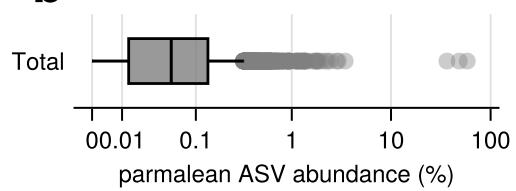
253 Parmalean ASVs were distributed widely across the global ocean in both coastal and open
254 oceans from the poles to the tropics (Fig. 3a). Parmalean ASVs appeared in 89.1% of the
255 samples, indicating their wide distribution. However, the relative abundance of parmalean ASVs
256 in the microeukaryotic community was generally low, with a median of 0.05% and an average of
257 0.16% (Fig. 3b). There were exceptional samples where parmalean ASVs were a large portion of
258 the community (three outliers in Fig. 3b). In three samples taken at the same time and location in
259 Botany Bay of Sydney, Australia, parmalean ASVs contributed 58.2%, 48.1%, and 36.5% of the
260 eukaryotic community (SRA Run: SRR8820967, SRR8820804, SRR8820815 from Australian
261 Microbiome). ASVs with a high sample coverage (i.e., the proportion of samples in which they
262 were detected) tended to have high maximum relative abundance (Fig. 3c). Yet, an ASV that
263 was dominant in one sample was not necessarily widely distributed.

264 The relative abundance of parmalean ASVs across latitudes showed a clear previously
265 undescribed pattern that decreased from the poles to tropics, while they were detected in the
266 coast and open oceans across the surface and euphotic zones (Fig. 4). In the open ocean, the
267 relative abundance of parmalean ASVs decreased more markedly in the tropics in the euphotic
268 layer than in the surface layer (Fig. 4).

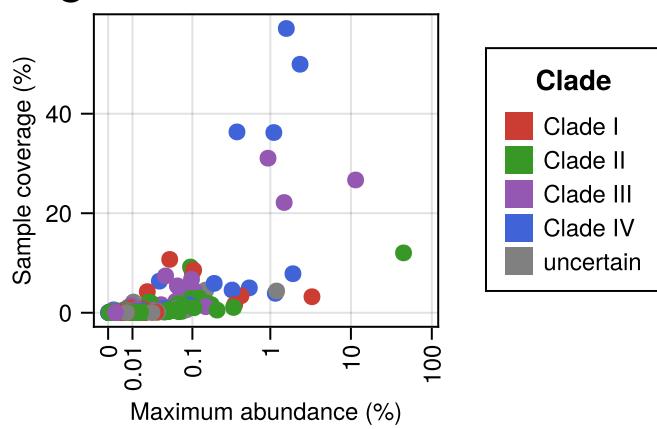
a



b



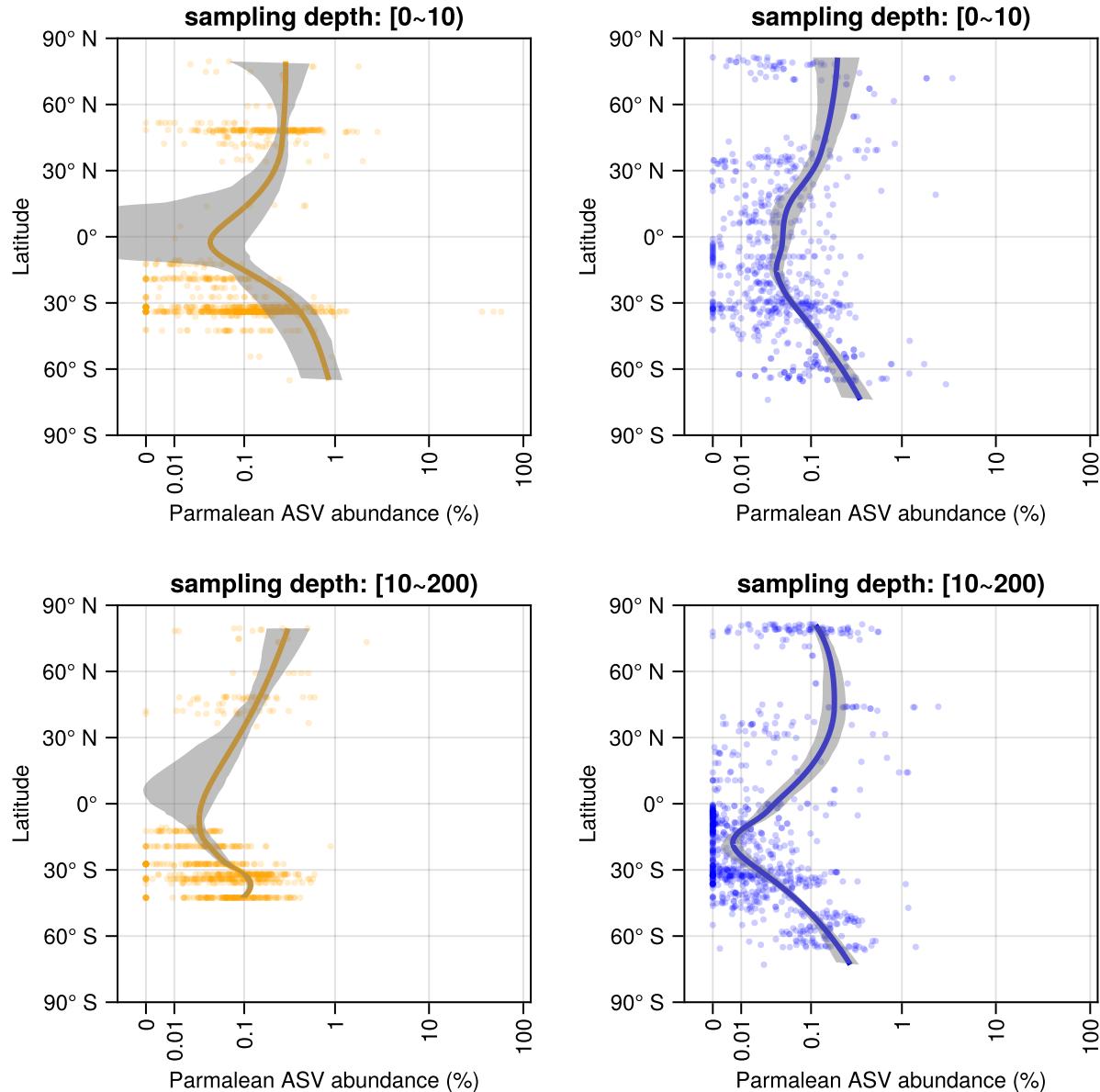
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269

270 **Fig. 3 | Overview of the parmalean distribution in the global ocean.**

271 (a) Global distribution of parmalean ASVs. Top left, Coastal ocean surface layer; Bottom left,
272 Coastal ocean euphotic zone; Top right, Open ocean surface layer; Bottom right, Open ocean
273 euphotic zone. Marker sizes are scaled to the $\log_{10}(\text{total relative abundance} * 10,000 + 1)$ at each
274 sample. (b) Total relative abundance of parmalean ASVs of each sample. The x-axis is scaled with
275 the pseudolog10 function. (c) Existing ratio and the maximum relative abundance of each ASV.
276 The x-axis is scaled with the pseudolog10 function.
277



278

279 **Fig. 4 | Latitudinal trend of total relative abundance of parmalean ASVs.**

280 Legend as in Fig. 3a for panels. Shaded areas represent 90 % confidence intervals.

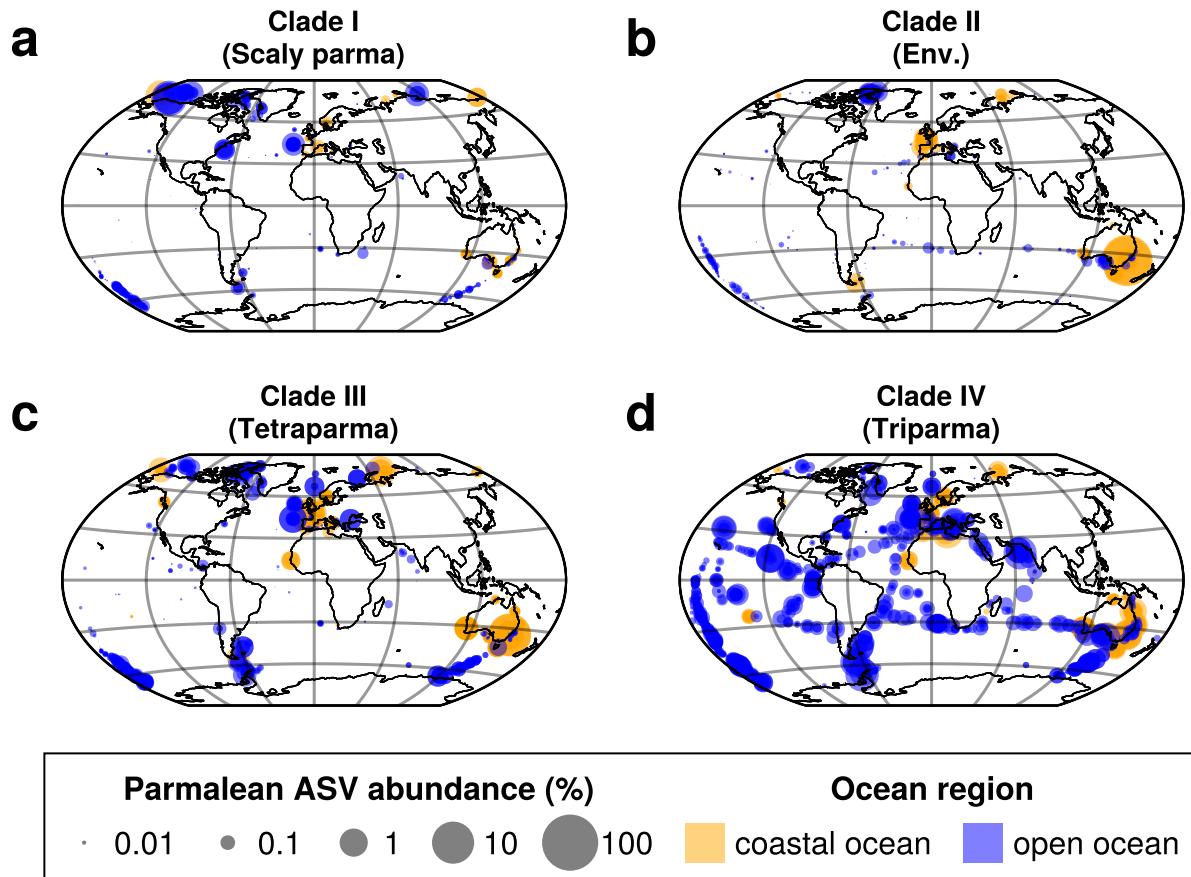
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282 **Global diversity pattern of parmalean ASVs.**

283 All Parmales clades were distributed in both the coastal and open oceans, but distinct
284 distribution patterns emerged for the clades (Fig. 5). Clade I ('Scaly parma') appeared to be
285 biased toward subarctic to polar regions (Fig. 5a). The WAT index of Clade I was 6.64°C,
286 suggesting a preference for lower temperatures (Fig. 6a, Fig. S3a). Clade II (environmental
287 clade) was rare in the tropic, but was widely distributed through mid- and high-latitude areas
288 (Fig. 5b). The WAT index of Clade II is 14.2°C, which is higher than that of Clade I (Fig 6a, Fig.
289 S3b).

290 We conducted detailed subclade analysis of Clade III (*Tetraparma*) and Clade IV (*Triparma*)
291 (Fig. 5c, d). Each of the three subclades of Clade III showed clearly distinct distribution patterns.
292 Clade IIIa was distributed in both the coastal and open oceans from the subarctic to polar
293 regions, suggesting a preference for cold water (Fig. 6a, 7a). Clade IIIb and Clade IIIc exhibited
294 a strong bias towards coastal oceans (Fig. 7b, c), with the RBC values of Clade IIIb and Clade
295 IIIc being 0.598 and 0.468, respectively (Fig. 6b, Table S2, Fig S5d, S5e).

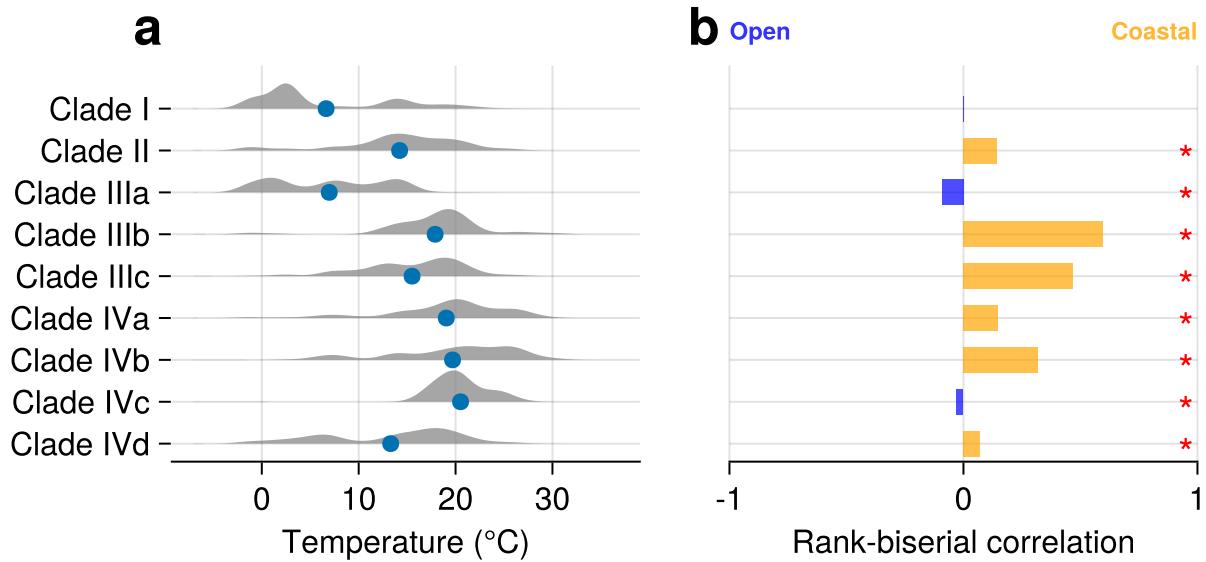
296 Clade IVa, Clade IVb, and Clade IVd were very widely distributed, with each detected in over
297 50% of the samples (Fig. 8a, b, d). In contrast, Clade IVc was narrowly distributed and present in
298 only 8.25% of samples. Clade IVc was only found in mid-latitude zones of both hemispheres,
299 such as the Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 8c), and in a narrower range of water temperatures (Fig. 6a,
300 Fig. S4f). Clade IVa and Clade IVb exhibited similar distribution patterns, being relatively rare
301 in polar regions but still widely distributed (Fig. 8a, b); the WAT indices of the two clades were
302 19.0°C and 19.7°C, respectively (Fig. 6a). The RBC values of Clades IVa and IVb were 0.146
303 and 0.320, respectively, with Clade IVb showing a stronger preference for the coastal oceans
304 compared to Clade IVa (Fig. 6b, Table S2. Fig. S5f, S5g). Clade IVd was widely distributed but
305 was less abundant in the tropics, in contrast to Clade IVa and Clade IVb. The WAT index of
306 Clade IVb was 13.3°C, suggesting a preference for cold oceans (Fig. 6a, Fig. S4g).



307

308 **Fig. 5 | Global distribution of parmalean ASVs in each clade.**

309 Samples from all depths are show in single plots. Orange dots indicate coastal ocean samples and
310 blue dots indicate open ocean samples. Marker sizes are scaled to the $\log_{10}(\text{total relative}$
311 abundance*10,000+1) at each sample. (a) Clade I ('Scaly Parma'), (b) Clade II (environmental
312 clade), (c) Clade III (*Tetraparma*), (d) Clade IV (*Triparma*).
313

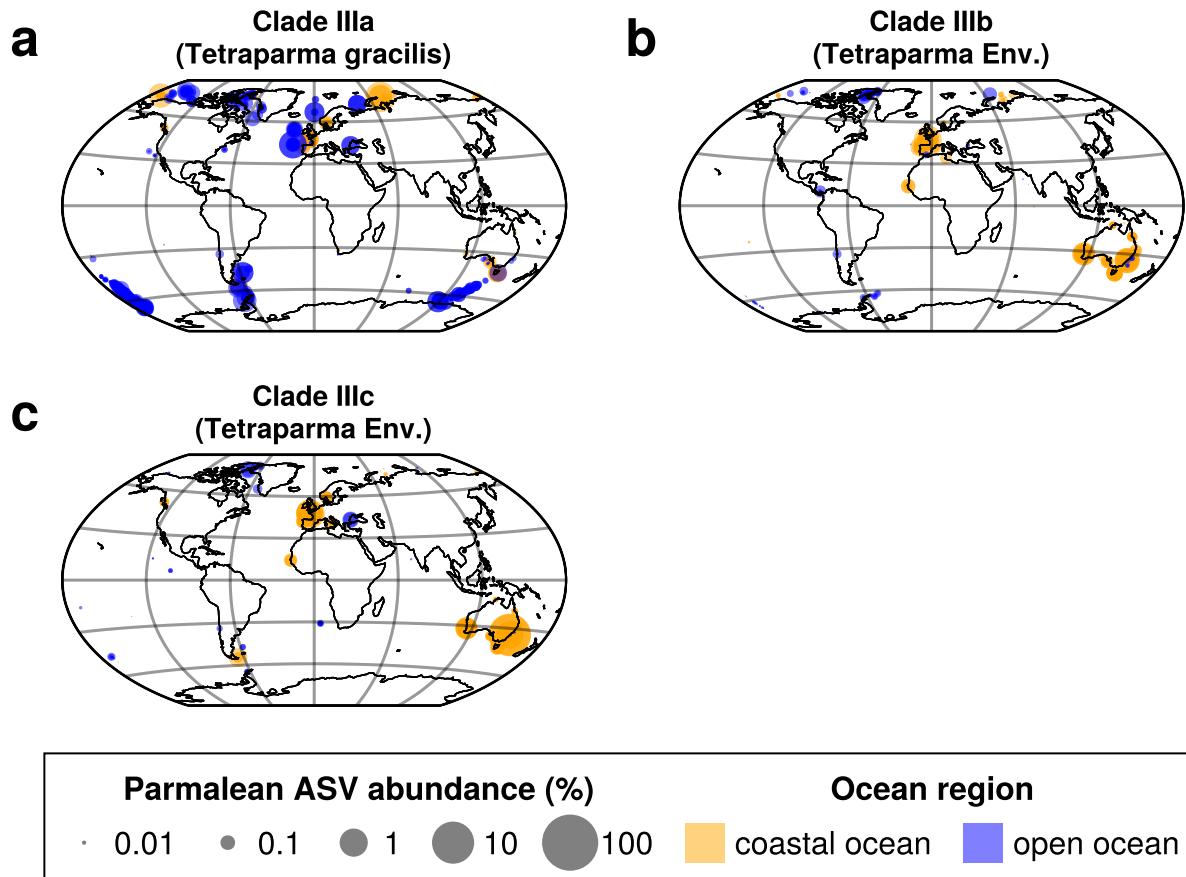


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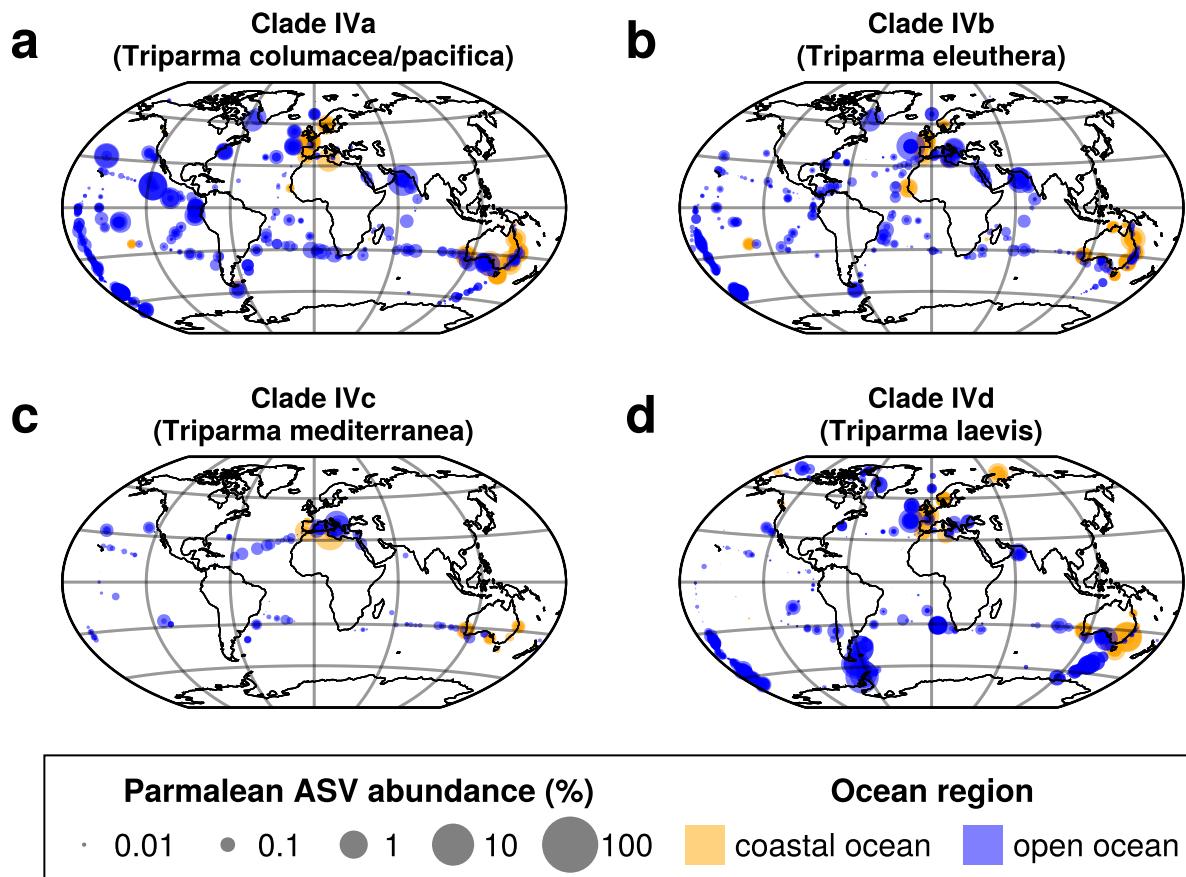
315 **Fig. 6 | Characteristics of the distribution of clades/subclades.**

316 (a) Temperature preference of each clade. Blue dots represent the respective WAT indices. Shaded
317 areas are violin plots of temperature weighted by the frequency in each sample. (b) Preference
318 between coastal ocean and open ocean of each clade/subclade. Bar plot indicates rank-biserial
319 correlation, which is an effect size of the Mann-Whitney U test. Positive RBC values indicate a
320 preference for the coastal ocean, negative values indicate a preference for the open ocean, and the
321 absolute value (0–1) indicates the strength of the preference. Asterisks indicate statistical
322 significance of the test for each clade/subclade (p -value < 0.05). Detailed results of Mann-Whitney
323 U test are in Table S2.

324



325
326 **Fig. 7 | Global distribution of parmalean ASVs in each subclade of Clade III.**
327 Legend as in Fig. 5. (a) Clade IIIa (*Tetraparma gracilis*), (b) Clade IIIb (environmental clade), (c)
328 Clade IIIc (*Tetraparma*).
329



330

331 **Fig. 8 | Global distribution of parmalean ASVs in each subclade of Clade IV.**

332 Legend as in Fig. 5. (a) Clade IVa (*Triparma columacea*, *Triparma pacifica*), (b) Clade IVb

333 (c) Clade IVc (*Triparma mediterranea*), (d) Clade IVd (*Triparma laevis*).

334

Discussion

335 Using larger DNA metabarcoding datasets than those previously employed (Ichniomiya 2016;
336 Kuwata 2018), we found that Parmales was broadly distributed from coastal to open oceans and
337 from pole to pole (Fig. 3a). However, their relative abundances in the eukaryotic community
338 were below 0.2% on average, as previously reported (Ichniomiya et al., 2016; Kuwata et al.,
339 2018). Parmales can thus be considered a cosmopolitan phytoplankton group belonging to the
340 rare biosphere (Lynch and Neufeld, 2015). Nonetheless, their relative abundance sometimes
341 exceeds 1% (up to about 60%) (Fig. 3b), and they may occasionally play important ecological
342 roles.

343 The predicted true richness of Parmales in the global ocean was about 316 ASVs. This low
344 level of diversity contrasts starkly with their sister group, diatoms, which are estimated to have
345 about 100,000 ribotypes of V9 region in the global ocean, methodological differences
346 notwithstanding (Malviya et al., 2016). Therefore, Parmales is a minor group of eukaryotes with
347 respect to diversity. The fitted Preston model suggests that the ASVs collected in this study
348 covered 84.5% of the entire diversity of Parmales (Fig. 2b, c).

349 Previous field observations of silicified Parmales cells showed a strong association between the
350 water temperature and their distribution (Ichniomiya and Kuwata, 2015; Ichniomiya et al., 2019).
351 We revealed that the relative abundance of Parmales increases with latitude (Fig. 4), which
352 supports the idea of an association between water temperature and Parmales distribution,
353 although our analyses do not distinguish silicified forms from naked flagellates and thus differ
354 from the previous reports in this regard.

355 The phylogenetic analysis of the full-length 18S rRNA gene sequences recovered four clades of
356 Parmales, as previously reported (Kuwata et al., 2018; Ban et al., 2023) (Fig. 1). These
357 sequences also include recent isolates of silicified forms (Ban et al., 2023), especially 'Scaly
358 parma' and *Tetraparma gracilis*. Together with a previous analysis (Ban et al., 2023), our study
359 confirmed the phylogenetic positions of 'Scaly parma' in Clade I and *Tetraparma* in Clade III
360 (Fig. 1). Isolates of *Triparma* belonged to Clade IV. Clade II consisted only of environmental
361 sequences with moderate levels of relative abundance (Fig. 2a) and a relatively high level of
362 diversity (Fig. 2d, Table 1). *Pentalamina* (Booth and Marchant, 1987) is a genus of Parmales
363 with a distinct morphology, but there have been no isolates or 18S rRNA sequences from this

364 genus. Given the morphological differences in silicified cells among Clades I, III, and IV,
365 *Pentalamina* may be a member of the environmental Clade II.

366 Individual clades/subclades showed distinct distribution patterns (Fig. 5, 6, 7, 8, Table S2, Fig
367 S3, S4, S5), suggesting they were adapted to different ecological niches. Clade I ('Scaly parma')
368 showed a strong preference for high-latitude regions and lower temperatures (Fig. 5a, 6a), which
369 is consistent with previous findings (Kuwata et al., 2018) and our observation that the lone
370 'Scaly Parma' isolate derived from cold waters of the Sea of Okhotsk (Ban et al., 2023). Clade I
371 is the least abundant among the four clades (Fig. 2a). The lack of field observations (apart from
372 the single isolate) may be explained by this low abundance.

373 Clade II (environmental clade) also showed a preference for cold water, though not to the extent
374 of Clade I (Fig. 5b, 6a). In samples where Parmales dominated in Botany Bay, Sydney,
375 Australia, the most frequent ASV belonged to Clade II. This suggests Clade II members have the
376 ability to cause bloom. As mentioned above, we speculate that *Pentalamina* belongs to Clade II.
377 The silicified form of *Pentalamina* has only been reported from the Antarctic Ocean (Kuwata et
378 al., 2018), which is consistent with the niche preference of Clade II.

379 Clade III (*Tetraparma*) and Clade IV (*Triparma*) showed distinct distribution patterns when
380 divided into subclades (Fig. 6, 7, 8). Clade IIIa (*Tetraparma gracilis*) preferred cold water (Fig.
381 6a, 7a), which is consistent with reports that the silicified form of *Tetraparma gracilis* was
382 frequently observed in cold water surrounding Hokkaido, North Japan (Ichinomiya et al., 2019).
383 Clade IIIb and Clade IIIc showed a different distribution pattern; they were preferentially
384 distributed in coastal areas (Fig. 6b, 7b, 7c, Table S2, Fig S5f, S5g).

385 Clade IVc (*Triparma mediterranea*) prefers the mid-latitude of both hemispheres (Fig. 8c). It
386 was previously proposed that the distribution of *Triparma mediterranea* was mostly restricted to
387 the Mediterranean Sea (Ichinomiya et al., 2016; Kuwata et al., 2018). Our study reveals that the
388 mid-latitude distribution is a feature of Clade IVc, suggesting that parmaleans of this clade are
389 restricted to a narrow temperature range (Fig. 6a). Clades IVa, IVb, and IVd were widely
390 distributed and four of the highest sample coverage ASVs were from these clades (Fig. 3c).
391 Clade IVd (*Triparma laevis*) showed a preference for cold water, as previously reported
392 (Ichinomiya et al., 2016; Kuwata et al., 2018), while Clade IVa (*Triparma columacea*, *Triparma*
393 *pacifica*) and Clade IVb (*Triparma eleuthera*) showed a preference for warmer water. This result
394 is consistent with previous growth experiments; silicified form isolates of *Triparma laevis* f.

395 *inornata*, *Triparma laevis* f. *longispina*, and *Tripamra strigata* (all in Clade IVd) can grow in
396 cold water but not over 15°C (Ichinomiya and Kuwata, 2015), while the naked flagellate isolate
397 of *Triparma eleuthera* (Clade IVb) can grow at 16–24°C (Stawiarski et al., 2016). Previous
398 observations of *Triparma columacea* and *Triparma retinervis* (each in Clade IVa) in the tropics
399 (Fujita and Jordan, 2017) are also consistent with our results on the distribution of Clade IV.

400 With the exception of Clade IIIb and Clade IIIc (coastal groups), all clades/subclades
401 commonly appeared in both coastal and open oceans (Fig. 5, 6b, 7, 8, Table S2, Fig. S5),
402 suggesting that many parmaleans are able to adapt to both eutrophic coastal oceans and nutrient-
403 depleted open ocean. Parmales may switch between silicified photoautotrophic and naked
404 flagellated phago-mixotrophic stages in their life cycle (Ichinomiya et al., 2016; Ban et al.,
405 2023), and mixotrophs are generally thought to widen their niche by alternating their trophic
406 strategies (Endo et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2022). Therefore, our results corroborate the idea that the
407 cosmopolitan distribution of parmaleans might be explained by their life cycle strategy (Ban et
408 al., 2023).

409 By integrating the large dataset produced by EukBank with prior morphological and genetic
410 information, we firmly established that Parmales is a cosmopolitan but rare group of
411 microeukaryotes that can occasionally make blooms. The mapping of morphological features
412 onto the phylogenetic tree revealed still sparse but consistent signals supporting the
413 correspondence between the clades and the different morphologies. Different clades display
414 distinct spatial distributions, suggesting niche differentiations during the evolution of Parmales.
415 We believe that the biogeography of different clades of Parmales revealed in this study will
416 inform our understanding of the physiology, ecology, and evolution of Parmales.

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444

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1 **Supplementary information: Global distribution and diversity of**
2 **marine Parmales**

3

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16 Section.

17

18 **This PDF file includes:**

19 Supplementary Note

20 Table S1, S2

21 Fig. S1 to S5

22 **Supplementary Note**

23 **Depth data preprocessing**

24 In this study, in order to maximize the number of samples for analysis, depth categories in
25 metadata and information from the original papers were used for samples without sampling
26 depth values. The information was used to classify the samples into two categories: 0 m to less
27 than 10 m (surface layer) and 10 m to less than 200 m (euphotic zone). Specifically, the
28 categorizing proceeded as follows. Initially, all samples with depth values were systematically
29 categorized to their respective depths. Then we eliminated samples that lacked both depth and
30 depth category data. For the samples without depth data but with the depth category data being
31 ‘[SRF] surface water layer (ENVO_00010504)’, only samples under project pohem (Ramond et
32 al., 2019, 2021) were retained and categorized to the surface layer, because the original papers
33 documented that these samples were collected at 0–5 m. Other samples were removed because
34 they either deviated from the specified range, lacked the necessary descriptions in the original
35 papers, or lacked original papers. For the samples without depth data but with the depth category
36 data being ‘[DCM] deep chlorophyll maximum layer (ENVO_01000326)’, all samples are
37 retained and categorized to the euphotic zone. For the samples without depth data but in other
38 depth categories, all samples were removed.

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45

46 **Table S1. Slopes of each rarefaction curve.**

| Annotation | Slope |
|------------|---------|
| Total | 5.22e-8 |
| Clade I | 7.45e-9 |
| Clade II | 2.98e-8 |
| Clade III | 9.94e-9 |
| Clade IV | 2.48e-9 |
| Uncertain | 2.48e-9 |

47

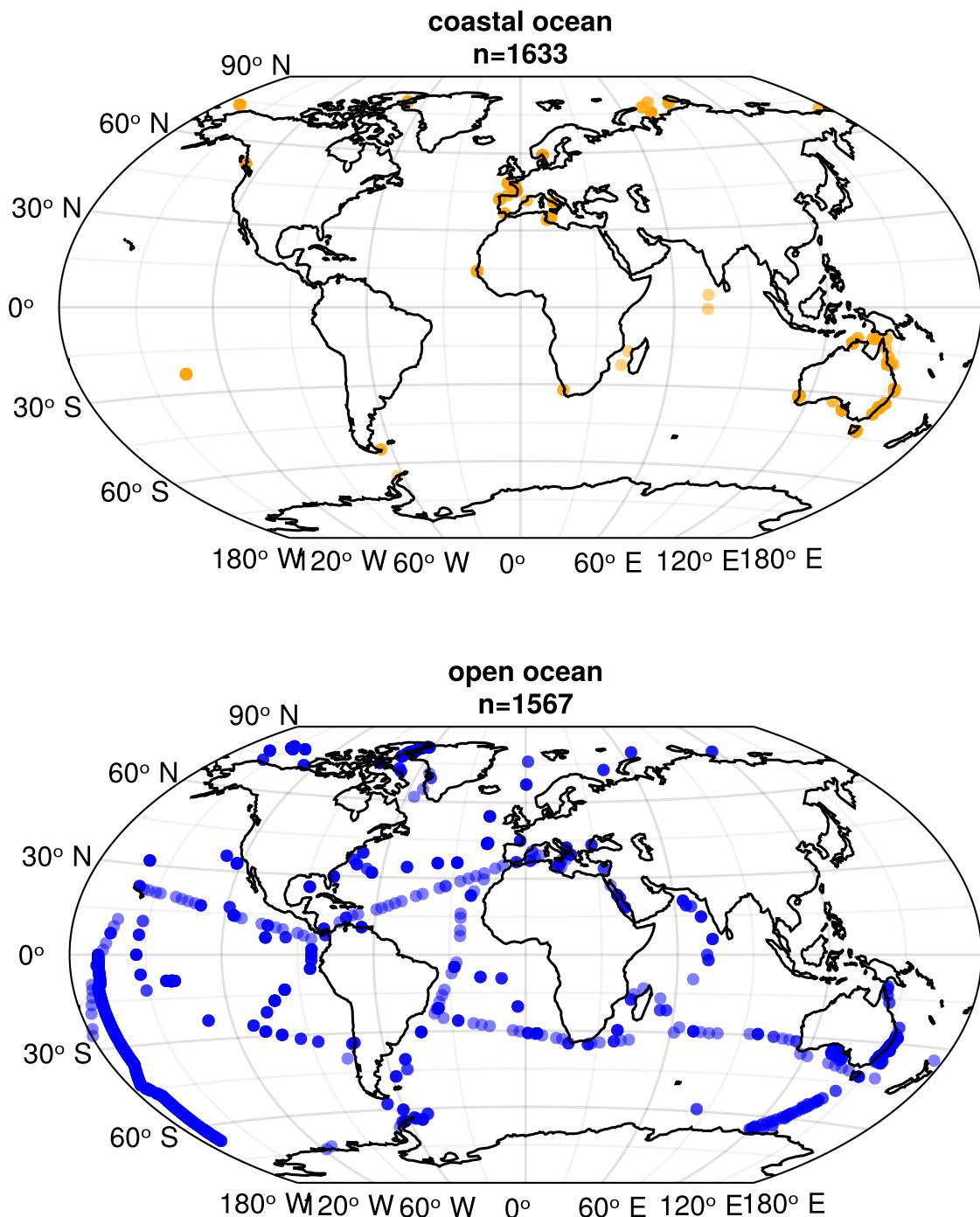
48 **Table S2. Results of Mann-Whitney U test comparing relative abundance between coastal**
49 **ocean and open ocean.**

| Annotation | <i>p</i> -value | Rank-biserial correlation |
|------------|-----------------|---------------------------|
| Clade I | 0.9614 | -0.002 |
| Clade II | <0.00000 | 0.143 |
| Clade IIIa | <0.00000 | -0.092 |
| Clade IIIb | <0.00000 | 0.598 |
| Clade IIIc | <0.00000 | 0.468 |
| Clade IVa | <0.00000 | 0.146 |
| Clade IVb | <0.00000 | 0.320 |
| Clade IVc | 0.00217 | -0.030 |
| Clade IVd | 0.00019 | 0.072 |

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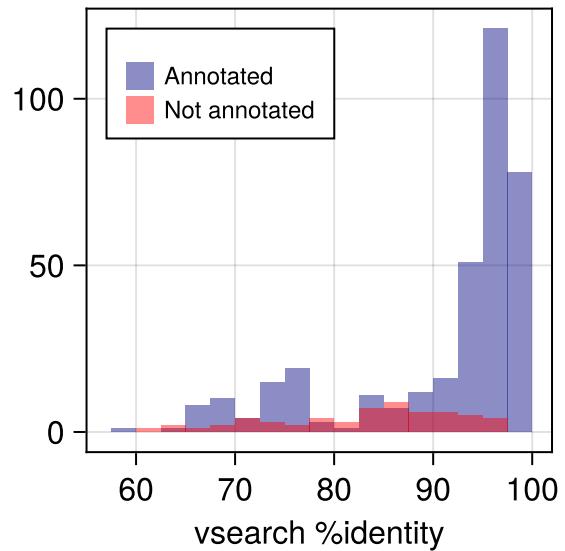
Supplementary Figures



52

53 **Fig. S1 | Geographic distribution of ocean samples selected from EukBank.**

54 Orange dots represent coastal ocean samples and blue dots represent open ocean samples.

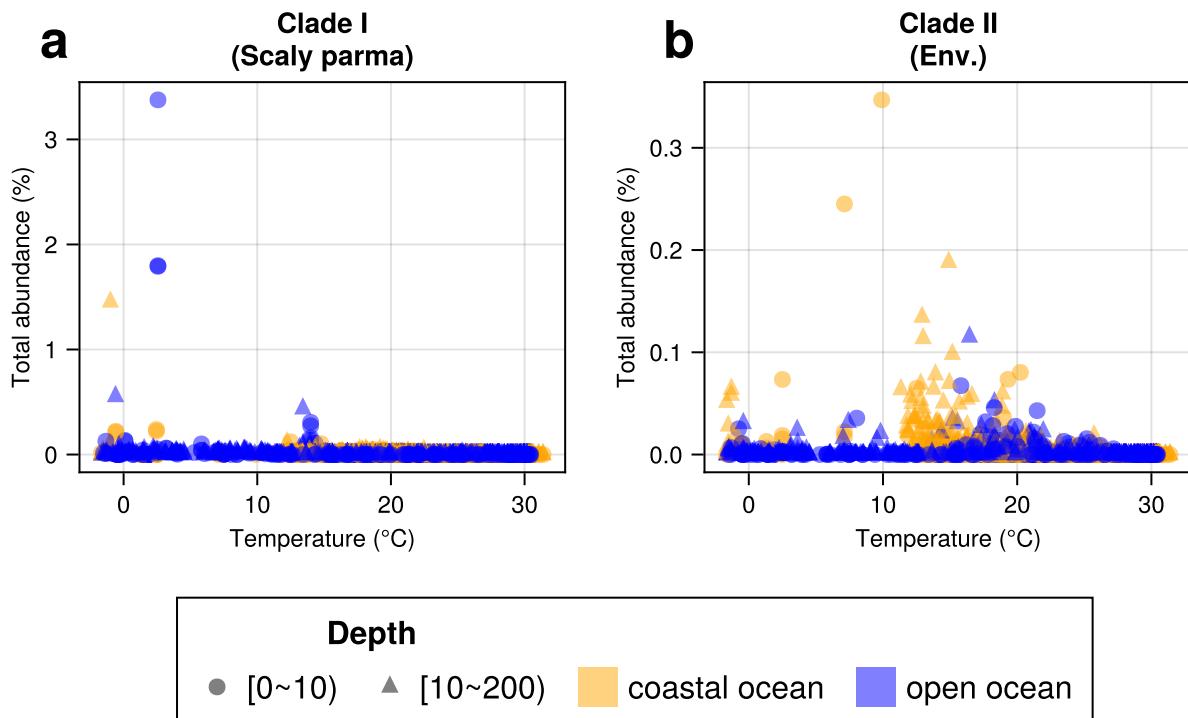


55

56 **Fig. S2 | Distribution of identity against the best hit.**

57 Histogram illustrating the distribution of identity (%) against the best hits using vsearch. Blue bars

58 represent ASVs annotated to the four clades, while red bars represent unannotated ASVs.



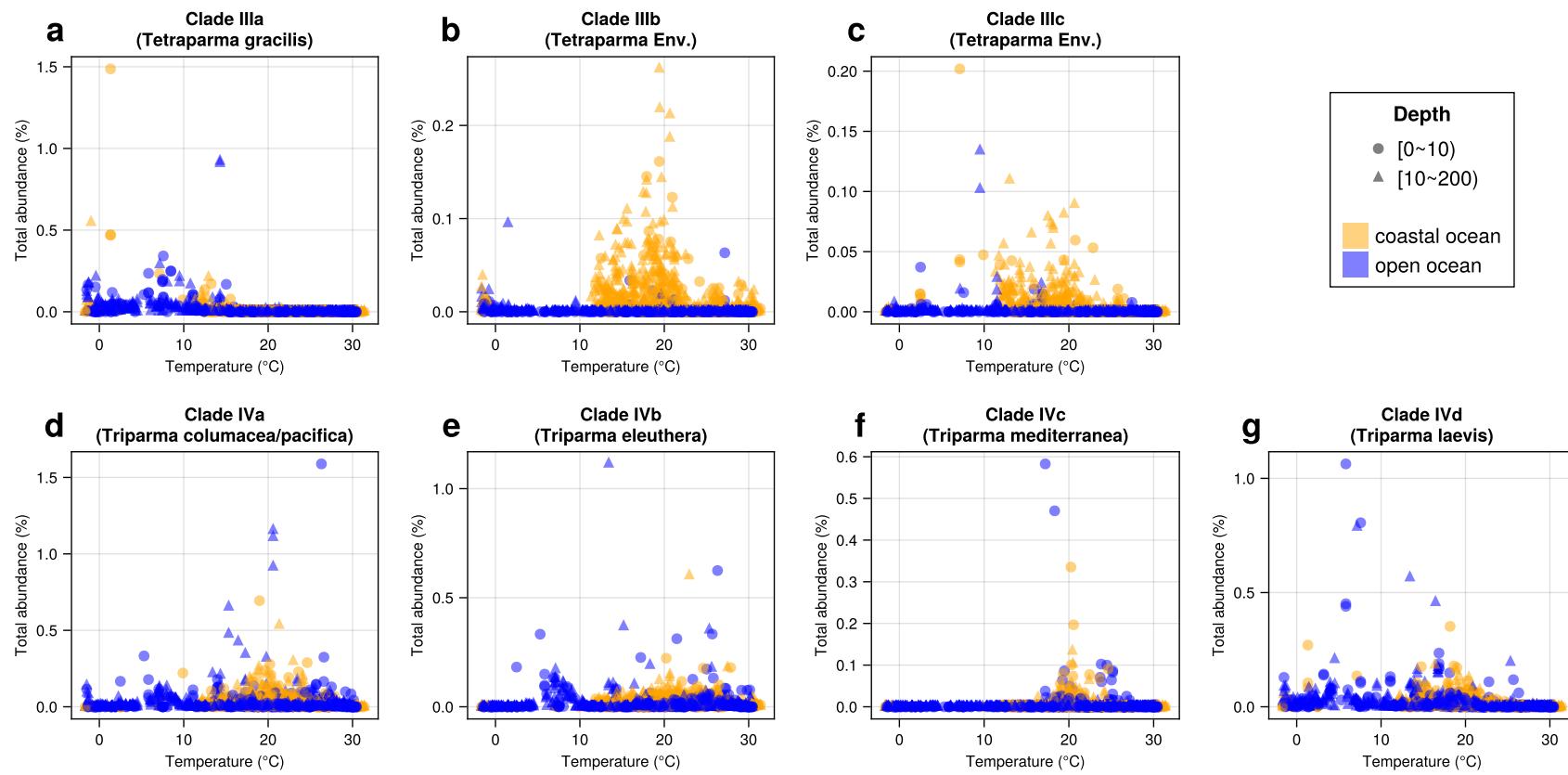
59

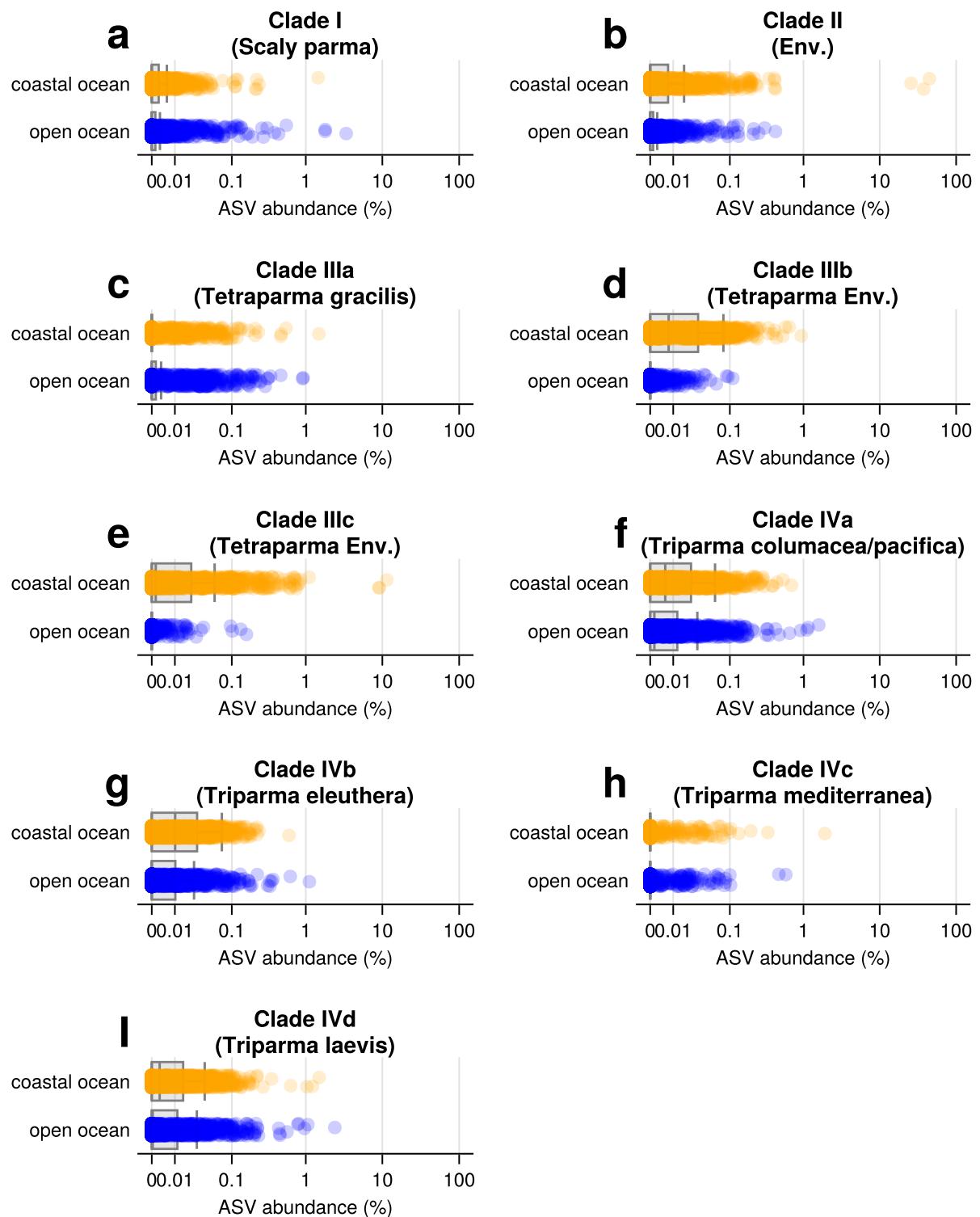
60 **Fig. S3 | Distribution of total abundance across water temperature for Clade I and Clade II.**

61 Circles represent the surface (0-10 m), and triangles represent the euphotic zone (10-200m).

62 Orange markers indicate coastal ocean samples and blue markers indicate open ocean samples. (a)

63 Clade I ('Scaly Parma'), (b) Clade II (environmental clade).





69

70 **Fig. S5 | The distribution of total abundance in the coastal ocean and open ocean of each**
71 **clade/subclade.**

72 (a) Clade I ('Scaly Parma'), (b) Clade II (environmental clade), (c) Clade IIIa (*Tetraparma*
73 *gracilis*), (d) Clade IIIb (environmental clade), (e) Clade IIIc (environmental clade), (f) Clade IVa
74 (*Triparma columacea*, *Triparma pacifica*) (g) Clade IVb (*Triparma eleuthera*), (h) Clade IVc
75 (*Triparma mediterranea*), (I) Clade IVd (*Triparma laevis*).