Eco-physiological traits of mixotrophic Strombidium spp. Maira Maselli¹, Andreas Altenburger², Diane K. Stoecker³, Per Juel Hansen¹ 1 Marine Biological Section, Department of Biology, University of Copenhagen, Helsingør, Denmark, 2 The Arctic University Museum of Norway, UiT – The Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø, Norway 3 Horn Point Laboratory, University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science, Cambridge, Maryland, USA Maira Maselli: ORCID: 0000-0001-5729-9574. E-mail: maira.maselli@bio.ku.dk *Per Juel Hansen: ORCID: 0000-0003-0228-9621. E-mail: pjhansen@bio.ku.dk *corresponding author Andreas Altenburger: ORCID: 0000-0001-5258-8043. E-mail: andreas.altenburger@uit.no Diane K. Stoecker: ORCID: 0000-0002-8963-4303. E-mail: stoecker@umces.edu **Key words:** mixotrophy; kleptoplasty; ciliates; *Strombidium*. Running head: mixotrophic Strombidium

Abstract: Ciliates represent an important trophic link between nanoplankton and mesoplankton. Many species acquire functional chloroplasts from photosynthetic prey, being thus mixotrophs. Little is known about which algae they exploit, and of the relevance of inorganic carbon assimilation to their metabolism. To get insights into these aspects, laboratory cultures of three mixotrophic Strombidium spp. were established and thirty-five photosynthetic algal species were tested as prey. The relative contributions of ingestion and photosynthesis to total carbon uptake were determined, and responses to prey starvation were studied. Ciliate growth was supported by algal species in the $2-12 \mu m$ size range, with cryptophytes and chlorophytes being the best prey types. Inorganic carbon incorporation was only quantitatively important when prey concentration was low $(3-100 \,\mu \text{gCL}^{-1})$, when it led to increased gross growth efficiencies. Chla specific inorganic carbon uptake rates were reduced by 60 to 90% compared to that of the photosynthetic prey. Inorganic carbon uptake alone could not sustain survival of cultures and ciliate populations declined by 25-30% during five days of starvation. The results suggest that mixotrophy in *Strombidium* spp. may substantially bolster the efficiency of trophic transfer when biomass of small primary producers is low.

Introduction

- Oligotrich ciliates are a major component of microzooplankton in pelagic and coastal waters
- 57 (Johansson et al., 2004; Haraguchi et al., 2018), representing an important trophic link between
- small primary producers and larger zooplankton (Calbet, 2008). Microzooplankton can consume up
- to the 75% of the daily primary production (Schmoker et al., 2013), thus microzooplankton
- 60 productivity and trophic efficiency can have a major impact on element and energy transfer within
- 61 the planktonic food web and on biogeochemical fluxes (Calbet and Landry, 2004; Buitenhuis et al.,
- 62 2010). Traditionally, planktonic ciliates in food web and ecosystem models are regarded as size
- selective heterotroph grazers with a typical growth efficiency of 30-50% (Gismervik 2005; Yang et
- al. 2015). However, in the euphotic zone, about the 30% of oligotrich ciliates biomass is accounted
- 65 for species that retain functional plastids from their prey, acquiring the ability to photosynthesize
- 66 (Stoecker et al., 1987; Putt, 1990a; Stoecker et al., 2009), and thus being non-constitutive
- 67 mixotrophs (Mitra et al., 2016).
- 68 Mixotrophy can lead to increased growth efficiencies in oligotrich ciliates, especially in conditions
- of limiting prey availability (Schoener and McManus, 2017). The increase in growth yield gained
- 70 from photosynthesis is therefore crucial in the parametrization of ciliates carbon budget in plankton
- ecosystem models (Mitra et al., 2014; Ghyoot et al., 2017). Despite that, very few data on the
- contribution of photosynthesis to the carbon budgets of mixotrophic ciliates are available in the
- 73 literature and even less relate it to prey availability. The main reason for this lack of quantitative
- data is the difficulty in keeping stable laboratory cultures (Gifford, 1985; Jonsson, 1986; McManus
- 75 *et al.*, 2018).
- 76 The few studies carried out on the ecophysiology of mixotrophic oligotrichs suggest that although
- they are prey generalists, not all photosynthetic prey may support their growth (Gifford 1985;
- McManus et al. 2018). Nevertheless, it is currently not known to which extent these ciliates can
- 79 grow on different algal groups, or if some degree of prey preference exists. Mixotrophic oligotrichs
- may have high ingestion rates, in the range of 50-100 prey cells h⁻¹ when prey is abundant (Stoecker
- et al., 1988a; Gismervik, 2005). Photosynthesis in these ciliates seems insufficient to sustain cell
- division but can cover respiratory requirements (Stoecker et al., 1988 a,b; McManus et al., 2018).
- 83 Mixotrophic oligotrichs do not seem to retain prey nuclei (Laval-Peuto and Febvre, 1986; Stoecker
- et al., 1988a), or to express genes related to maintenance of plastids (Santoferrara et al., 2014).
- Thus, it is possible that the functionality of the sequestered plastids is affected by aging upon

- sequestration. For this reason, they seem to be dependent on continuous ingestion of prey, not only
- 87 for nutrition, but also as chloroplast supply.
- 88 Current knowledge of ecophysiology of mixotrophic oligotrichs is built on studies of very few
- species, and there is a need to study more species to be able to make generalizations.
- 90 We therefore established cultures of three species from the field to investigate: 1) the prey size spectra
- 91 they can exploit, and which algal taxa better sustain their growth, 2) growth, ingestion and inorganic
- 92 carbon uptake rates at different prey abundances, and 3) effects of prey starvation on growth and
- 93 photosynthesis

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Materials and methods

Algal cultures

- 97 Thirty-five algal cultures were used as prey for the ciliate cultures (Table 1). The cultures were
- 98 mainly provided by the Scandinavian Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa (SCCAP), and the
- 99 Bigelow National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (NCMA). Stock algal cultures were
- maintained in f/2 media based on filtered seawater (FSW) from the Øresund, Denmark, at a salinity
- of 15. Aliquots of dense algal stock culture were diluted in FSW, with no addition of nutrients,
- before being used as prey for ciliates. The cultures were kept at 15 °C and at an irradiance of 70
- μmol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ on a light:dark cycle of 16:8h. Algal growth was monitored and only
- exponentially growing algal cultures were used as prey. Algae were fixed in Lugol's (2% final
- conc.) and enumerated using an inverted light microscope (Olympus CKX53) at a magnification of
- 106 100X in Sedgewick-Rafter chambers. The equivalent spherical diameter (ESD) of most of the algal
- species was measured by a Beckman Coulter Counter Multisizer 3.3. The ESDs of algal species,
- which size was outside the range of sensitivity of the instrument ($<3\mu$ m), were measured manually
- with an Olympus light microscope TH4-200 equipped with Olympus camera DP73 at a
- magnification of 400x using the software CellSense. ESD measurements allowed the calculation of
- algal biovolume as: $4/3\pi^*(ESD/2)^3$.

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Isolation and maintenance of ciliate cultures

- 114 Three ciliates species were isolated from natural water samples collected in Roskilde Fjord (South
- of Frederiksværk, Denmark) on June 2nd, 2018. Individual cells were isolated using a drawn glass
- capillary pipette under an Olympus SZ61 dissection microscope (X10-50 magnification) and

117 transferred to sterile-filtered seawater (FSW) from the location several times to remove other protists. In the end, single cells were added to FSW enriched with either monocultures of 118 cryptophytes (Teleaulax amphioxeia and T. acuta) or green algae (Nephroselmis rotunda, 119 Pyramimonas mitra and Tetraselmis chui), or mixtures of these algae. Successful isolates were 120 subsequently kept in culture in FSW at a salinity of 15, temperature of 15°C and a 16:8 light: dark 121 cycle at an irradiance of 70 μ mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹, and fed either *T. amphioxeia* or *N. rotunda*. 122 Cultures were maintained in 24 wells tissue-culture dishes (well volume of 2 mL) and in glass 123 bottles (volume of 50 to 150 mL). The ciliate cultures were subcultured weekly. Any attempt to 124 upscale Strombidium sp. 3 into glass bottles failed, so experiments 2 and 3 were only conducted 125 with the two other ciliates species. 28S and 18S gene sequences were used to aid in the 126 identification of the ciliates species (sequences were obtained and analyzed as described in the 127 Supplementary Material). 128

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Experiment 1. Prey size and prey type spectra

Up to 35 different species of photosynthetic algae were tested as monocultures as prey for the three 131 ciliate species to get insights into the algal prey sizes and taxonomic groups that led to successful 132 growth. The prey algae covered the size range: <1 to 15 µm in ESD (equivalent spherical diameter). 133 This experiment was carried out in 24 wells tissue-culture dishes harbouring 2 mL of algal 134 suspension. Each prey species was tested in six replicate wells for each ciliate species. Prey was 135 added at a final prey biovolume of 6.25 x $10^6 \,\mu\text{m}^3$ mL⁻¹. Ten starved ciliates were subsequently 136 added to each well, using a drawn micropipette. Temperature, irradiance, and medium composition 137 138 were the same as for cultures maintenance. The ciliates were allowed to grow for five days, during which the plates were inspected by live observation on a stereomicroscope. A value rank was 139 assigned to the growth of each of the ciliates species for each of the tested prey algae: "-1", if less 140 than 10 ciliate cells were still present at the end of the five days, "0" if the number of cells remained 141 constant, "1" if they were ~ 20 cells, and 2 if there were > 20 cells. Prey species that successfully 142 sustained ciliate growth during these 5 days experiments were tested for long term maintenance of 143 144 ciliate cultures on a single prey species.

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Experiment 2. Growth rate, prey ingestion, cellular Chla and photosynthesis of two

- 148 Strombidium species at three different prey concentrations
- To measure the contribution of carbon derived from photosynthesis and prey ingestion in presence
- of different prey concentrations, experiments were set up with three prey concentrations in
- triplicates. Based on the results from preliminary experiments (see Supplementary Material),
- 152 cultures of *Strombidium* cf. *conicum* (45 ciliates mL⁻¹) were acclimated to *T. amphioxeia* average
- concentrations of 3.0, 100 and $1.3 \times 10^3 \,\mu \text{gCmL}^{-1}$, while Strombidium cf. basimorphum cultures (20)
- ciliates mL⁻¹) were acclimated to T. amphioxeia average concentrations of 6, 25 and 800 μ gCmL⁻¹.
- Average prey concentration were calculated as:

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$$Cavg = (C1-C0)/LN (C1/C0)$$
 (1)

- where C0 is the initial prey concentration and C1 is prey concentration after 24h.
- Acclimation to the prey concentration was carried out in 500 mL glass flasks having a water volume
- of 300 mL. Stock cultures were incubated with the desired prey concentration for two days
- adjusting ciliates and algae concentration every 24h. After the two days of acclimation, the cultures
- were split into triplicate bottles and incubated for another 3 days, adjusting concentrations of
- ciliates and prey every 24h. 6 mL samples were withdrawn for cell enumeration, transferred to 24
- well tissue culture plates, fixed in Lugol's and enumerated using an inverted light microscope
- 164 (Olympus CKX53) at a magnification of 50X. Ciliate growth was measured as change in cell
- abundance over time and calculated assuming exponential growth (μ, d^{-1}) :

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$$\mu = \ln (N1/N0)/(t1-t0)$$
 (2)

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- Where N1 and N0 are the cell mL⁻¹ at time 0 and time 1.
- Monocultures of *T. amphioxeia* in triplicates were also set up allowing for the calculation of prey
- ingestion rates. Ingestion rate (IR: prey cells ciliate⁻¹day⁻¹) were calculated from reduction in prey
- concentration in grazing treatments compared to control treatments with the prey algae alone, over
- 24 hours. Frost equations was applied as modified by Heinbokel *et al.*, (1978). Carbon content of *T*.
- amphioxeia (10 pg/cell) was calculated applying the volume to carbon regression for protist
- plankton as in Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000). Prey and ciliates carbon content have been used
- to convert the IR into carbon specific ingestion rate (d⁻¹) as follow:

176 Carbon specific ingestion = $\frac{\text{cellular carbon content of the prey (pg)*IR (prey cells ciliate}^{-1}\text{day}^{-1})}{\text{cellular carbon content of the ciliate (pg)}} = d^{-1}$ 177 (3)

Daily, samples (6mL) were also withdrawn for measurements of Chla and photosynthetic rates.

- *Chlorophyll a measurements.* For ciliate Chl*a* measurements, 20 ciliate cells from each experimental bottle were picked with a drawn micropipette, rinsed in FSW several times and added to 2 mL of 96% ethanol. Chl*a* content of the algal control was also measured by collection of 2 mL of algal suspension onto glass microfiber filters (Whatman, GF/F), which was extracted in 5 mL of 96% ethanol. Samples were then stored in the dark at 4°C for 24 hours and Chl*a* was quantified using a Turner Trilogy Fluorometer equipped with a Chl*a* non-acidification insert.
- Photosynthetic rate measurements. Photosynthetic rates of ciliates were measured on triplicate samples each one containing twenty ciliates singularly picked from each experimental bottle with a drawn Pasteur pipette, applying the ¹⁴C technique by Rivkin and Seliger (1981). Ciliates cells were rinsed in FSW and incubated for 3 hours in 23-mL glass scintillation vials filled with 2mL of FSW in which 20 μL NaH¹⁴CO3⁻ stock solution (specific activity 100 μCi mL⁻¹) was added. Incubations were carried out simultaneously in the light and in the dark to compensate for passive incorporation of the isotope. Specific activity was determined after the incubation by transferring 100 μl from each incubation vial into new vials containing 200 μL phenethylamine . The remaining volume of each sample was acidified with 2 mL 10% glacial acetic acid in methanol and dried overnight on a 65°C heat plate. Dried samples were re-suspended in 1.5 mL of distilled water. Ten mL of Ultima Gold scintillation cocktail were then added and radioactivity was determined using Tri-Carb 2910 TR, Perkin-Elmer liquid scintillation counter.

197 Carbon incorporation rates (P= pgC cell⁻¹ h⁻¹) were calculated as follows:

$$P = \frac{[(lightDPM - darkDPM)/n^{\circ} \text{ of cells}] * \mu gC/mL * 10^{\circ}6}{DPM \text{ specific activity } * incubation time(h)}$$

202 Where DPM is disintegration per minute and μ gC/mL refers to the inorganic carbon content of the 203 medium.

The total inorganic carbon in the culture medium has been measured on 25 mL samples collected in glass vials and analysed with a Shimadzu TOC-L analyser. The hourly photosynthetic rate (pgC

cell⁻¹ h⁻¹) was used to calculate the daily photosynthetic (pgC cell⁻¹ d⁻¹). Daily photosynthetic rate 206 was used to calculate carbon specific photosynthetic rate (pgC pg C^{-1} d $^{-1}$ = d $^{-1}$) and chlorophyll 207 specific photosynthetic rate (pgC pgChl a^{-1} d $^{-1}$ e C Chl a^{-1} d $^{-1}$). Photosynthetic rates of the algal control 208 were also measured on 2 mL of algae monoculture, spiked with 20 μL NaH¹⁴CO₃ stock solution 209 (specific activity 100 μCi mL⁻¹) and incubated simultaneously in the light and in the dark. At the 210 211 end of the incubation, specific activity has been determined and the remaining volume of each sample was acidified and processed as described for ciliates. Carbon incorporation rates were 212 calculated according to eq. (4). 213

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- Carbon content and gross growth efficiency. Gross growth efficiency (GGE) was calculated as the
- percentage of the ingested carbon (pgC cell⁻¹ day⁻¹) effectively converted into new ciliates biomass
- 217 (pgC cell $^{-1}$ d $^{-1}$).
- 218 Ciliate biomass production was calculated as:
- Biomass production = $\mu_y \times C_y$ (5)
- where μ_y is growth rate (μ, d^{-1}) and C_y is the average ciliates carbon content (pg C cell⁻¹).
- 221 Ciliate carbon content was calculated according to Putt and Stoecker, 1989 as:
- Ciliates C content= $0.19 \text{ pg x } \mu\text{m}^3$ (6)
- 223 Ciliate biovolumes were calculated from measurement of their linear dimension taken with the
- Olympus light microscope TH4-200 equipped with Olympus camera DP73 at a magnification of
- 200x using the software CellSense. About 90 cells were measured per each food treatment. The
- shape of *Strombidium* sp.1 was assumed to be a cone topped with a half sphere and the one of
- 227 Strombidium sp.2 either a sphere or prolate ellipsoid.
- Experiment 3. Changes in growth rate, Chla content and photosynthesis of two Strombidium
- 229 species during prey depletion
- 230 Prior to this experiment, cultures of the two ciliates were acclimated for three days to a saturating
- prey concentration of T. amphioxeia $(1.0 \times 10^5 \text{ cell mL}^{-1})$, see the Supplementary Material for the
- determination of saturating prey concentration), then distributed into three flasks (500 mL Blue Cap
- 233 glass flasks: VWR borosilicate 3.3; 215-1594) each containing a volume of 200 mL and allowed to
- completely deplete the prey. Cultures were incubated for 1 week at 70 mol photons m⁻²s⁻¹, day:night
- 235 cycle 16:8h. Control treatments (flasks with *T. amphioxeia* without added ciliates) were incubated

and sampled similarly, so that ingestion rates could be calculated as described above. Growth rates of both organisms were calculated (eq.2). Measurements of cellular Chla and photosynthetic rates were carried out as described in experiment 2.

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Results

241	Isolation and maintenance of ciliate cultures
242	The three isolated ciliate species were identified as members of the genus Strombidium (order
243	Oligotrichida), based on their morphology (Fig.1) and partial 18S and 28S gene sequences
244	(Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). The different isolates were identified as Strombidium cf.
245	conicum, Strombidium cf. basimorphum and Strombidium sp. 3. Initially, the ciliate cultures were
246	kept in 24 well tissue-culture plates and maintained on a varied diet of Nephroselmis rotunda,
247	Pyramimonas mitra, Teleaulax acuta, Teleaulax amphioxeia and Tetraselmis chui. Initial attempts
248	to grow the ciliates on algal monocultures failed, with the cultures dying after 1 to 2 weeks. After
249	some months of mixed prey culture, we finally managed to grow them on algal monocultures in 24
250	well tissue culture plates. At this stage, cultures were actively growing on a diet of single prey
251	species: either N. rotunda or T. amphioxeia. To up-scale ciliate cultures into glass bottles, at least 20
252	cells mL ⁻¹ were transferred from the tissue-culture dishes in a volume of about 30 mL, and
253	incubated with algal prey previously conditioned to FSW. Resting stages (cysts) were observed in
254	cultures of all three species during the first six months from the isolation date (Fig. 2), but cyst

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Experiment 1. Prey size and prey type spectra

formation was lost when cultures were up-scaled to glass bottles.

258 Strombidium cf. conicum and S. cf. basimorphum were able to grow on 13 and 17 out of the tested 35 algal prey species, respectively (Fig. 3 a,b). Strombidium sp. 3 was able to grow on 12 out of 27 259 260 algal prey species tested (Fig. 3c). With few exceptions, algae below 2 μ m and above 12 μ m in size did not support the growth of these three ciliates. However, not all the algal prey in the size range of 261 $2-12 \mu m$ supported the growth of the ciliates. In the cases of S. cf. conicum and Strombidium sp. 3, 262 only 12 out of 25 and 12 out of 22 of tested algal species in the size range 2-12 μ m supported their 263 growth. Strombidium cf. basimorphum was able to grow on 15 of the tested 22 algal species in that 264 265 size range.

- Some algal groups and species supported the growth of the three ciliates better than others (Fig. 4).
- 267 Cryptophytes and chlorophytes best supported growth of the three ciliate species, while the
- 268 cyanophytes and the dinophytes generally did not. Some stramenopiles supported growth, while
- others did not. The size class $<2 \mu m$ primarily contained cyanobacteria and small green algae,
- which, with the exception of *Micromonas pusilla*, (which had an ESD of $\sim 2 \mu m$) did not support
- 271 the growth of any of the ciliates (Fig. 3). The 2-12 μ m size range included stramenopiles,
- haptophytes, chlorophytes, and cryptophytes. In this size range, *Apedinella radians* (stramenopile),
- 273 Mantoniella squamata (chlorophyte) and Phaeocystis globosa (haptophyte), Nephroselmis rotunda
- 274 (chlorophyte) and *Teleaulax acuta* (cryptophyte) best supported growth, while *Imantonia* sp.,
- 275 Prymnesium patelliferum and Isochrysis galbana (haptophytes), Ochromonas moestrupii
- 276 (chrysophyte), and *Thalassiosira pseudonana* (stramenopile) did not support growth. In the prey
- size fraction exceeding 12 μ m, only *Pelagodinium beii* and *Heterocapsa triquetra* (both dinophytes)
- supported growth of *S.* cf. *basimorphum*, but not *S.* cf. *conicum*.
- 279 Experiment 2. Growth rate, prey ingestion, Chla content and photosynthesis of Strombidium
- 280 cf. basimorphum and S. cf. conicum at three different prey concentrations
- The two ciliates species showed comparable physiological rates when acclimated to intermediate
- prey abundances, while S. cf. basimorphum growth and photosynthetic rates were higher compared
- to S. cf. conicum when acclimated to the highest prey concentration (Table2).
- Neither species grew at the lowest prey concentrations used and ingestion and photosynthetic rates
- were again higher in S. cf. basimorphum than in S. cf. conicum (Table 2). At these low prey
- concentrations, photosynthesis contributed 19% and 46% of the carbon uptake for S. cf.
- basimorphum and S. cf. conicum, respectively (Fig.5). The contribution of photosynthesis to the
- total carbon uptake dropped to 7.7% and 6.7%, respectively for S. cf. basimorphum and S. cf.
- 289 conicum with intermediate prey availability and further to 4% and 1.8%. with high prey availability
- 290 (Fig.5).
- 291 Cellular Chla in S. cf. basimorphum and S. cf. conicum increased (Supplementary Table S3), while
- rates of photosynthesis decreased, as a function of prey concentration and prey ingestion rates.
- 293 Consequently, Chla specific photosynthetic rates decreased with prey availability and ingestion
- rates (Supplementary Figure S3, Table 2). The cellular Chla content of the algal prey was $0.36 \pm$
- 295 0.07 pg (std) on average among all control cultures (N=18: six experiments, three replicates each),
- while the photosynthetic rate was 8.82 ± 2.71 pgC cell⁻¹ d⁻¹, leading to a Chla specific
- photosynthetic rate of 24.7 \pm 6.6 C Chl a^{-1} d⁻¹ in the control cultures of *T. amphioxeia*.

298	The cell size of the ciliates increased with prey availability and prey ingestion rates. S. cf. conicum
299	biovolume ranged from 1.78 to 3.01 x $10^4 \mu \text{m}^3$, while the <i>S</i> . cf. <i>basimorphum</i> biovolume ranged
300	from 2.20 to 3.31 x $10^4 \mu \text{m}^3$. The estimated cellular carbon content ranged from 3.33 to 5.73 x 10^3
301	pgC cell ⁻¹ in S. cf. conicum and from 3.23 to 6.30 x 10 ³ pgC cell ⁻¹ in S. cf. basimorphum
302	(Supplementary Table S4). The highest GGE was calculated at intermediate prey concentrations
303	$(25-100\mu g~C~L^{-1})$. GGE was lower when more prey was available and became almost 0 or even
304	negative at very low prey concentrations (Table 2).
305	Experiment 3. Changes in growth, Chla content and photosynthesis in Strombidium cf.
306	basimorphum and S. cf. conicum during prey depletion
307	Cultures of S. cf. basimorphum and S. cf. conicum were acclimated to saturating prey availability
308	and then allowed to deplete the prey completely (Fig. 6). Growth and ingestion rates of S. cf.
309	basimorphum were significantly higher than rates of S. cf. conicum (Table 3) while carbon specific
310	photosynthetic rates were identical during the exponential growth. Cell divisions stopped shortly
311	after the prey was depleted, and the ciliate cultures slowly decreased in cell concentration over time.
312	The ratio between cellular Chla content and carbon content was almost constant in S. cf.
313	basimorphum during starvation, while it decreased in S. cf. conicum (Table 3). Ciliate cells were
314	significantly smaller when starved (see Supplementary Table S4) and cellular Chla content was
315	significantly lower in starved cells in both ciliates species (Supplementary Table S5).
316	Carbon specific rates of photosynthesis increased in S. cf. basimorphum during prey starvation,
317	while become lower in S. cf. conicum (Fig.7). Expressing data as Chla specific rates of
318	photosynthesis reveals that in well-fed culture, S. cf. basimorphum had a specific rate almost 4
319	times higher than that of S. cf. conicum (Table 3). The data also reveals that the Chla specific rates
320	of photosynthesis were not significantly different in well-fed and in prey starved cells of S. cf.
321	conicum (P > 0.1), while in S. cf. $basimorphum$ the Chla specific rates of photosynthesis increased
322	by a factor of ~3 in starved cells compared to the well-fed cells.
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Discussion

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330 The suitability of different algal species as prey for mixotrophic Strombidium spp. Strombidium species, whether being mixotrophic or purely heterotrophic, are known to be prey 331 332 generalist and able to capture preys which size fits with the morphological constrains of their feeding apparatus (Jonsson, 1986). The mixotrophic Strombidium spp. studied here ranged from 333 \sim 30 to \sim 40 μ m in width. Generally they grew only when the offered algal prey were in the size 334 range of 2-12 μ m. The tested cyanobacteria and dinoflagellates were generally outside the prey size 335 spectra of the ciliates and consequently could not support growth of the studied *Strombidium* spp. 336 Similar sized Strombidium species have previously been found to ingest prey species within the 337 same size range (Jonsson, 1986; Bernard and Rassoulzadegan, 1990; Kivi and Setala, 1995). 338 The Strombidium spp. studied here generally grew well on monocultures of cryptophytes and 339 340 chlorophytes, while not all haptophytes and stramenophiles supported the growth of the ciliates 341 when provided as monocultures despite being within the 2-12 μ m size spectrum. Thus, other factors may have impacted their suitability as prey. Some algae, like *Prymnesium*, produce lytic toxins that 342 are known to kill their ciliate grazers (Rosetta and McManus, 2003). Other algae, like 343 Cyclotella and Thalassiosira form colonies which make the cells functionally larger preventing 344 them from being ingested. Suitability can also be related to strain specific characteristics or growth 345 346 conditions, which determine food quality even within a certain prey species. For example, the haptophyte *Isochrysis galbana* did not support growth of any of the ciliates tested here nor in other 347 studies (Montagnes, 1996; McManus et al., 2012), but this alga has been shown to support the 348 growth of some other mixotrophic ciliates (Stoecker et al., 1988a; Crawford and Stoecker, 1996; 349 McManus et al., 2018). Finally, we cannot exclude that some of the algae that did not support 350 351 growth of the ciliates as monocultures, may contribute to growth in mixtures with other algae. Indeed in natural populations some algae could be more exploited as a direct carbon source rather 352 353 than being used as chloroplasts source, and vice versa, covering different physiological needs of the ciliates. This needs to be explored in future studies. 354 355 Relative importance of photosynthesis and food uptake for growth in mixotrophic 356

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Strombidium spp.

The inorganic carbon uptake was relatively more important (~20-50% of the total carbon uptake) at very low prey concentrations (3-5-µgCL⁻¹). Under these prey conditions, it could make a difference for mixotrophic Strombidium in terms of better survival. Indeed, in comparison, some heterotrophic

ciliates experience prey concentration limiting for growth at ~10-50 μ g C L⁻¹ (Montagnes, 1996; 361 362 Gismervik, 2005). With prey concentrations (25-100µgCL⁻¹) that resemble the natural standing stocks of nanoplankton in coastal waters (Rassoulzadegan et al., 1988), the contribution from 363 inorganic carbon uptake to the total carbon uptake was ~10%. Interestingly, under these conditions 364 S. cf. conicum grew close to its maximum growth rate, while S. cf. basimorphum grew to ~half of 365 its maximum growth, and the calculated GGE's were as high as 80%. 366 The apparent contribution of inorganic carbon uptake to the overall carbon uptake was negligible at 367 high prey concentrations (800-1300 µg C L⁻¹) in both S. cf. basimorphum and S. cf. conicum, 368 accounting for only a few percent of total carbon uptake. It is possible that the actual inorganic 369 370 carbon uptake has been underestimated due to enhanced recycling of carbon derived from the high ingestions rates. Such an underestimation can account to >50% of the gross photosynthesis in 371 mixotrophic ciliates (Stoecker and Michaels, 1991). Nevertheless, the largest contribution of carbon 372 comes from prey ingestion under these conditions. These results and considerations are backed up 373 by the GGE values for the two Strombidium species (~30-50%) which were lower then what 374 observed when less prey was available. Such GGE percentages are similar to those previously 375 reported for heterotrophic ciliates species (Gismervik, 2005; Yang et al., 2015). Comparable 376 decrease in GGE as function of prey availability has been observed in the mixotrophic species S. 377 378 rassoulzadegani (Schoener and McManus, 2017). Previous estimates on the relative contribution of photosynthesis on ciliates energetic budges are in agreement with our observations that it is mainly 379 380 relevant in condition of food limitation (Jonsson, 1987; Schoener and McManus, 2017), but absolute 381 photosynthetic rates would of course vary depending on light availability (Stoecker et al., 1988 a and b) making this proportion to vary depending of factors other than ingestion. 382 383 It was interesting to observe a significant loss of the photosynthetic efficiency of the sequestered chloroplasts. In fact the Chla specific inorganic carbon uptake rates of the Strombidium spp. were 384 385 reduced by 60% to 90% to that of the prey cells. Similar reductions of Chla specific inorganic carbon uptake (50%) has been observed in the mixotrophic S. rassoulzadegani compared to its prey 386 387 (McManus et al., 2012). Preferential respiration of recently fixed carbon has been shown to take place in these ciliates (Putt, 1990) so that up to the 80% of the photosynthates would actually be 388 389 respired and lost as CO₂ rather than incorporated as ciliate biomass (Schoener and McManus, 2017). Additionally, it is possible that the reductant equivalents generated by functional chloroplasts 390 in ciliates could be employed in alternative pathways, which would not result in carbon fixation: i.e. 391 392 chlororespiration. The redirection of photosynthetically derived electrons on the mitochondrial

respiratory chain could explain the big difference in net carbon fixation of ciliates compared to the prey and would result in higher assimilation efficiencies of the ingested carbon that would not need to be respired (Wilken *et al.*, 2020). The interdependence of photosynthetic electron transport and mitochondrial respiration has been recently assessed in constitutive mixotrophic flagellate species (Wilken *et al.*, 2020). So far, the only evidence supporting this hypothesis in kleptoplastidic ciliates is the close association observed between acquired chloroplasts and hosts' mitochondria (Laval-Peuto *et al.*, 1986: *Tontonia appendiculariformis*; Stoecker *et al.*, 1988b: *S. capitatum* and *S. chlorophilum*).

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Effects of prey starvation on growth and photosynthesis of mixotrophic Strombidium spp.

Prey starvation experiments carried out on S. cf. basimorphum and S. cf. conicum revealed that as

soon as the ciliates had depleted their prey, cell divisions stopped, and the populations slowly declined over time. The observed mortality rates of these two ciliates were constant and lower than what has been observed for heterotrophic species incubated at the same temperature, which virtually die in one or two days of starvation (Montagnes, 1996). S. cf. conicum and S. cf. basimorphum populations only declined by 25-30% in the three-four days of starvation, confirming the wellestablished assumption that mixotrophy enables ciliates to better withstand periods of prey deprivation (Dolan and Perez, 2000). A difference between the two ciliates species was observed in the ability to keep the sequestered chloroplasts functional during starvation. The cellular chlorophyll content in S. cf. conicum declines much more than in S. cf. basimorphum after prey depletion (Supplementary Table S5) and photosynthetic rates in starved S. cf. conicum were much lower than in starved S. cf. basimorphum, suggesting that the latter species better retained functional chloroplasts. Chla specific inorganic carbon uptake almost tripled in case of S. cf. basimorphum during the prey starvation experiment, whereas this was not the case in S. cf. conicum. Both species were well-fed prior to the initiation of the experiment so photosynthetic rates might have been underestimated due to the internal recycling of carbon as discussed above. Differences in the digestive and respiration rates of the two species during active feeding would lead to the different response to starvation observed in their photosynthetic rates. Anyways, it is also possible that S. cf. basimorphum undergoes a trophic switch, investing more in photosynthesis when prey is depleted, while S. cf. conicum lacks of this ability.

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427	Conclusion
42 <i>7</i> 428	The studied mixotrophic <i>Strombidium</i> spp. were able to exploit a wide taxonomic range of algal
429	prey in the size range 2 and 12 µm, but as monocultures, some prey species better sustained ciliate
430	growth. Sequestered chloroplasts were functionally active for at least five days, but photosynthesis
431	alone could not sustain the growth of the ciliates. Ingestion rates increased with prey availability
432	while photosynthetic rates appeared lower when more prey was ingested. Highest GGE was
433	observed at prey abundances of 25-100 μ g C L ⁻¹ . These results suggest that mixotrophic
434	Strombidium spp. will get a benefit over completely heterotrophic ciliates in the photic zone of
435	areas with relatively low algal biomass dominated by nano-sized algae. This may have important
436	consequences for our understanding of the trophic transfer up the food chain and should be
437	incorporated into planktonic ecosystem and food web models.
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442	766327) and by the Danish Independent Research Fund, project number 4181-00484.
443	
444	Data archiving
445	Nucleotide sequences are deposited in GenBank, accession numbers: MT349838 and MT420875
446	(Strombidium_sp.1_cf. conicum); MT349841 and MT420874 (Strombidium_sp.2_cf.
447	basimorphum); MT349840 and MT420876 (Strombidium_sp3).
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555	Table legends
556	Table 1: Algal species used as prey for the ciliate cultures, with information on algal group, strain
557	number and size (Estimated Spherical Diameter =ESD). The strains were acquired from the
558	Bigelow National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (CCMP strains), Scandinavian Culture
559	Collection of Algae and Protozoa (SCCAP)
560	Table 2: Experiment 2. Growth rate, carbon specific prey ingestion ($C C^{-1} d^{-1} = d^{-1}$), carbon specific
561	photosynthesis ($C C^{-1} d^{-1} = d^{-1}$), Chla specific photosynthesis and gross growth efficiency of
562	Strombidium cf. basimorphum and S. cf. conicum at three different abundances of T. amphioxeia.
563	Numbers refer to means \pm std, n=9.
564	Table 3: Experiment 3. Chla content and physiological rates (C $C^{-1} d^{-1} = d^{-1}$), of S. cf. basimorphum
565	and S. cf. conicum during the period of exponential growth (day 1 to 3 S. cf. basimorphum and day
566	1 to 5 S. cf. conicum) and the starvation period (day 3 to 5 S. cf. basimorphum and 5 to 8 S. cf.
567	<i>conicum</i>). Numbers refer to means \pm std, n=3.

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572 Figure legends

- Fig. 1: Light microscopy photographs of the three isolates: a) Strombidium cf. conicum; b) S. cf.
- *basimorphum*; c) *Strombidium* sp. 3
- Fig. 2: Cysts of the ciliates: a) Strombidium cf. conicum; b) S. cf. basimorphum; c) Strombidium sp.
- 576 3
- **Fig. 3:** Experiment 1. Prey size spectra of the 3 ciliates, *Strombidium* cf. *conicum* (a), *S.* cf.
- basimorphum (b) and Strombidium sp. 3 (c). Each point represent the value assigned to the ciliate
- 579 growth when incubated with one prey species.
- Fig. 4: Experiment 1. The ability of the 3 ciliates to grow on different algal species in different algal
- groups: Cyanophytes, Dinophytes, Haptophytes, Stramenopiles, Chlorophytes and Cryptophytes.
- Fig. 5: Experiment 2. Percentage of carbon acquired from ingestion and photosynthesis in a)
- 583 Strombidium cf. basimorphum and b) S. cf. conicum using T. amphioxeia as prey.
- Fig. 6: Experiment 3. Prey depletion experiment. Changes in cell concentrations of ciliates and the
- prey, T. amphioxeia. a) S. cf. basimorphum and b) S. cf. conicum. Vertical line indicates time of prey
- 586 depletion. Error bars indicate standard deviation.
- Fig. 7: Experiment 3. Chla content and photosynthetic rate for a) S. cf. basimorphum and b) S. cf.
- 588 conicum during the prey starvation experiment. Photosynthetic rate is expressed as ratio between the
- amount of carbon fixed in one day divided by the cellular carbon content. Chla content is expressed
- as Chla to carbon ratio. Vertical line indicates prey depletion. Error bars indicate standard deviation.

Table 1

Algal group	Species	Culture collection	Size (ESD, μm)	
Cyananhytas	Anhanaganga an	number CCMP2524	2	
Cyanophytes	Aphanocapsa sp.		3	
	Chroococcidiopsis sp. Prochlorococcus marinus	CCMP3281 CCMP1986	0.7	
C414	Synechococcus sp.	CCMP833 CCMP1168	1.5	
Cryptophytes	Chroomonas mesostigmatica			
	Rhodomonas sp.	CCMP318	7	
	Teleaulax acuta	SCCAP K-1486	8	
	Teleaulax amphioxeia	SCCAP K-1837	4	
Haptophytes	Chrysocromulina simplex	SCCAP K-0272	3	
	Emiliania huxleyi	CCMP379	4	
	Imantonia sp.	SCCAP K-0624	2	
	Isochrysis galbana	SCCAP K-1355	3	
	Phaeocystis globosa	CCMP1805	5	
	Prymnesium patelliferum	SCCAP K-0374	7	
Stramenopiles	Apedinella radians	SCCAP K-0077	3	
	Cyclotella meneghiniani	CCMP335	4	
	Ochromonas moestrupii	SCCAP K-1766	4	
	Thalassiosira pseudonana	CCMP1335	5	
Dinophytes	Alexandrium minutum	CCMP113	15	
	Amphidinium massartii	CCMP1342	14	
	Heterocapsa rotundata	SCCAP K-0483	10	
	Heterocapsa triquetra	CCMP449	13	
	Pelagodinium beii	CCMP3395	11	
	Prorocentrum balticum	CCMP1787	12	
	Thoracosphaera heimii	CCMP1069	9	
Chlorophytes	Chlorella minutissima	CCMP3451	2	
	Mantoniella squamata	SCCAP K-0284	3	
	Micromonas pusilla	CCMP485	2	
	Nannochloropsis oculata	CCMP525	2	
	Nephroselmis pyriformis	SSCAP K-0557	4	
	Nephroselmis rotunda	SCCAP K-0251	4	
	Pyramimonas melkonianii	SCCAP K-0628	5	
	Pyramimonas mitra	SCCAP K-0241	7	
	Tetraselmis chui	PLY429	9	
	Tetraselmis wettsteinii	CCMP1722	12	

Table 2

Ciliate species	Prey (µg C L ⁻¹)	Growth (μ, \mathbf{d}^{-1})	C specific Ingestion (d ⁻¹)	C specific Photosynthesis (d ⁻¹)	Chla specific photosynthesis (C Chla ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	GGE (%)
S. cf.	6.0	0.01 ± 0.05	0.73 ± 0.04	0.18 ± 0.03	11.7 ± 0.96	2,5
basimorphum	25	0.53 ± 0.07	1.18 ± 0.04	0.10 ± 0.02	6.33 ± 1.26	75
	800	0.90 ± 0.10	3.07 ± 0.78	0.10 ± 0.01	3.43 ± 0.55	48
S. cf. conicum	3.0	-0.01 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.03	5.35 ± 2.35	-10
	100	0.55 ± 0.30	0.87 ± 0.13	0.06 ± 0.03	3.59 ± 1.40	85
	$1.3x10^3$	0.39 ± 0.18	2.42 ± 0.44	0.04 ± 0.02	1.56 ± 0.68	30

Table 3

Ciliate species		μ (d ⁻¹)	C specific Ingestion (d ⁻¹)	C specific Photosynthesis (d ⁻¹)	Chla content (ChlaC ⁻¹)	Chla specific photosynthesis (C Chla ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
S. cf.	Exponential	1.37 ± 0.08	4.59 ± 0.27	0.04 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.00	2.38 ± 0.90
basimorphum	growth					
	starvation	-0.13 ±0.05	/	0.14 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	8.00 ± 0.05
S. cf. conicum	Exponential	0.33 ± 0.04	2.53 ± 0.33	0.04 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.00	1.72 ± 0.53
	growth					
	starvation	-0.09 ±0.03	/	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	2.1 ± 0.3