A community perspective on the concept of marine holobionts: state-of-the-artcurrent status, challenges, and future directions

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exchange ideas regarding key concepts and opportunities in marine holobiont research, to start structuring the community, and to identify and tackle key challenges in the field.

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Abstract:

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Host-microbe interactions play crucial roles in marine ecosystems, but we still have very little understanding of the mechanisms that govern these relationships, the evolutionary processes that shape them, and their ecological consequences. The holobiont concept is a renewed paradigm in biology that can help describe and understand these complex systems. It posits that a host and its associated microbiota, living together in a long lastingstable relationship, form the holobiont, and have to be studied together, as a coherent biological and functional unit, in order to understand theits biology, ecology and evolution of the organisms. Here we discuss critical concepts and opportunities in marine holobiont research and identify key challenges in the field. We highlight the potential economic, sociological, and environmental impacts of the holobiont concept in marine biological, evolutionary, and environmental sciences with comparisons to terrestrial science whenever wherever appropriate. AGiven the connectivity and the unexplored biodiversity of marine ecosystems, a deeper understanding of such complex systems, however, will require requires further technological and conceptual advances. The For the marine scientific community, the most significant challenge will be to bridge functional research on simple and tractable and original model systems and global approaches. This will require scientists to work together as an (inter)active community in order to address, for instance, addressing ecological and evolutionary questions and. This will be crucial for establishing the roles of marine holobionts in biogeochemical cycles, but also developing concrete applications of the holobiont concept in aquaculture and marine ecosystem management projects.

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Commenté [C1]: These two aspects could be presented as specificities of marine ecosystems.

Commenté [C2]: This is too vague. Future research axes need to be specified.

Commenté [C3]: This can be removed to save space.

Commenté [C4]: Please give a few examples of relevant model systems and relevant approaches.

Commenté [C5]: Please give some examples of concrete applications.

Glossary

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- 111 Anna Karenina principle – a number of factors can cause a system to fail, but only a narrow 112 range of parameters characterizes a working system; based on the first sentence of Leo 113 Tolstoy's "Anna Karenina": "Happy families are all alike; every unhappy family is 114 unhappy in its own way."
- 115 **Dysbiosis** – microbial imbalance in a symbiotic community that affects the health of the host.
- 116 Ecosystem services – any direct or indirect benefits that humans can draw from an ecosystem; 117 they include provisioning services (e.g., food), regulating services (e.g., climate), cultural 118 services (e.g., recreation), and supporting services (e.g., habitat formation).
 - Ectosymbiosis a symbiotic relationship in which symbionts live on the surface of a host. This includes, for instance, algal biofilms, the skin microbiome, but also extracellular symbionts on the digestive glands, such as gut bacteria.
 - Endosymbiosis a symbiotic relationship in which a symbiont lives inside athe host; a cells; prominent example are mitochondria, plastids/photosymbionts, or nitrogen fixing bacteria in plant root nodules. Compared to ectosymbiosis these relationships often exhibit a higher degree of interdependence and co-evolution.
 - Gnotobiosis the condition in which all organisms present in a culture can be controlled.
 - **Holobiont** an ecological (and evolutionary) unit of different species living together in a longlasting relationshipsymbiosis.
 - Horizontal transmission acquisition of the associated microbiome by a new generation of hosts from the environment.
 - **Host** the largest partner (in size) in a symbiotic community.
 - Infochemical a usually diffusible chemical compound used to exchange information between organisms that mediates inter- and intraspecific communication.
 - Microbial gardening behavior, the act of frequently the release of releasing growth-enhancing or inhibiting chemicals or metabolites that favors favor the development of a microbial community beneficial to the host.
 - Microbiome the combined genetic information encoded by the microbiota; may also refer to the microbiota itself.
- 139 Microbiota – all microorganisms present in a particular environment or associated with a 140
- Nested ecosystems a view of ecosystems where each individual system can be decomposed 142 into smaller systems and/or considered part of a larger system, all of which still qualify as 143
 - **Phagocytosis** a process by which a eukaryotic cell ingests other cells or solid particles.
 - Phycosphere the physical envelope surrounding a phytoplankton cell; usually rich in organic matter.
- 147 Phylosymbiosis – congruence in the phylogeny of different hosts and the composition of their 148 associated microbiota.

Commenté [C6]: Please include one or two key references for every definition of the glossary.

Commenté [C7]: The reference of the book should be

Commenté [C8]: Please briefly explain how gnotobiotic systems are obtained. Explain the difference with "germ-free"

Commenté [C9]: Why is evolutionary into brackets? Please include one sentence and one reference to mention the debate on this topic.

Commenté [C10]: To be replaced with holobiont?

Commenté [C11]: "Russian dolls" could be used to explain the concept of nestedness. This would make a link to Figure

Commenté [C12]: Add one sentence to give examples of phagocyted cells

Rasputin effect – the phenomenon that commensals and mutualists can become parasitic in certain conditions; after the Russian monk Rasputin who became the confidant of the Tsar of Russia, but later helped bring down the Tsar's empire during the Russian revolution.

Sponge loop – sponges efficiently recycle dissolved organic matter turning it into detritus that becomes food for other consumers.

Symbiont – an organism living in symbiosis; usually refersused to refer to but not restricted to the smaller/microbial partners living in commensalistic or mutualistic relationships (see also host).

Symbiosis – a close and long—lasting or recurrent (e.g. over generations) relationship between organisms living together; includes mutualistic, commensalistic, and parasitic relationships.

Vertical transmission – acquisition of the associated microbiome by a new generation of hosts from the parents (eontraryas opposed to horizontal transmission).

Commenté [C13]: Parasitic relationships are not included in the definition of symbiont (above). The two definitions should be consistent.

Marine holobionts from their origins to the present

The history of marinethe holobiont concept

Current theory proposes a single origin for eukaryotic cells through the symbiotic assimilation of prokaryotes to form cellular organelles such as plastids and first mitochondria and later plastids through several independent symbiotic events (reviewed in Archibald 2015). These ancestral and founding symbiotic events, which prompted the metabolic and cellular complexity of eukaryotic life, most likely occurred in the ocean, where eukaryotic phagocytosis s widespread (Martin et al. 2008).

Despite the general acceptance of this so-called endosymbiotic theory, the term 'holobiont' did not immediately enter the scientific vernacular. It was coined by Lynn Margulis in 1990, who proposed that evolution has worked mainly through symbiosis-driven leaps that merged organisms into new forms referred to as 'holobionts', and only secondarily through gradual mutational changes (Margulis 1990; O'Malley 2017). (Margulis and Fester 1991; O'Malley 2017). However, the concept did not become widely used until it was co-opted by coral biologists over a decade later. Corals and dinoflagellate algae of the family Symbiodiniaceae are one of the most iconic examples of symbioses found in nature; most corals are incapable of long-term survival without the products of photosynthesis provided by their endosymbiotic algae. Rohwer et al. (2002) were the first to use the word "holobiont" to describe corals, where the holobiont comprised the coral organism (host), Symbiodiniaceae, endolithic algae, prokaryotes, fungi, other unicellular eukaryotes, and viruses, together used to describe a unit of selection sensu Margulis (Rosenberg et al. 2007b)- for corals, where the holobiont comprised the cnidarian polyp (host), algae of the family Symbiodiniaceae, various ectosymbionts (endolithic algae, prokaryotes, fungi, other unicellular eukaryotes), and viruses.

Commenté [C14]: This section should be structured in chronological order. Dates and influential scientists in the field need to be made clearer.

Commenté [C15]: The terms "symbiont" and "symbiosis" are defined in the glossary. "Symbiotic" should be in bold, or you could change the sentence to use first "symbiont" or "symbiosis"

Commenté [C16]: The term phagocytosis (in the glossary) should be included in this paragraph.

Commenté [C17]: Why is it in bold? This is not in the glossary.

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Commenté [C18]: The name/date of the theory and the main protagonists should be mentioned in the previous paragraph.

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Commenté [C19]: This term should be bold, it is defined in the glossary. Please check that the terms defined in the glossary appear in bold the first time they are used.

Although initially driven by studies of marine organisms, much of the research on the emerging properties and significance of holobionts has since been carried out in other fields of research: the microbiota of the rhizosphere of plants or the animal gut became predominant models and have led to an ongoing paradigm change in agronomy and medical sciences (Bulgarelli et al. 2013; Shreiner et al. 2015; Faure et al. 2018). Holobionts occur in all habitats, terrestrial and aquatic habitats, and several analogies between these ecosystems can be made. For example, it is clear that interactions within and across holobionts are mediated by chemical cues and signals in the environment, so calleddubbed infochemicals; (Loh et al. 2002; Rolland et al. 2016; Saha et al. 2019). The major differences across systems are notably due to the physical nature of water, which often ensures stronger physicochemical interconnections among niches and habitats.(Loh et al. 2002; Harder et al. 2012; Rolland et al. 2016; Saha et al. 2019). The major differences across terrestrial and aquatic systems are due to the physicochemical properties of water resulting in higher(?) chemical connectivity and signaling between macro- and microorganisms in aquatic or moist environments. In marine ecosystems, carbon fluxes also appear to be swifter and trophic modes more flexible, leading to higher plasticity of functional interactions (Mitra et al. 2013). Moreover, dispersal barriers are usually lower, allowing for faster microbial shifts in marine holobionts (Kinlan and Gaines 2003; Martin-Platero et al. 2018). Finally, phylogenetic diversity at broad taxonomic scales (i.e., supra-kingdom, kingdom, phyla and phylum levels), is higher in the sea aquatic realms than on land, with much of the marine aquatic diversity yet to be uncovered (de Vargas et al. 2015; Thompson et al. 2017), notablyespecially for marine viruses (Middelboe and Brussaard 2017). (Middelboe and Brussaard 2017; Gregory et al. 2019). The recent discovery of this astonishing marine microbial diversity and the scarcity of marine holobiont research suggest a high potential for complex cross-lineage interactions yet to be explored in marine holobiont systems (Figure 1).

Evolution of holobionts

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These examples and the associated debate over how to define organisms or functional entities has led to the revival of 'holism', thea philosophical notion; first proposed by Aristotle. Since in the 4th century BC. However, a major shift happened during the Age of "Enlightenment and" when the shift towarddominant thought summarized as "dissection science", one dominant thought in sciences" was to focus on the smallest component of a system in order to understand it better. HolistieBy contrast, holistic thinking states that systems should be studied in their entirety, with a focus on the interconnections between their various components rather than on the individual parts rather than the parts themselves (Met. Z.17, 1041b11–33). Such systems have emergent properties that result from the irreducible behavior of a system that is 'larger than the sum of its parts'. The boundaries of holobionts are usually delimited by a physical envelope, which corresponds to the area of local influence of the host. However, they may also be defined in a context dependent way as a 'Russian Matryoshka doll' encompassing all the levels of host microbiota associations up to the community and ecosystem level. In this context the boundaries of holobionts are usually delimited by a physical gradient, which corresponds to the area of local

Commenté [C20]: To be defined in the glossary

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Commenté [C21]: What is the nature of the interactions within holobionts and across holobionts? Please give some examples of interaction types.

Commenté [C22]: Within holobionts or across holobionts?

Commenté [C23]: What do we know about microbial fluxes across marine holobionts? Have they been measured?

Commenté [C24]: The whole paragraph should be restructured to better highlight the main differences between marine and terrestrial holobionts. The differences are more clearly stated in the responses to comments:

"The two main differences between marine and terrestrial holobionts we have identified are the high level of connectedness of habitats and the diversity of phylogenetic lineages"

Commenté [C25]: To be defined in the glossary.

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influence of the host, *e.g.* in unicellular algae the so-called **phycosphere** (Seymour *et al.* 2017). However, they may also be defined in a context-dependent way as a 'Russian Matryoshka doll', encompassing all the levels of host-symbiont associations from intimate endosymbiosis with a high degree of co-evolution up to the community and ecosystem level; a concept referred to as "nested ecosystems" (Figure 2; McFall-Ngai *et al.* 2013; Pita *et al.* 2018); McFall-Ngai *et al.* 2013; Pita *et al.* 2018).

Such a view raises fundamental questions for studies of the evolution; of holobionts, especially regarding the relevant units of selection and the role of co-evolution. For instance, plant and animal evolution involves new functions co-constructed by members of the holobiont or elimination of functions redundant between them (Selosse et al. 2014). Rosenberg and Zilber-Rosenberg (2018) have argued that all animals and plants can be considered as-holobionts, and thus advocated advocate the hologenome theory of evolution. It proposes that natural selection acts at the level of the holobiont and the hologenome (i.e., the combined genomes of the host and all members of its microbiota; Rosenberg et al. 2007a; Zilber-Rosenberg and Rosenberg 2008). This interpretation of Margulis' definition of a 'holobiont' considerably broadened fundamental concepts in evolution and speciation and has not been free of criticism (Douglas and Werren 2016). It is, however, generally recognized that, although it should not be accepted as a default for explaining features of host symbiont associations, especially when applied on a community or ecosystem level (Moran and Sloan 2015), the holobiont needs to be at least. More recently, it has been shown that species that interact indirectly with the host can also be important in shaping coevolution within mutualistic multi-partner assemblages (Guimarães et al. 2017). Thus, the holobiont concept and its complexity should be further considered when addressing evolutionary and ecological questions.

Marine holobiont models

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Today, an increasing number of marine <u>model</u> organisms, both unicellular and multicellular, are being used in holobiont research, often with different emphasis and levels of experimental control, but altogether covering a large range of scientific topics. Here, we provide several illustrative examples of this diversity and some of the insights they have provided.

heterotrophic protists dwellers harboring endosymbiotic microalgae) are emerging as critical ecological models for unicellular photosymbiosis due to their ubiquitous presence in the world's oceans (Decelle et al. 2015; Not et al. 2016). The discovery of deep-sea hydrothermal vents revealed symbioses of animals with chemosynthetic bacteria that have later been found in many other marine ecosystems (Dubilier et al. 2008; Rubin-Blum et al. 2019) and frequently exhibited high levels of metabolic and taxonomic diversity organisms are being used as holobiont model systems in research, often with a different emphasis, but altogether covering a large range of scientific topics. Examples of this diversity and related insights are provided in this section. Sponge bacteria interactions are particularly promising for the discovery of novel bacterial lineages or new drugs (Blunt et al. 2016; Bibi et al. 2017). (Duperron et al. 2008; Petersen et al.

Commenté [C26]: Where are the limits of the holobiont under this definition? This should be explained.

Mis en forme : Police :Gras

Commenté [C27]: This definition should be moved to the glossary.

Commenté [C28]: What is complex? The concept of holobiont or the holobiont? This sentence is too vague and should be rephrased.

Commenté [C29]: A few pictures of the main marine holobiont models could be included.

Commenté [C30]: Please explain what "environmental model" and "semi-controlled model" mean.

2016; Ponnudurai *et al.* 2017). The cosmopolitan haptophyte *Emiliania huxleyi*, promoted by associated bacteria (Seyedsayamdost *et al.* 2011; Segev *et al.* 2016), produces key intermediates in the carbon and sulfur biogeochemical cycles making it an important model phytoplankton species.

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Controlled bi- or trilateral associations: Only a few models, covering a small part of the overall marine biodiversity, are currently being cultivated ex-situ and can be used in fully controlled experiments, where they can be cultured aposymbiotically (i.e., without symbionts) The flatworm Symsagittifera (= Convoluta) roscoffensis (Arboleda et al. 2018), the sea anemone Exaiptasia (Baumgarten et al. 2015; Wolfowicz et al. 2016), the upside-down jellyfish Cassiopea (Ohdera et al. 2018), and their respective intracellular green and dinoflagellate algae have, in addition to corals, become models for fundamental research on evolution of metazoanalgal photosymbiosis. In particular the sea anemone Exaiptasia has been used to explore photobiology disruption and restoration of cnidarian symbioses (Lehnert et al. 2012), Similarly, radiolarians The Vibrio-squid model provides insights into the effect of microbiota-and foraminiferans (both heterotrophic protists dwellers harboring endosymbiotic microalgae) emerging as critical ecological models for unicellular photosymbiosis due to their ubiquitous presence in the world's oceans (Decelle et al. 2015; Not et al. 2016). The discovery of deep hydrothermal vents revealed symbioses of animals with chemosynthetic bacteria that have later been found in many other marine ecosystems (Dubilier et al. 2008; Rubin-Blum et al. 2019) and frequently exhibited high levels of metabolic and taxonomic diversity (Duperron et al. 2008; Petersen et al. 2016; Ponnudurai et al. 2017). The Vibrio squid model provides insights into the effect of microbiotas on animal development, circadian rhythms, and immune systems (McFall-Ngai 2014). The cosmopolitan haptophyte Emiliania huxleyi, promoted by associated bacteria (Seyedsayamdost et al. 2011; Segev et al. 2016), produces important intermediates in the carbon and sulfur biogeochemical cycles making it an important model phytoplankton species. The green alga Ostreococcus, also an important player in marine primary production, has been shown to exchange vitamins with its microbiota The unicellular green alga Ostreococcus, an important marine primary producer, has been shown to exchange vitamins with specific associated bacteria (Cooper et al. 2019). The recent sequencing of several host genomes and their associated microorganisms, as well as improved experimental protocols, have led to new insights in many of these model systems, yet most experiments are still carried out in environmental or "semicontrolled" conditions. Only a few models, covering a small part of the overall marine biodiversity, are currently being cultivated ex situ and can be used in fully controlled experiments, where they can be cultured aposymbiotically (i.e., without symbionts). This is the case e.g. for the green macroalga Ulva mutabilis, which The green macroalga Ulva mutabilis has enabled the exploration of bacteria-mediated growth and morphogenesis including the identification of original chemical interactions in the holobiont (Wichard 2015; Kessler et al. 2018) or for zooxanthellate sea anemones of the genus Exaiptasia, which have been used to explore photobiology disruption and restauration. Although the culture conditions in these

Mis en forme : Retrait : Première ligne : 1,27 cm

Commenté [C31]: This definition could be moved to the glossary. The difference with "gnotobiosis" should be explained.

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highly-controlled model systems differ from the natural environment, these systems are essential

to gain elementary mechanistic understanding of the functioning and thus also the evolution of enidarian symbioses (Lehnert et al. 2012). Although the culture conditions in these highly controlled model systems are less realistic, we believe that such systems are essential to gain elementary mechanistic understanding of the functioning of marine holobionts.

Marine holobionts as drivers of ecological processes

Marine Motile and macroscopic marine holobionts can act as dissemination vectors for geographically restricted microbial taxa. For instance, pelagic mollusks or vertebrates have a high capacity for dispersion dispersal (e.g., against currents and through stratified water layers). It has been estimated that fish and marine mammals may enhance the original dispersion rate of their microbiota by a factor of 200 to 200,000 (Troussellier et al. 2017) and marine birds may even act as bio-vectors across ecosystem boundaries (Bouchard Marmen et al. 2017). This holobionthost driven dispersal of microbes can include non-native or invasive species as well as pathogens (Troussellier et al. 2017).

A related ecological function of holobionts is their potential to sustain rare species. Hosts provide an environment that favors the growth of specific microbial communities different distinct from the surrounding environment (including rare microbes). They may, for instance, provide a nutrient-rich niche in the otherwise nutrient-poor seawater (Smriga et al. 2010; Webster et al. 2010; Burke et al. 2011; Chiarello et al. 2018), and the interaction between host and microbiota can allow both partners to cross biotope boundaries (e.g., Woyke 2006) and colonize extreme environments (Bang et al. 2018). Holobionts thus contribute to marine microbial diversity and possibly resilience in the context of environmental change (Troussellier et al. 2017).

biogeochemical cycles (Falkowski *et al.* 2008; Madsen 2011; Anantharaman *et al.* 2016). These cycles describe the diverse global biogeochemical cycling are still sparse. In the open ocean, it is estimated that symbioses with the cyanobacterium UCYN-A contribute ~20% to the total N₂ fixation (Thompson *et al.* 2012; Martínez-Pérez *et al.* 2016). In benthic systems, sponges and corals may support entire ecosystems *via* their involvement in nutrient cycling thanks to their microbial partners (Raina *et al.* 2009; Fiore *et al.* 2010; Cardini *et al.* 2015; Pita *et al.* 2018), functioning as sinks/and sources of nutrients. In particular the "sponge loop" recycles dissolved organic matter and makes it available to higher trophic levels in the form of detritus (de Goeij *et al.* 2013; Rix *et al.* 2017). In coastal sediments, bivalves hosting methanogenic archaea have been shown to increase the benthic methane efflux by a factor of up to eight, potentially accounting for 9.5% of total methane emissions from the Baltic Sea (Bonaglia *et al.* 2017).

Such impressive metabolic versatility is accomplished because of the simultaneous occurrence of disparate biochemical machineries (*e.g.*, aerobic and anaerobic pathways) in the individual symbionts, providing new metabolic abilities to the holobiont, such as the synthesis of specific essential amino acids, photosynthesis, or chemosynthesis (Venn *et al.* 2008; Dubilier *et al.* 2008). These metabolic capabilities have the potential to extend the ecological niche of the

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holobiont as well as its resilience to climate and environmental changes (Berkelmans and van Oppen 2006; Gilbert *et al.* 2010; Dittami *et al.* 2016; Shapira 2016; Godoy *et al.* 2018). It is therefore paramount to include the holobiont concept in predictive models that investigate the consequences of human impacts on the marine realm and its biogeochemical cycles.

Challenges and opportunities in marine holobiont research

<u>Deciphering marine Marine</u> holobiont <u>functioning assembly and</u> regulation

Two critical challenges that can be partially addressed by using model systems are 1) to decipher the factors determining holobiont composition; and 2) to elucidate the impacts and roles of the different partners in these complex systems over time. Some marine invertebrates, such as clamsbivalves transmit part of the core microbiota maternally (Bright and Bulgheresi 2010; Funkhouser and Bordenstein 2013). In other marine holobionts, however, vertical transmission may be weak and inconsistent—and, whereas mixed modes of transmission (vertical and horizontal) or intermediate modes (pseudo-vertical, where horizontal acquisition frequently involves symbionts of parental origin) are the mostmore common (Bjork et al. 2018, preprint). Better understanding Identifying the factors that shape the shaping holobiont composition of holobionts and understanding their evolution is highly relevant for marine organisms given that, despite a highly connected and microbe-rich environment, most marine hosts display a high specificity for their microbiota and even patterns of phylosymbiosis for some associations (Kazamia et al. 2016; Brooks et al. 2016; Pollock et al. 2018)—despite a highly connected and microbe-rich environment.

The immune system of the host is one way to regulate the microbial composition of the holobiontboth marine and terrestrial holobionts. Perturbations in this system can lead to dysbiosis, and eventually microbial infections (Selosse *et al.* 2014; de Lorgeril *et al.* 2018). Dysbiotic individuals frequently display higher variability in their microbial community composition than healthy individuals, an observation in line with the "Anna Karenina principle" (Zaneveld *et al.* 2017), although there are exceptions to this rule (*e.g.*, Marzinelli *et al.* 2015). A specific case of dysbiosis is the so-called "Rasputin effect" when where benign endosymbionts opportunistically become detrimental to the host due to processes such as reduction in immune response under food deprivation, coinfections, or environmental pressure (Overstreet and Lotz 2016). Many diseases are now interpreted as the result of a microbial imbalance and the rise of opportunistic or polymicrobial infections upon host stress (Egan and Gardiner 2016). In For instance in reef-building corals, for example, warming destabilizes cnidarian-dinoflagellate associations, and some beneficial *Symbiodiniacea* strains switch their physiology and sequester more resources for their own growth at the expense of the coral host (Baker *et al.* 2018).

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Another factor regulating holobiont composition is chemically mediated microbial gardening. This concept has already been demonstrated for land plants, where root exudates are used by plants to manipulate microbiome composition (Lebeis et al. 2015). In marine environments, comparable studies are only starting to emerge. For instance, seaweeds can chemically garden beneficial microbes aiding normal morphogenesis via exuded metabolites (Kessler et al. 2018), and corals of the genera Acropora and Platygyra structure their surfaceassociated microbiome by producing chemo-attractants and anti-bacterial compounds (Ochsenkühn et al. 2018). In the context of ongoing global change, an understanding of how the community and functional structure of resident microbes are resilient to perturbations remains critical to predict and assure the health of their host and the ecosystem. In marine environments, the phylogenetic diversity of hosts and symbionts suggests both conserved and marine-specific chemical interactions, but comparable studies are only starting to emerge. For instance, seaweeds can chemically garden beneficial microbes facilitating normal morphogenesis and increasing disease resistance (Kessler et al. 2018; Saha and Weinberger 2019), and seaweeds and corals structure their surface-associated microbiome by producing chemo-attractants and anti-bacterial compounds (Harder et al. 2012; Ochsenkühn et al. 2018). There are fewer examples of chemical gardening in unicellular hosts, but it seems highly likely that similar processes are in place (Gribben et al. 2017; Cirri and Pohnert 2019). In the context of ongoing global change, an understanding of how the community and functional structure of resident microbes are resilient to perturbations remains critical to predict and promote the health of their host and the ecosystem, yet it is still missing in most mathematical models, or additional information on biological interactions would be required to make the former more accurate (Bell et al. 2018).

Integrating marine model systems with large-scale studies

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By compiling what scientists a sample of researchers today consider the most important trends and challenges in the field of marine holobiont research (Figure 3), we identified two distinct clusters: mechanistic understanding and predictive modeling. This illustrates that, on the one hand, the scientific community is focusing on the establishment of models for the identification of specific molecular interactions between marine organisms at a given point in space and time, up to the point of synthesizing functional mutualistic communities constituting functional marine holobionts in vitro (Kubo et al. 2013). On the other hand, another part of the community is moving towards global environmental sampling schemes such as the *TARA* Oceans expedition (Pesant et al. 2015) or the Ocean Sampling Day (Kopf et al. 2015), and towards long-term data series (e.g., Wiltshire et al. 2010; Harris 2010). What emerges as both lines of research progress is the understanding that small-scale functional studies in the laboratory are inconsequential unless they are applicable to ecologically-relevant complex systems. At the same time, large scale-studies remain descriptive and with little predictive power unless we understand the mechanisms driving the observed processes. We illustrate the importance of integrating both approaches in Figure 3, where the node related to potential

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applications was perceived as a central hub at the interface between mechanistic understanding and predictive modeling.

A successful example **allying both** ends of the spectrum in terrestrial environments functional and large-scale approaches are the root nodules of legumes, which harbor nitrogen-fixing bacteria. In this system with a reduced number of symbionts involved, the functioning, distribution, and to some extent the evolution of these nodules, are now well understood (Epihov *et al.* 2017). The integration of this knowledge into agricultural practices has led to substantial yield improvements (*e.g.*, Kavimandan 1985; Alam *et al.* 2015). In the more diffuse and partner-rich system of mycorrhizal symbioses between plant roots and soil fungi, a better understanding of the interactions has also been achieved *via* the investigation of environmental diversity patterns in combination with experimental culture systems with reduced diversity (van der Heijden *et al.* 2015).

We consider it essential to implement comparable efforts in marine sciences through interdisciplinary research combining biology, ecology, and mathematical modeling.physiology, biochemistry, ecology, and mathematical modeling. A key factor here will be the identification and development of new model systems for keystone holobionts that will allow the hypotheses generated by large-scale data sets to be tested in controlled experiments. Such approaches will enable the identification of common interaction patterns between organisms within holobionts and nested ecosystems. In addition to answering fundamental questions, they will help address the ecological, societal, and ethical issues that arise from attempting to actively manipulate holobionts (e.g., in aquaculture) in order to enhance their resilience and protect them from the impacts of global change (Llewellyn et al. 2014).

Emerging methodologies to approach the complexity of holobiont partnerships

As our conceptual understanding onof the different levels of the holobiont organization of holobionts evolves, so does the need for multidisciplinary approaches and the development of tools and technologies to handle the unprecedented amount of data and their integration into dedicated ecological and evolutionary models. Here, progress is often fast-paced and provides exciting opportunities to address some of the challenges in holobiont research.

Notably, a giant technological stride has been the explosion of affordable '-omics' technologies allowing molecular ecologists to move from metabarcoding (i.e., sequencing of a taxonomic marker) to meta-metagenomics or single-cell genomics in the case of unicellular hosts, metatranscriptomics, and metaproteomics, thus advancing our understanding from phylogenetic to functional analyses of the holobiont (Bowers et al. 2017; Meng et al. 2018). For instance, metaproteomics These approaches are equally useful in marine and in terrestrial environments, but the existence of numerous poorly studied lineages in the former make the generation of good annotations and reference databases an additional challenge for marine biologists. Metaproteomics combined with stable isotope fingerprinting can help study the

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metabolism of single species within the holobiont (Kleiner *et al.* 2018). In parallel, metametabolomics approaches have advanced over the last decades, and can be used to unravel the chemical interactions between partners. One current limitation here, <u>especially in marine systems</u>, is that many compounds are still undescribed in databases and <u>are present in low quantities in natural environments</u>, although recent technological advances such as molecular networking and meta-mass shift chemical profiling to identify relatives of known molecules promise significant <u>improvements advancement</u> (Hartmann *et al.* 2017).

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Additionally, it A further challenge in holobiont research is highly challenging to identify the origin of a compound among the different partners of the holobionts and to determine its degree of their involvement in the maintenance and performance of the holobiont system. Well-designed experimental setups may help answer some of these questions (e.g., Quinn et al. 2016), but they will also require high levels of replication due to extensive intraspecies variability. Recently developed in vivo and in situ imaging techniques combined with 'omics' approaches can provide spatial and qualitative information (origin, distribution, and concentration of a molecule or nutrient), shedding new light on the role of each partner of the holobiont system at the subcellular level. The combination and stable isotope labelling and chemical imaging (mass spectrometry imaging such as secondary ion mass spectrometry and matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization, and synchrotron X-ray fluorescence is particularly valuable in this context, as it enables the investigation of metabolic exchange between the different components of a holobiont (Musat et al. 2016; Raina et al. 2017). Finally, threedimensional electron microscopy may help evaluate to what extent different components of a holobiont are physically integrated (Colin et al. 2017; Decelle et al. 2019) Finally, threedimensional electron microscopy may help evaluate to what extent different components of a holobiont are physically integrated (Colin et al. 2017; Decelle et al. 2019), where high integration is one indication of highly specific interactions. All of these techniques can be employed in both marine and terrestrial systems, but in marine systems the high phylogenetic diversity of organisms adds to the complexity of adapting and optimizing the techniques.

One consequence of the development of such new methods is the intellectual feedback they provide to improve existing **models** and to develop entirely new ones, for example by conceptualizing holobionts as mass balancethe sum of elements the interactions between the host and its microbiota and its host (Skillings 2016; Berry and Loy 2018), or by redefining boundaries between the holobiont and the ecosystem (Zengler and Palsson 2012). Such models may incorporate metabolic complementarity between different components of the holobiont (Dittami et al. 2014; Bordron et al. 2016), simulate microbial communities starting from different cohorts of randomly generated microbes for comparison with actual metatranscriptomics and/or metagenomics data (Coles et al. 2017), or even employ machine learning techniques to predict host-associated microbial communities (Moitinho-Silva et al. 2017).

A side-effect of these recent developments has been to shift the focus of holobiont research away from laboratory culture-based experiments. Here we We argue that maintaining cultivation efforts to capture as much as possible of the maximum holobiont biodiversity

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possible remains essential in order to experimentally test hypotheses and investigate physiological mechanisms. A striking example of the importance of laboratory experimentation is the way germ-free mice re-inoculated with cultivated bacteria (the so-called gnotobiotic mice) have contributed to the understanding of interactions within the holobiont in animal health and physiology (e.g., Faith et al. 2014; Selosse et al. 2014). Innovations in cultivation techniques for axenic (or germ-free) hosts (e.g., Spoerner et al. 2012) or in microbial cultivation such as microfluidic systems (e.g., Pan et al. 2011) and cultivation chips (Nichols et al. 2010) may provide a way to obtain pure cultures. Yet, bringing individual components of holobionts into cultivation can still be a daunting challenge due to the strong interdependencies between organisms as well as the existence of yet unknown metabolic processes that may create specific requirements. In this context, single-cell omics analyses can provide critical information on some of the growth requirements of the organisms, and can complement approaches of highthroughput culturing (Gutleben et al. 2018). Established cultures can then be developed into model systems to move towards mechanistic understanding and experimental testing of hypothetical processes within the holobiont-derived from environmental meta'-omics' approaches. A few such model systems have already been mentioned above, but omics techniques can broaden the range of available models, enabling generalizations about the functioning of marine holobionts and their interactions in marine environments (Wichard and Beemelmanns 2018).

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Ecosystem services and holobionts in natural and managed systems

A better understanding of marine holobionts eanwill likely have straightforwarddirect socioeconomic consequences for coastal marine ecosystems, which have been estimated to provide services worth almost 50 trillion (10¹²) US\$ per year (Costanza et al. 2014). Most of the management practices of these in marine systems have so far been based exclusively on the biology and ecology of macro-organisms. A multidisciplinary approach that provides mechanistic understanding of habitat-forming organisms as holobionts will ultimately improve the predictability and management of coastal ecosystems. For example, host-associated microbiotasmicrobiota could be integrated into the proxies used to assess the health of ecosystems. Microbial shifts and dysbiosis constitute early warning signals that may allow managers to predict potential impacts and intervene more rapidly and effectively (van Oppen et al. 2017; Marzinelli et al. 2018).

One form of intervention could be to promote positive changes of host-associated microbiotas, in <u>ways</u> analogous <u>ways</u> to the use of **pre- and/or probiotics** in humans (Singh *et al.* 2013) or inoculation of beneficial microbes in plant farming (Berruti *et al.* 2015; van der Heijden *et al.* 2015). In macroalgae, beneficial bacteria identified from healthy seaweed holobionts could be applied to diseased plantlets in order to suppress the growth of detrimental ones and/or to prevent disease outbreaks in aquaculture settings. In addition to bacteria, these macroalgae frequently host endophytic fungi that may have protective functions for the algae (Porras-Alfaro and Bayman 2011; Vallet *et al.* 2018). Host-associated microbiota could also be

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manipulated to shape key phenotypes in cultured marine organisms. For example, specific bacteria associated with microalgae may enhance their lagal growth (Amin et al. 2009; Kazamia et al. 2012; Le Chevanton et al. 2013), increase their lipid content (Cho et al. 2015), and participate in the bioprocessing of algal biomass (Lenneman et al. 2014). More recently, the active modification of the coral microbiota has even been advocated as a means to boost the resilience of the holobiont to climate change (van Oppen et al. 2015; Peixoto et al. 2017), an approach which would, however, bear a high risk of unanticipated and unintended ecological consequences.

Finally, one could implement holistic approaches in the framework of **fish farms**. Recent developments including integrated multi-trophic aquaculture, recirculating aquaculture, offshore aquaculture, and species selection, and breeding increase yields and reduce the resource constraints and environmental impacts of intensive aquaculture (Klinger and Naylor 2012). However, the intensification of aquaculture often goes hand in hand with increased disease outbreaks both in industry and wild stocks. A holistic microbial management approach may provide an efficient solution to these latter problems (De Schryver and Vadstein 2014).

Nevertheless, when considering their biotechnological potential, it should also be envisagednoted that marine microbiota mayare likely to be vulnerable to anthropogenic influences and that their deliberate engineering, introduction from exotic regions, or inadvertent perturbations may have profound, and yet entirely unknown, consequences onfor, marine ecosystems. Terrestrial environments provide numerous examples of unwanted plant expansions or ecosystem perturbations linked to microbiota (e.g., Dickie et al. 2017), and examples cases where holobionts manipulated by human resultresulted in pests (e.g., Clay and Holah 1999), ealling.call for a cautious and ecologically-informed evaluation of holobiont-based technologies.

Conclusions

Marine ecosystems represent highly connected reservoirs of largely unexplored biodiversity. They are of critical importance to feed the ever-growing world population, constitute a significant playerplayers in global biogeochemical cycles but are also threatened by human activities and global change. In order to unveilunravel some of the basic principles of life and its evolution, and to protect and sustainably exploit marine natural resources, it is paramount to consider the complex biotic interactions that shape the marine communities and their environment. The scope of these interactions ranges from simple molecular signals between two partners viato complex assemblies of eukaryotes, prokaryotes, and viruses with one or several hosts, to entire ecosystems. We believe that the concept of holobionts will be most useful and heuristic if used with a degree of malleability. It does not only represent the fundamental understanding that all living organisms have intimate connections with their immediate neighbors that, which may impact all aspects of their biology, but also enables us to define units of interacting organisms that are most suitable to answer specific scientific, societal, and economic questions. The consideration of the holobiont concept marks a real-paradigm shift

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in biological and environmental sciences, and a successful response to the underlying challenges will largely depend on the capacity of but only if scientists to-work together as an (inter)active and transdisciplinary community bringing together holistic and mechanistic views. This will result in tangible outcomes including a better understanding of evolutionary and adaptive processes, improved modeling of habitats and biogeochemical cycles, and application of the holobiont concept in aquaculture and ecosystem management projects.

Acknowledgments

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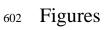
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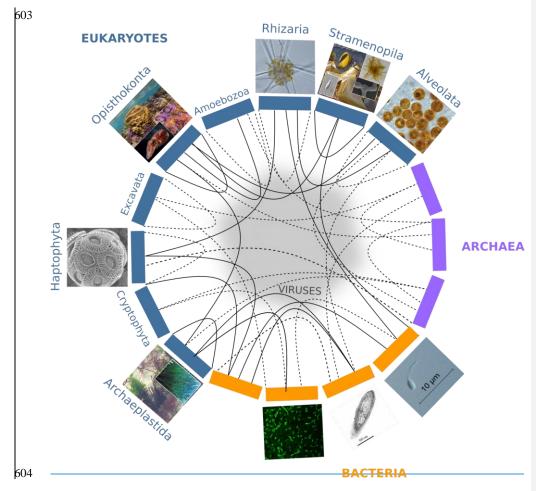
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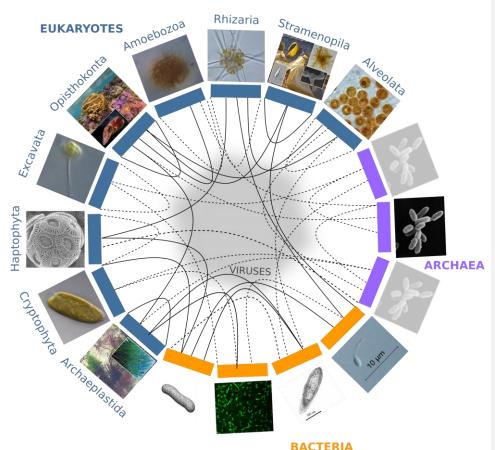
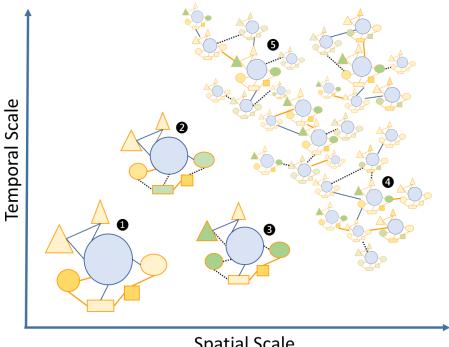


Figure 1. Partners forming marine holobionts are widespread across the tree of life including all kingdoms (eukaryotes, bacteria, archaea, viruses), and represent a large diversity of potential models for exploring complex biotic interactions across lineages. Plain lines correspond to holobionts referred to in the present manuscript. Dashed lines are examples of potential interactions. Photo credits: Archaeplastida - C. Leblanc, U Cardini; Cryptophyta, Excavata, Amoebozoa - Roscoff Culture Collection; Stramenopila - C. Leblanc, S. M. Dittami, H. KleinJan; Alveolata - A. M. Lewis; Rhizaria - F. Not; Haptophyta - A. R. Taylor; Opisthonkonta - C. Frazee, M. McFall-Ngai, W. Thomas, L. Thiault; Bacteria - E Nelson, L Sycuro, S. M. Dittami, S. Le Panse Le Panse, Planktomania; Archaea - National Space Science Data Center.

Commenté [C40]: What are the differences between the three pictures of archaea? I can't see them.

I think that all these small pictures could be replaced by a few bigger pictures of model holobionts.

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Spatial Scale

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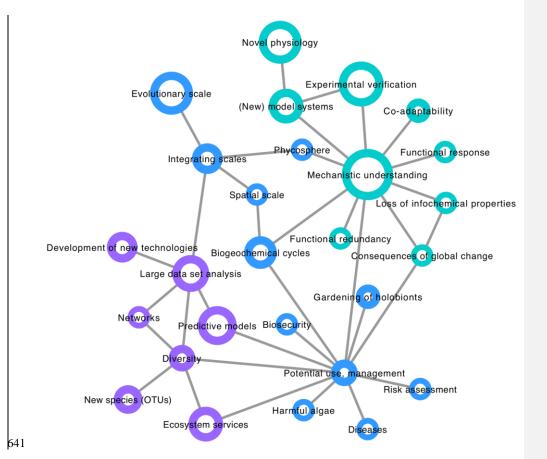
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Figure 2. Schematic view of the "Russian Doll" complexity and dynamics of holobionts, according to diverse spatiotemporal scales. The host (blue circles), and associated microbes (all other shapes) including bacteria and eukaryotes that may be inside (i.e., endosymbiotic or outside the host, *i.e.* ectosymbiotic, are connected by either beneficial (solid orange lines), neutral (solid blue lines) or pathogenic (dashed black lines) interactions respectively. The different clusters can be illustrated by the following examples: 1, a model holobiont in onea stable physiological condition (e.g., in controlled laboratory condition); 2 and 3, holobionts changing during their life cycle or submitted to stress conditions; 4 and 5, marine holobionts in the context of global sampling campaigns or long-term time series.

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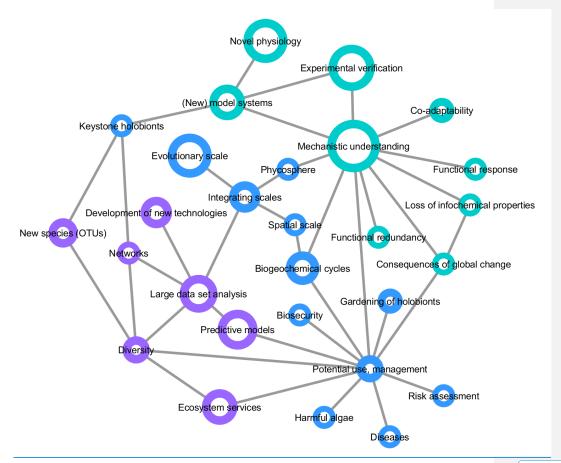


Figure 3: Mind map of key concepts, techniques, and challenges related to marine holobionts. This The basis of this map was generated during the Holomarine workshop held in Roscoff in 2018 (https://www.euromarinenetwork.eu/activities/HoloMarine). The size of the nodes reflects the number of votes each keyword received from the participants of the workshop (total of 120 votes from 30 participants). The two main clusters corresponding to predictive modeling and mechanistic modeling, are displayed in purple and turquoise, respectively. Among the intermediate nodes linking these disciplines (blue) "potential use, management" was the most connected.

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