

***Chrysochromulina*: Genomic assessment and taxonomic diagnosis of the type species for an oleaginous algal clade**

Blake T. Hovde¹, Chloe R. Deodato², Robert A. Andersen³, Shawn R. Starkenburg¹, Steven B. Barlow⁴, Rose Ann Cattolico^{2§}

¹Los Alamos National Laboratory, Bioscience Division, Los Alamos, NM

²Department of Biology, University of Washington, Box 351800, Seattle, WA, USA

³Friday Harbor Laboratories, University of Washington, 620 University Road, Friday Harbor, WA, USA

⁴Department of Biology, San Diego State University, 5500 Campanile Drive MC-4614, San Diego, CA, USA

[§]Corresponding author, Co-first author

Email addresses:

BTH: hovdebt@lanl.gov

CRD: chloed@uw.edu

RAA: raa48@uw.edu

SRS: shawns@lanl.gov

SBB: sbarlow@mail.sdsu.edu

RAC: racat@uw.edu

ABSTRACT

Background: Until recent studies documented their extensive contribution to primary productivity and carbon sequestration, haptophytes remained underappreciated players in global ecosystem processes. Contemporary analyses, augmented by the use of molecular probes, show the haptophyte taxon *Chrysochromulina* to be seminal to the ecology of both marine and freshwater ecosystems. Unfortunately, description for the type species for this clade remains enigmatic.

Results: *Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey was re-isolated from Big Walnut Creek (Ohio), the site where the original isolate was obtained. The sequenced haploid genome of this organism is 65.7 Mb in size. Several noteworthy nuclear-encoded genes identified include a novel *ftsZ* (mediates organelle division) that phylogenetically clusters with the Chloroarchniophytes. Also revealed, is a complement of genes associated with meiosis and DNA repair, indicating the presence of a sexual cycle in this alga. Mitochondrial genes lost to the nucleus include all extrinsic components of the *nad* complex, completing a punctate pattern of transfer that is observed among algal taxa. Comparison of the newly sequenced *Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey isolate was made with that of *Chrysochromulina tobinii* (59.1 Mb) – a fresh water strain isolated from a lake in Colorado.

Conclusion: Genomic analysis suggests that fresh water *Chrysochromulina* isolates, though geographically well separated, form a related clade. The name of the type species of *Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey is anchored with a lectotype and epitype, and the second isolate is described as *Chrysochromulina tobinii* sp. nov. *Chrysochromulina* represents a new, extremely tractable model organism for experimental studies. This oleaginous alga has a small genome and because it represents only the second haptophyte taxon to be sequenced and assembled, presents new opportunity to examine the evolution of an algal taxon that plays an intrinsic role in ecosystem function.

KEY WORDS: Haptophyta; *Chrysochromulina* genome; *nad* evolution; FtsZ phylogeny; meiosis; taxon diagnosis.

I. Introduction

Haptophytes represent a major taxonomic group of phytoplankters whose ancient evolutionary roots extend from the mid Neoproterozoic-Cryogenian period approximately 820 MA [1, 2]. The ecological relevance of micro-planktonic haptophytes cannot be underestimated. These algae produce copious amounts of fatty acids – an energy currency required for the survival of aquatic eco-cohorts at every trophic level [3-8]. Many haptophyte species are embellished with different types of scales that have a polysaccharide core. Some haptophytes further adorn these organic scales with a complex array of calcium carbonate crystals [9-11]. It has been estimated that select haptophyte taxa generate more than two billion tons of polysaccharide gels annually that serve as a nutrient source for bacteria and zooplankton [12, 13]. Both scales and polysaccharides sediment into the benthos, thus serve as carbon sequestration products. The recent identification of DMSP [14] biosynthesis genes in haptophytes expands the contribution of these algae to the production of organo-sulfur metabolites (which influence sulfur cycling in association with eco-cohorts [Durham, personal communication]), and impact atmospheric geochemical cycles (by regulating weather patterns [15]). High-density haptophyte blooms have been shown to produce toxins that cause extensive finfish losses [16], as well compromise water quality by generating noxious odors [17].

Two classes of Haptophytes are recognized: the monophyletic Pavlovophyceae and the highly diverse Prymnesiophyceae. In spite of their significant ecological contribution, the first haptophyte complete genome sequence only became available to investigators in 2013 [18] wherein the estimated genome of 141.7 Mb for *Emiliana huxleyi* (Prymnesiophyceae;

Isochrysidales) was reported. This well-studied alga is of great interest for it generates bloom events large enough to cover square miles of ocean - so extensive that the highly reflective calcium carbonate scales covering this organism allow satellite monitoring. In contrast, the crucial ecological role played by the minute, fragile members of the *Chrysochromulina* (Prymnesiales) clade has long been observed (e.g., Dahl et al [19]; 2005; Seoane et al, 2009 [20]), but only recently been the focus of more intense study [14, 21]. Data show that both oceanic and fresh water phytoplankton assemblages often contain high percentages of *Chrysochromulina*, in some instances, forming almost uni-algal, high-density blooms [17, 22]. The new awareness of *Chrysochromulina* relevance to global aquatic ecosystem function drove the generation of a second haptophyte genome sequence. *Chrysochromulina tobinii* Cattolico was isolated from a high altitude, freshwater lake in Colorado in 1991 by Dr. Paul Kugrens (Colorado State University). The genome of this alga displays a spectrum of unique nuclear genes and novel chloroplast and mitochondrial genome architectures that are not present in *E. huxleyi* [23, 24].

Chrysochromulina is a large, cosmopolitan complex (~64 species [25]). Confusion concerning the “type species” Diagnosis for *Chrysochromulina* has been ongoing. The initial description of *Chrysochromulina Parva* Lackey was made in 1939 [26], citing a naked cell having two flagella and an unusual flagella-like appendage that was subsequently [27] termed a haptonema. With the onset of electron microscopy, high-resolution studies found ephemeral scales embellished many *Chrysochromulina* isolates, some of which were also identified as *Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey [28], further adding to nomenclature confusion. To untangle this conundrum, we re-isolated the *Chrysochromulina* “type species” (*Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey) from Big Walnut Creek, Ohio, at the same location where the original organism was recovered in 1939. In this study we report on the genetic profile of the scale-less Big Walnut Creek isolate. Our work serves as a conduit for clarifying the Diagnosis of the *Chrysochromulina* type species. The generation of this second *Chrysochromulina* genome has also allowed comparison to be made

between *Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey (65.7 Mb) and *Chrysochromulina tobinii* Cattolico (59.1 Mb). Data suggests that *Chrysochromulina* clade is comprised of a cryptic species complex, for though the morphology of *Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey and *Chrysochromulina parva* Cattolico is almost identical [29], their genetic fingerprints are not [23, 24].

2. Results and discussion

Chrysochromulina parva isolate UW 1161 was established in 2014 from a water sample collected from Big Walnut Creek in Shadeville, Ohio, the type locality for this species. Scanning and transmission electron microscopy of the *C. parva* Ohio isolate shows the small unicell to be 4-6 μm in size. Two flagella ($\sim 8 \mu\text{m}$) as well as a long haptonema (up to 10x the body length) initiate anteriorly, within a deep groove that runs the length of the cell (Fig. 1). When extended, the haptonema is significantly longer than the cell body of the alga (Fig. 2). Transmission electron studies reveal a simple cellular morphology for *C. parva*. Briefly, a typical eukaryotic nucleus with nucleolus is anteriorly located, and the prolific mitochondria have tubular cristae. The two chloroplasts, which are delineated by four membranes, have internal pyrenoids. Each chloroplast is associated with a large lipid body that lies in the cell anterior. Unlike most *Chrysochromulina* isolates [25, 30], no scales are visible on this organism, either on the cell surface or within the Golgi apparatus. A detailed comparison of *C. parva*, a river dwelling isolate and *C. tobinii*, a lake dwelling isolate, showing these algae to be morphologically similar, will be reported elsewhere [29]. To our knowledge, only three fresh-water *Chrysochromulina* isolates are presently maintained in culture.

2.1.1 Nuclear genome - assembly and annotation:

The *Chrysochromulina parva* genome was shotgun sequenced using Illumina short reads. The final draft genome assembly consisted of 8,362 contigs having an average length of 7,865 bp

(Table 1). A 65.8 Mb genome was assembled representing an average read depth of over 100x (see Materials and Methods), which is larger than that of *C. tobinii* genome assembly (59.1 MB [24]). Whether the *C. parva* versus *C. tobinii* genome size difference is due to a truly larger genome for *C. parva*, issues with assembly methodology, or whether associated bacteria continue to confound the genome assembly process, is not known. Germane to this discussion is the observation that significant genome size differences have been reported among *Nannochloropsis* isolates (up to 27%) and even between putative species (e.g., 15% difference is observed between *N. oceanica* CCMP531 and *N. oceanica* IMET1) [31]. The *C. parva* nuclear genome (Whole Genome Shotgun project has been deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accession PJAB00000000, BioProject PRJNA418464) encodes an estimated 28,138 protein-coding genes (Table 1) with an average length of 1,765 bp. On average, each gene contains a single intron. Similar to *C. tobinii* [24], the *C. parva* nuclear genome encodes several genes that may be of interest to future studies, including a unique complex of non-ribosomal synthetase modules associated with Type 1 polyketide synthetase domains; tylosin and erythromycin antimicrobial peptides; multidrug and toxic compound extrusion proteins, and an alternative RuBisCO activase. A novel xanthorhodopsin is also maintained in *C. parva*. This protein sources non-photosynthetically generated energy that can be used in cellular metabolism. The xanthorhodopsin gene found in *C. parva* as well as *C. tobinii* is of particular interest, since a highly conserved ortholog has been found encoded in the genome of the bacterium *Sphingobium* sp. RAC03 (Supplementary Fig. S1; NCBI: GCF_001713425) which is a member of the nine-membered bacterial biome associated with *C. tobinii* [32]. Both the algal and bacterial proteins maintain identical sites needed for green wavelength spectral tuning, proton acceptor and donor function as well as retinal binding. Such strong sequence similarities suggest the possibility of a lateral transfer origin for the *Chrysochromulina* protein from a bacterial source.

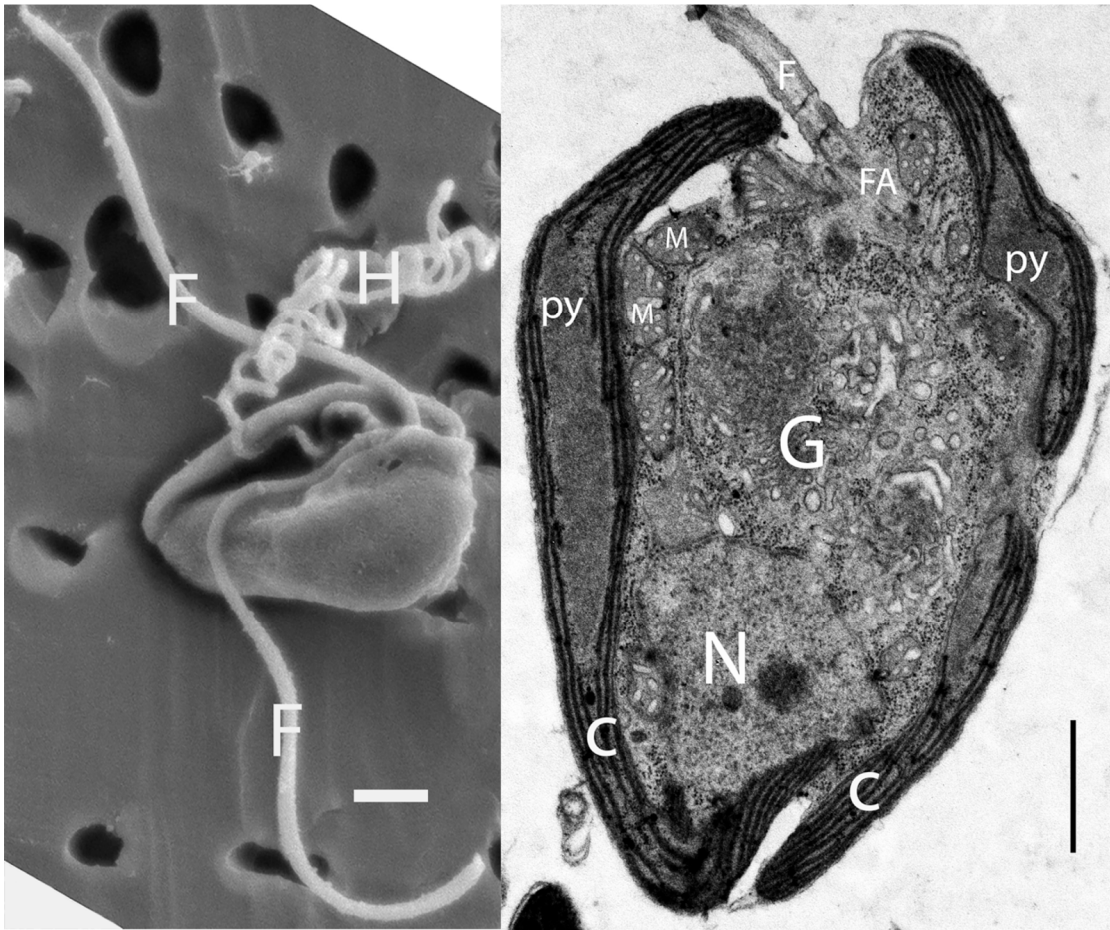


Fig 1: Images of *Chrysochromulina parva*: (Left) Scanning electron microscopy image of cell showing two flagella (F), and the partially uncoiled haptonema (H) emerging from a groove or depression along the length of the cell. (Right) Transmission electron microscopy image of a longitudinal slice through the cell showing the two peripheral chloroplasts (C) and displaying an internal pyrenoid (py); mitochondria (M); Golgi apparatus (G); nucleus (N); and one of the two flagella (F), as well as the flagellar and haptonemal complex (FA). Scale bar = 1 µm.

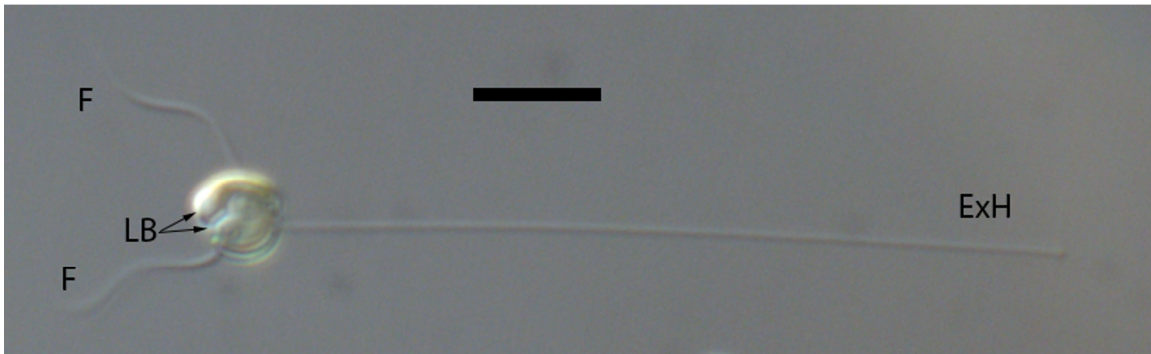


Fig 2: Light microscopic image of *Chrysochromulina parva*: There are two equal flagella (F), and a long, retractable haptonema extending from the cell (ExH). One lipid body (arrows) is associated with each chloroplast. Bar = 5 μ m.

Table 1: General characteristics of the *Chrysochromulina parva* genome

Assembled genome size	65.8 Mb
Sequencing coverage	110x
Assembled contigs	8,362
Average contig size	7,865 bp
N50 / L50	16,048 bp / 1243 contigs
Contigs > 100kb	1
Contigs > 10kb	2,199
GC content	63.60%
Chloroplast genome size	104,520 bp (complete)
Mitochondrial genome size	24,009 bp (partial)
Nuclear genome	
Protein coding genes	28,138
Average gene length	1,765 bp
Average CDS length	1,506 bp
Average exon length	762 bp
Average exons per gene	2
Average intron length	264 bp
Average introns per gene	1
Chloroplast genome	
Protein coding/tRNA/rRNA genes	113/27/6
Mitochondrial genome	
Protein coding/tRNA/rRNA genes	20/25/2

2.1.2 Nuclear genome – ploidy and sexual cycle

Given the extensive distribution of alternative life history phases among the haptophytes, the haplo-diploid reproductive strategy is considered to represent an ancestral attribute in this taxon [33]. Regardless of ancestry, the multi-phasic life history profiles of haptophytes can be genetically complex and morphologically complicated. Many haptophytes display a change in colony formation, scale ornamentation, or motility that reflects a change in ploidy state (Table 2 [20, 34, 35]). No similar shifts in *Chrysochromulina* morphology or swimming behavior have yet to be observed in the two fresh water isolates, even though cells have been subject to an extremely broad range of culture conditions during extensive physiological studies. In contrast to many algae that are constrained to a non-sexual life cycle, having lost those proteins needed to ensure meiotic function (e.g., the commercially exploited genus *Nannochloropsis* [36]), both *C. tobinii* and *C. parva* appear to have retained a full complement of nuclear-encoded genes that produce proteins critical to meiotic processes (Supplementary Table S1; Supplementary Table S2) in their haploid genome. BLAST searches for core meiotic gene orthologs [37, 38] in *C. tobinii* and *Emiliania huxleyi* (which is known to undergo a sexual cycle) reveals that these two haptophytes share the same complement of meiosis specific core genes – many of which are found in model eukaryotic systems with well-studied reproductive systems. Given the large meiosis-related gene complement that has been identified in both *Chrysochromulina* isolates, there is high probability that these organisms have retained sexual reproductive capacity. Although mating has not been observed in our *Chrysochromulina* cultures, it may simply be that the process occurs rarely and quickly or that the physiological parameters needed to induce sexuality have yet to be identified.

In addition to identifying meiosis specific orthologs, genes associated with DNA repair pathways that utilize homologous recombination have also been identified (Supplementary Table S1). The fact that many DNA repair orthologs are also found in *C. tobinii* and *C. parva* suggest that

genetic modification methods that rely on homologous recombination are likely viable in this alga. Genome editing tools such as mega-nucleases, TALE receptor nucleases (TALENs) and CRISPR/Cas9 mediated technologies [39] that rely on endogenous recombination mechanisms for targeted gene modification are present.

Table 2: Ploidy of various haptophyte genomes

Organism	Taxon	Clade#	Haploid	Diploid	Reference
<i>Chrysochromulina tobinii</i>	Prymnesiales	B2	+ (59Mb) ^{\$}	?	Hovde et. al. 2015 [24]
<i>Chrysochromulina parva</i>	Prymnesiales	B2	+ (67Mb) ^{\$}	?	This publication
<i>Prymnesium polylepis</i> (alpha)*	Prymnesiales	B1-5	+ (230Mb)	+	John et. al. 2010 [40]
<i>Phaeocystis antarctica</i>	Phaeocystales	A	+ (117Mb)	+ (215Mb)	Vaulot et. al. 1994 [34]
<i>Phaeocystis</i> (Naples isolate)	Phaeocystales	A	+ (176Mb)	+	Vaulot et. al. 1994 [34]
<i>Phaeocystis</i> (North European isolate)	Phaeocystales	A	+ (205Mb)	+	Vaulot et. al. 1994 [34]
<i>Coccolithus pelagicus</i>	Coccolithales	C	+	+	Edvardsen and Vaulot 1996 [41]
<i>Calcidiscus leptoporus</i>	Coccolithales	C	+	+	Edvardsen and Vaulot 1996 [41]
<i>Coronosphaera mediterranea</i>	Syracosphaerales	C	+	+	Edvardsen and Vaulot 1996 [41]
<i>Emiliania huxleyi</i>	Isochrysidales	C	+ (167Mb) ^{\$}	+	Read et. al. 2013 [18]

Ploidy and genome size estimation of various haptophytes, with current clade designation within Haptophyta. *Chrysochromulina tobinii* has a much more compact genome than the other haptophytes listed here.

* recently revised (*Chrysochromulina polylepis*)

^{\$} genome size from sequencing

+ present

? unknown

2.2 Mitochondrial genome:

The sequenced *Chrysochromulina parva* mitochondrial genome (Fig. 3; Supplementary Table S3; GenBank: MG520332) is 24,009 bp in length, which is smaller than that of *C. tobinii* (34,288 bp). Like *C. tobinii* [23], the *C. parva* mitochondrial genome contains a large internal repeat structure. Given the extensive and complex structure of the repeat region (9.5 kb in *C. tobinii*), this domain was not fully assembled in *C. parva*. *C. parva* and *C. tobinii* mitochondrial genomes encode 20 and 21 proteins respectively, none of which contain introns, or intergenic repeats. The ribosomal operon is split into separate 16S and 23S domains.

Chrysochromulina parva and *C. tobinii* mitochondrial genomes are co-linear in gene profile (Fig. 3). However, the large open reading frame (*orf456*) that lies between the complex repeat region and *nad4* is present in *C. tobinii* but not in *C. parva*. Though the function of this gene is unknown, transcriptome and comparative genomic analysis indicates it is expressed in *C. tobinii*. The translated protein sequence does not have a homolog found in public reference protein databases. Only a single conserved Domain of Unknown Function (DUF4143, Pfam13635) is noted as a “domain ...almost always found C-terminal to an ATPase core family” [42].

Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) appear between *C. parva* and *C. tobinii* in all 20 protein coding genes (Table S3), and ribosomal RNA genes. Nine of the 25 transfer RNA genes also contain one or more SNPs. The highest number of synonymous changes are observed in *nad* as well as *cox* genes, and the most non-synonymous changes are in *rps14*. dN/dS calculations suggest stabilizing selection for these changes (Table S3). Post-transcriptional modification, which could complicate this computation has not been observed for these genes.

Sequence analysis of the marine species *Chrysochromulina* NIES-1333 shows a very different mitochondrial structure from the *C. tobirii* and *C. parva* isolates described above. The NIES-1333 genome (34,291 bp) is missing a large, complex repeated sequence array; encodes two small intergenic repeats of 1,624 bp and 1,630 bp; contains two genes having group II introns (*cox1* and *rnl*), and has a highly rearranged gene order [43].

Mitochondrial genomes often serve as windows of evolution, giving insight to the relatedness among phylogenetic groups and likely reflects a program of genetic restructuring via the evolutionary process of endosymbiotic gene transfer (EGT [44,45]). For example, a significant reduction occurs among different algal taxa (Table 3) in the number of genes that contribute components to the algal respiratory chain supramolecular Complex 1 (Fig. 4) which is comprised of ~45 proteins assigned to P, N and Q functional modules [46-48]. The mitogenome of haptophytes, glaucophytes, rhodophytes, cryptophytes and stramenopiles appear to universally retain all genes of the Complex 1 “P-module” (proton pumping), that include *NAD 1* through *6*. These proteins are highly hydrophobic [46,49] and comprise the peripheral arm of Complex 1 that is membrane localized (Fig. 4). Genes “lost” to the nucleus in some algal lineages, but not others, include the extrinsic proteins [49] associated with modules N (electron capture from NADH oxidation) and Q (electron transfer to ubiquinone). For example, in stark contrast to the cryptophytes that retain *nad* genes 7, 9, 10, and 11, all haptophytes and rhodophytes have lost these 4 mitochondrial-encoded genes. In those algae that retain *nad7*, 9 and 11 genes (e.g., all stramenopile taxa and glaucophytes), the *nad10* gene is lost.

Insight to the mechanism of “stepwise” mitochondrial to nuclear EGT may be gained by comparing *nad11* profiles among taxa, given that this gene appears to be progressively targeted for loss from the mitochondrial genome. The *nad11* gene is comprised of two functional domains: the 5' end serves as binding sites for iron-sulfur clusters while the 3' terminus is similar to an

enzyme having a molybdopterin binding activity [50-52]. Raphidophytes, pelagiophytes, dictyochophytes, synurophytes and chrysophytes encode the intact *nad11* gene. Although, diatoms (bacillariophytes) may encode the entire *nad11* gene (e.g., *Thalassiosira pseudonana*; *Synedra acus*), *nad11* in *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* is encoded by two adjacent genes that comprise either the 5' or the 3' domains of the full gene sequence [52, 53]. Fracture of NAD 11 into two functional domains has resulted in classes of algae that lack either the 5' (e.g., glaucophytes, and eustigmatophytes) or 3' (phaeophytes) region of *nad11*, or as noted above for haptophytes and rhodophytes, has been completely eliminated from the mitochondrial genome. Though discussion of the acquisition of photosynthesis in the "red" lineage of algae remains controversial [23, 54-61] we suggest that data concerning symbiotic *host cell* genetic footprints (as evidenced by mitochondrial genomic signature) may be of interest, especially in discussing haptophyte and cryptophyte relatedness.

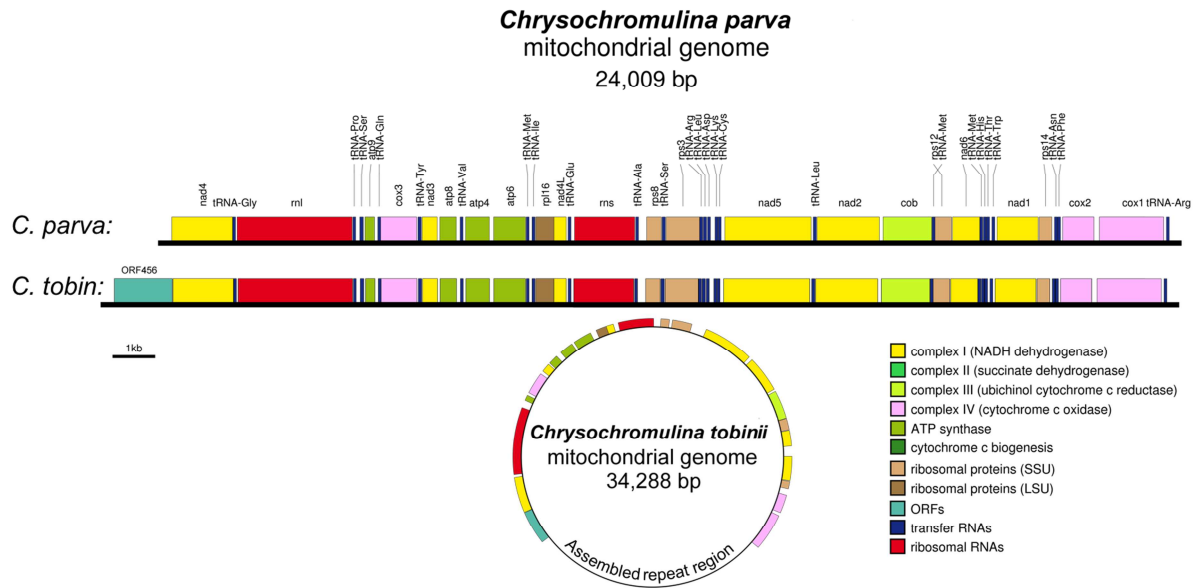


Fig. 3: Comparison of *Chrysochromulina* mitochondrial genome size and gene placement:

The *C. tobinii* genome was previously completed using a combination of high throughput sequencing and Sanger sequencing to assemble the entire repeat region of 9,434 bp [23]. Because short read sequencing was exclusively used in this study, only the coding regions of the *C. parva* mitochondrial genome were assembled. Discounting 987 SNPs within genes and intergenic regions, the overall structure and gene order of the two genomes are the same; the exception being ORF456 that was identified flanking *nad4* in the *C. tobinii* genome but missing in the *C. parva* genome. The *C. parva* cell contains an estimated 17 copies of the mitochondrial genome per cell based on average read depth of the nuclear and mitochondrial genome assemblies. *C. tobinii* contained an average of 14 mitochondrial genome copies.

Table 3: Reduction in mitochondrial-encoded *nad* genes among different algal taxa

Taxonomic Group	<i>nad</i> protein subunit*				
	1 to 6	7	9	10	11
Rhodophyte	+	-	-	-	-
Haptophyte	+	-	-	-	-
Cryptophyte	+	+	+	+	+
Glaucophyte	+	+	+	-	Missing 3' end ~120 amino acids, plus several internal deletions
Stramenopile					
Bolidophyceae	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Bacillariophyceae	+	+	+	-	Variable: intact to fragmented
Synurophyceae	+	+	+	-	+
Chrysophyceae	+	+	+	-	+
Eustimatophyceae	+	+	+	-	Missing 5'
Phaeophyceae	+	+	+	-	Missing 3'
Phaeothamniophyceae	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Xanthophyceae	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Raphidophyceae	+	+	+	-	+
Pinguiphyceae	+	+	-	-	+
Dictyochophyceae	+	+	+	-	+
Pelageophyceae	+	+	+	-	+

* + (gene present); - (gene absent); N.D. (gene occurrence not determined)

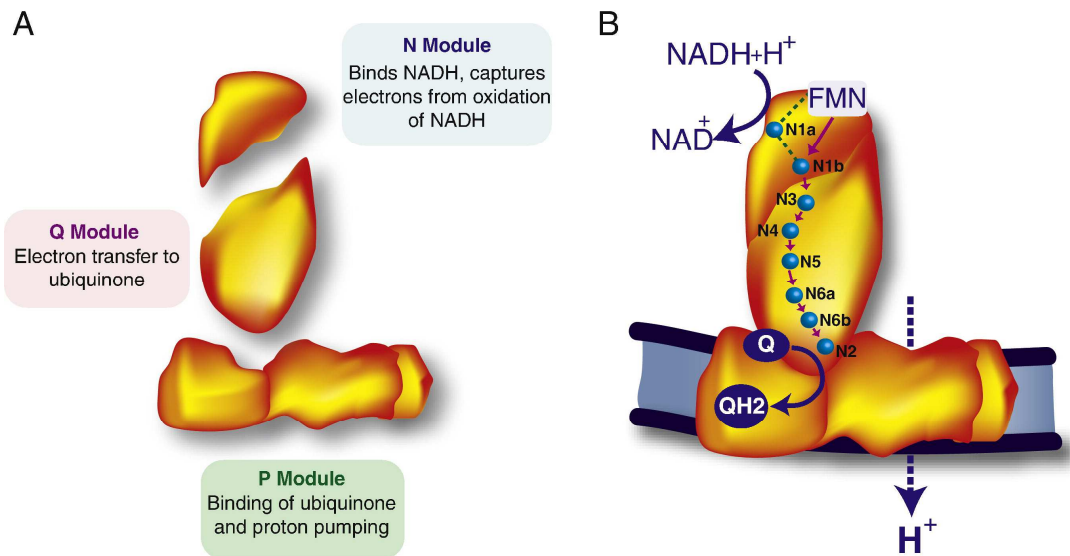


Fig. 4: Schematic of mitochondrial Complex 1 structure. A) Mitochondrial Complex 1 is comprised of N, Q and P Modules that B) serve as a conduit for electron transfer and proton pumping processes. These schematics are reproduced from Lazarou et. al. 2009 [49] with permission.

2.3 Chloroplast genome:

The chloroplast genomes of *C. parva* (Fig. 5; Supplementary Table S4; GenBank: MG520331) and *C. tobinii* are 104,520 and 104,518 bp in size respectively. Both genomes encode 112 proteins, 2 ribosomal operons, and 27 tRNAs. A novel restructuring of the conventional chloroplast ribosomal operon within an “inverted repeat” region is seen in both algal isolates. First, the intergenic regions that lie between 23S rRNA and 16S rRNA genes are not identical. The tRNA_{ala} gene is found in one operon, while its sister rRNA operon encodes tRNA_{ileu}. (conventionally, tRNA_{ala} and tRNA_{ileu} are both present in the intergenic domain). Secondly, exclusive of the tRNA genes, both *C. parva* and *C. tobinii* display significant numbers of SNPs when the two ribosomal “repeats” within a single genome are compared. Analysis of repeated ribosomal genes in “red lineage” plastids reveals that haptophytes, rhodophytes, cryptophytes, and stramenopiles display this non-identity feature in the “inverted repeat” [23]. Similar to previous studies [62-64] the number of SNPs between *C. parva* and *C. tobinii* chloroplast genes (Supplementary Table S4) is significantly less than that seen for the mitochondrial genome. Of the 41 SNPs between *C. tobinii* and *C. parva* chloroplast genomes, 12 occurred within genes and 29 intergenically (0.39 mutations per kb), while among the 987 mitochondrial SNPs observed, 554 occurred within genes and 433 intergenically, (39.6 mutations per kb), when disregarding the large repeat region that remains unassembled in the *C. parva* mitochondrial genome. Similar to the mitochondrial genomes, dN/dS calculations (Supplementary Table S4) suggest stabilizing selection for chloroplast genes. No post-transcriptional editing was noted.

The *Chrysochromulina* cell contains only two chloroplasts. Thus, unlike some algae whose plastid complement is high, where chloroplast and cell division processes can be uncoupled [65] and the distribution of daughter plastids is stochastic [66], the regulation of *Chrysochromulina* chloroplast division at each cell duplication cycle is essential for survival. The process of chloroplast division requires a complex array of protein machinery [67-69]. However, it appears

that whether a cell contains many chloroplasts or few, the genes controlling plastid division have been prime nuclear relocation targets during the evolution of host/symbiont chimeric construction. For example, within the red lineage of algae (haptophytes, rhodophytes, cryptophytes and stramenopiles), only two genes of the chloroplast division complex (*minD* and *minE*) may be found in the plastid. The *minD* gene is found in all haptophytes. The cryptophytes *Guillardia theta* and *Rhodomonas salina* (Pyrenomonadales) also encode the gene in the chloroplast, whereas *Cryptomonas paramecium* (Cryptomonadales) does not. An interesting distribution, perhaps reflecting the wide differences (e.g., phycobiliprotein composition; morphology) noted between these two taxa [70]. The *minD* gene is not encoded in rhodophyte and in stramenopile chloroplast genomes. The second gene, *minE* is solely found in the chloroplast of the cryptophytes *Guillardia* and *Rhodomonas*, but not in any other algal taxa examined to date (including haptophytes).

The division mechanism(s) needed for complex plastids (e.g., 3 or 4 membrane-delineated chloroplasts; glaucophytes, dinoflagellates, haptophytes and stramenopiles) is certainly more complicated than that needed for primary plastids (e.g., 2-membrane enclosed chloroplasts; rhodophytes, chlorophytes). For example, early EM studies [71, 72] report chloroplast division in the stramenopile *Heterosigma akashiwo* (raphidophyte) involves a two-step process wherein the inner 2 membranes (chloroplast envelope) divides before the outer two membranes (chloroplast ER). Thus, one might speculate that the division machinery for plastid might be specialized for each membrane set; that the inner 2 membranes retain the division machinery common to all 2-membrane chloroplast types, whereas the membranes comprising the chloroplast ER have evolved a separate set of partitioning tools for effecting plastokinesis. For example, the nuclear-encoded *ftsZ* gene family represents a universal player in the chloroplast division process of both primary and complex plastids within all taxa examined to date [71-77]. The *ftsZ* gene produces tubulin-like filaments (cytoskeletal GTPase) that form the dividing ring which is localized on the

stromal side of the most interior set of chloroplast membranes. Chloroplast encoded proteins MinD and MinE, also localized to the chloroplast envelope, modulate the FtsZ filament assembly process [78]. Phylogenetic studies show specialization (sub-functionalization; neo-functionalization?) of FtsZ is quite evident among a broad spectrum of eukaryotic photosynthetic organisms (Fig. 6). Most interestingly, all haptophyte FtsZ proteins, with the exception of members of the *Pavlova* species, lack a C-terminus extension (Fig. 6, Supplementary data S1), which has been implicated in protofilament bundling and anchoring to the inner envelope membrane [74]. The haptophyte FtsZ (excluding the poorly supported *Pavlova* FtsZ proteins) proteins form two unique clades (putatively named FtsZH and FtsZD-3). The haptophyte FtsZD-3 clade is highly supported as having a common ancestral protein sequence related to the chloroarachniophyte FtsZD gene pairs, while the FtsZH proteins are earlier diverged, bringing into question at what point FtsZ gene duplications took place with both the chloroarachniophyte and haptophyte clades. Unfortunately, detailed mechanistic studies concerning the chloroplast ER membrane division for the complex plastids of haptophyte and stramenopile taxa are lacking. New genomic information allowing the identification of complex chloroplast division components should certainly facilitate these efforts. Recent reports of chloroarachniophyte (four membranes encompassing a green algal-like plastid) FtsZ protein function are noteworthy [79] and may aid in explaining the two gene copy system seen in Haptophyta.

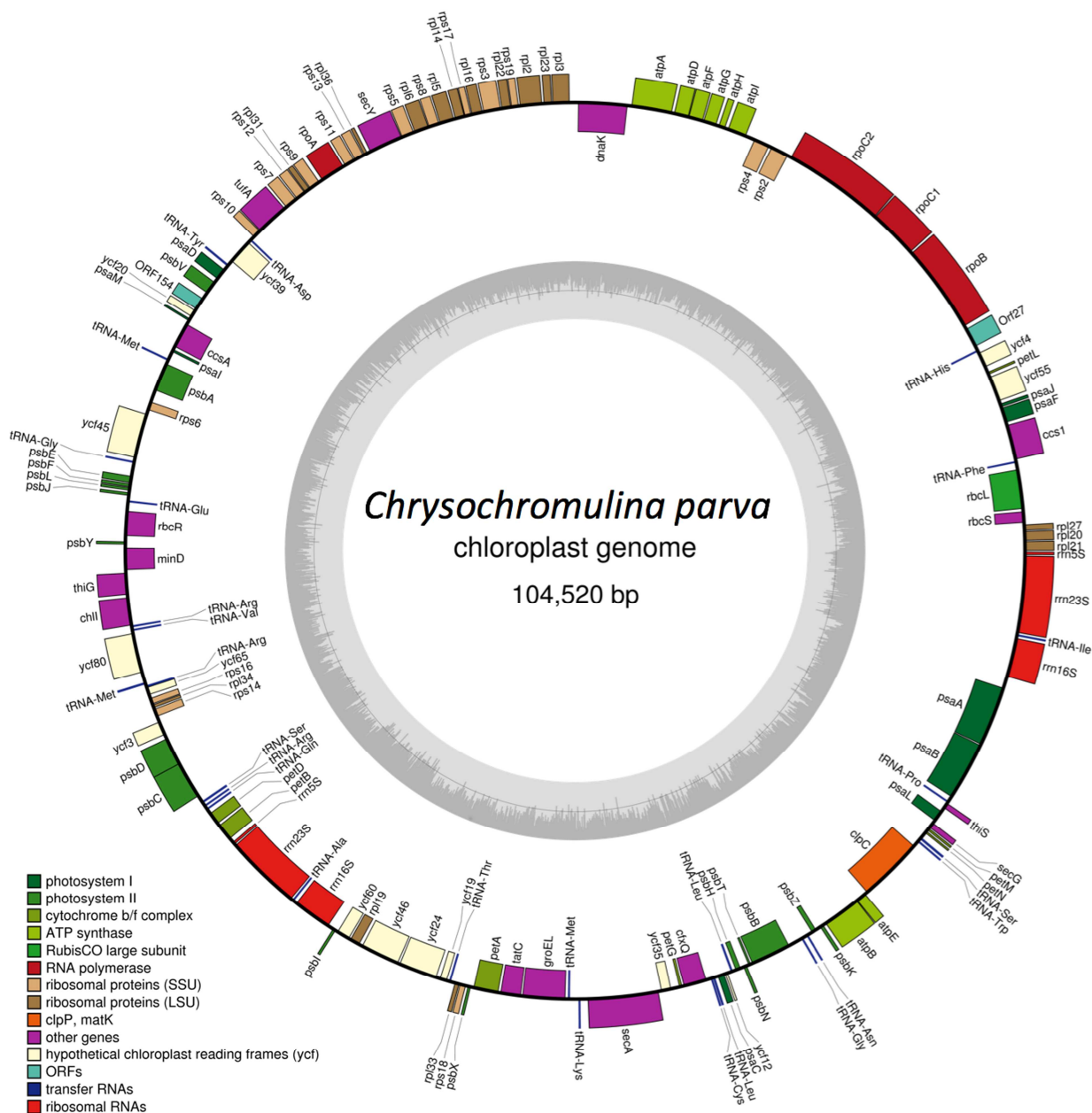


Fig. 5: *Chrysochromulina parva* chloroplast genome: Each cell contains approximately 11 copies of the chloroplast genome.

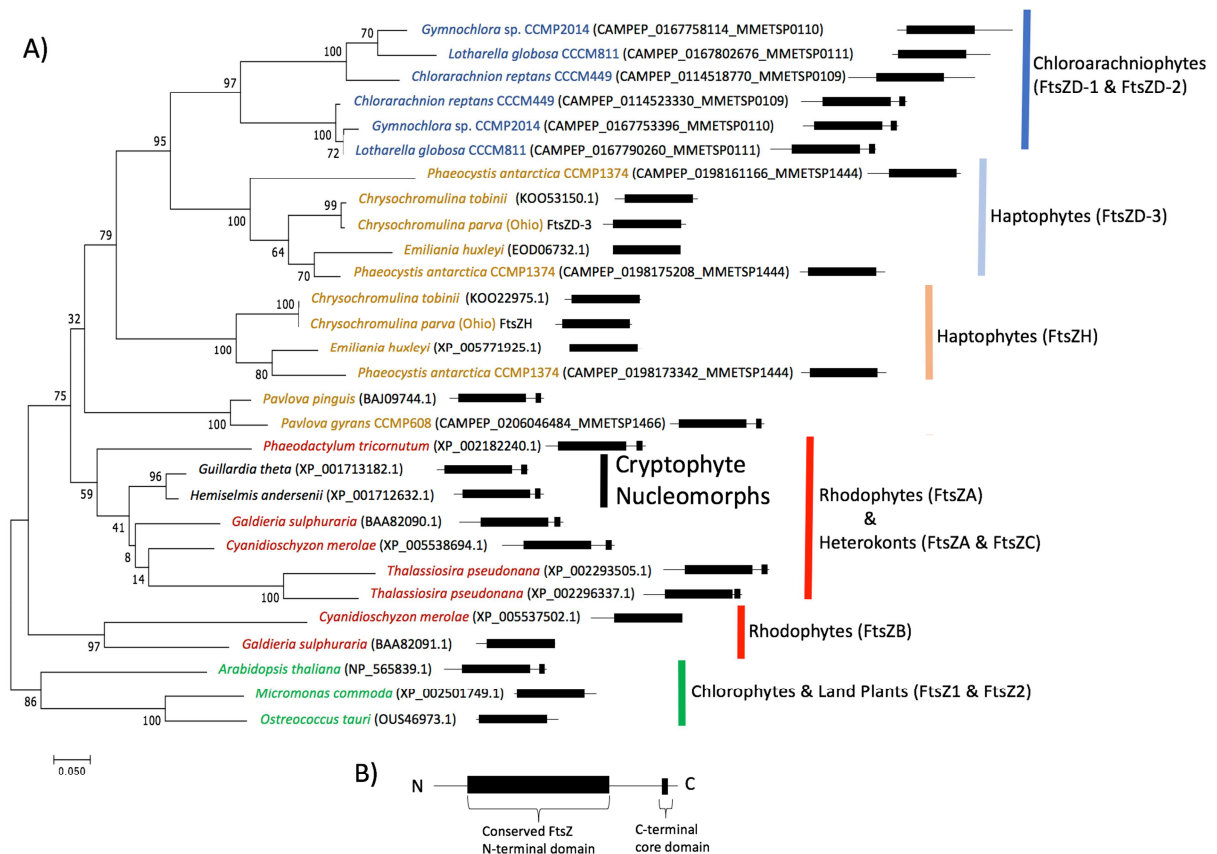


Fig 6. Molecular Phylogenetic analysis of FtsZ: A) Evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the JTT matrix-based model [80]. The tree with the highest log likelihood (-7050.62) is shown. The percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches. Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying Neighbor-Join and BioNJ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using a JTT model, and then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. All positions with less than 95% site coverage were eliminated (fewer than 5% alignment gaps, missing data, and ambiguous bases were allowed at any position). There were a total of 289 positions in the final dataset. Analyses were conducted in MEGA7 [81]. B) An approximately 300 amino acid FtsZ domain is highly conserved amongst the FtsZ protein sequences compared in this analysis. Outside of that 300 bp region however, the N and C termini are highly variable and approximate schematics representing the size of the variable regions at

each termini and the presence or absence of a C-terminal core domain as described by Miyagishima et al. 2004 [82] are displayed next to each species within the tree.

2.4 Chrysochromulina/bacterial biome identities

Algal-bacterial biome interdependence has long been recognized. It was of interest to determine if the bacteria associated with *C. parva* and *C. tobinii* isolates (which have different fresh water origins, namely a lake in Colorado and a river in Ohio respectively) associate with similar bacterial taxa. Notably, data show that the most highly represented species within the bacterial biomes of these two algae have similarities (Table 4). The bacterial biome of the bacterized *C. tobinii* culture (P3) consists of nine bacterial species. Eight of these bacterial cohorts have now been isolated, individually cultured, and identified both by 16S rRNA PCR and their full genomes sequenced [32]. As seen in metatranscriptomic data [83] collected for the *C. tobinii* P3 culture, the two bacterial taxa with the highest levels of detectible transcription were *Acidovorax* sp. RAC01 and *Hydrogenophaga* sp. RAC07 - both within Comamonadaceae. All six species of highly represented bacteria identified in the *C. parva* biome are within the Comamonadaceae family. These data certainly suggest that fresh water *Chrysochromulina* might selectively associate with certain metabolic bacterial partners, but also have novel consorts.

Table 4: Bacterial biome associated with two fresh water *Chrysochromulina* isolates.

Algal Isolate	Isolate genome or metagenome sequencing bacterial ID	<u>Proteobacteria</u> : Class; Order; Family
<i>Chrysochromulina tobinii</i> (P5) (cleaned culture)	<i>Sphingomonas</i> sp.	<i>Alphaproteobacteria</i> ; <i>Sphingomonadales</i> ; <i>Sphingomonadaceae</i>
<i>Chrysochromulina tobinii</i> (P3)	<i>Acidovorax</i> sp. RAC01 <i>Hydrogenophaga</i> sp. RAC07	<i>Betaproteobacteria</i> ; <i>Burkholderiales</i> ; <i>Comamonadaceae</i>
	<i>Agrobacterium</i> sp. RAC06 <i>Sinorhizobium</i> sp. RAC02	<i>Alphaproteobacteria</i> ; <i>Rhizobiales</i> ; <i>Rhizobiaceae</i>
	<i>Blastomonas</i> sp. RAC04 <i>Sphingobium</i> sp. RAC03	<i>Alphaproteobacteria</i> ; <i>Sphingomonadales</i> ; <i>Sphingomonadaceae</i>
	<i>Bosea</i> sp. RAC05	<i>Alphaproteobacteria</i> ; <i>Rhizobiales</i> ; <i>Bradyrhizobiaceae</i>
	<i>Methyloversatilis</i> sp. RAC08	<i>Betaproteobacteria</i> ; <i>Nitrosomonadales</i> ; <i>Sterolibacteriaceae</i>
	<i>Chrysochromulina parva</i>	<i>Acidovorax</i> sp. <i>Hydrogenophaga</i> sp. <i>Delftia</i> sp. <i>Alicyclophilus</i> sp. <i>Ramlibacter</i> sp. <i>Variovorax</i> sp.

2.4.3 Phylogeny:

SNP variation was assessed between *C. parva* and *C. tobinii*, as well as between these two isolates and the fresh water Japanese isolate *Chrysochromulina* strain NIES-562. As shown in Table 5, the mitochondrial genes *cox1* and *nad5* differ extensively (38 and 26 SNPs, respectively) between *C. parva* and *C. tobinii*. Interestingly, *C. parva* and *Chrysochromulina* NIES-562 are quite similar, with only 3 (*cox1*) and 2 (*nad5*) differences between them. SNPs present in 18S and 28S rRNA sequences again show greater identity between the *C. parva* and the Japanese isolate. Extending this study, several nuclear-encoded gene sequences were compared between *C. parva* and *C. tobinii* (Table 5; Table S5). SNP differences was variable ranging from marginal nucleotide divergence in sequence fidelity (e.g., RuBisCO activase; 1 SNP in 1245 bp) to highly diverse (e.g, xanthorhodopsin; 25 SNPs and a 3 bp deletion).

Unfortunately, a paucity of non-ribosomal sequences for *Chrysochromulina* species occurs in gene databases. For this reason, the relationship between *C. tobinii*, *C. parva* and *Chrysochromulina* NIES-562 was assessed phylogenetically using the 18S rRNA locus. We note here, a discrepancy between our data (guanine) and the published 18S rRNA CCMP291_{NCMA} sequence (GenBank:AM491019.2) (deletion) at position 181. Our 18S rRNA sequence was used to construct the phylogeny described below. Bayesian and maximum likelihood analyses show *C. parva*, *C. tobinii* and *Chrysochromulina* NIES-562 to be sister species co-occurring within the haptophyte clade B2 (as defined in Edvardsen et. al. 2011 [30]; Fig. 7; Table S6). This sister relationship was also supported by 28S rRNA locus comparison (data not shown). As seen by the branch lengths, *C. parva* and *C. tobinii* demonstrate as much sequence dissimilarity at the 18S rRNA locus as other recognized closely related *Chrysochromulina* species pairs [30] in this clade (e.g., *Chrysochromulina acantha* and *Chrysochromulina thronsenii*). Importantly, this study and that of others have shown that ribosomal genes may be not be the best choice for resolving species identities [61, 62, 84-86]

Table 5: Comparison of SNPs found among three fresh-water *Chrysochromulina* isolates

	<i>C. tobinii</i> vs. <i>C. parva</i>	<i>C. tobinii</i> vs. NIES-562	<i>C. parva</i> vs. NIES-562
Gene			
<i>nad5</i>	26 (794)	25 (794)	2 (794)
<i>cox1</i>	38 (697)	37 (697)	3 (697)
<i>rbcL</i>	0 (1008)	2 (1008)	2 (1008)
18S rRNA	3 (1435)	3 (1435) and 1 deletion/insertion	0 (1435)
28S rRNA	2 (736) and a single 1bp deletion/insertion	2 (736) and a 1bp deletion/insertion	0 (736)
Xanthorhodopsin (KOO22837.1)	25 (789) and a 3bp deletion/insertion	N.A.	N.A.
NADPH:adrenodoxin oxidoreductase KOO53708.1	10 (1788)	N.A.	N.A.
Erythromycin esterase (KOO24049.1)	3 (1572)	N.A.	N.A.
Lycopene beta cyclase (KOO22265.1)	14 (1746)	N.A.	N.A.
RuBisCO activase (nuclear genome) (KOO53179.1)	1 (1245)	N.A.	N.A.
Methionine synthase reductase (KOO27933.1)	3 (960)	N.A.	N.A.

SNP identification in various genes between *Chrysochromulina tobinii*, *Chrysochromulina parva* and NIES-562 [# of SNPs (total alignment length)]. Nuclear genome sequence for NIES-562 is not available (N.A.) for comparisons between NIES-562 and the other two *Chrysochromulina* species.

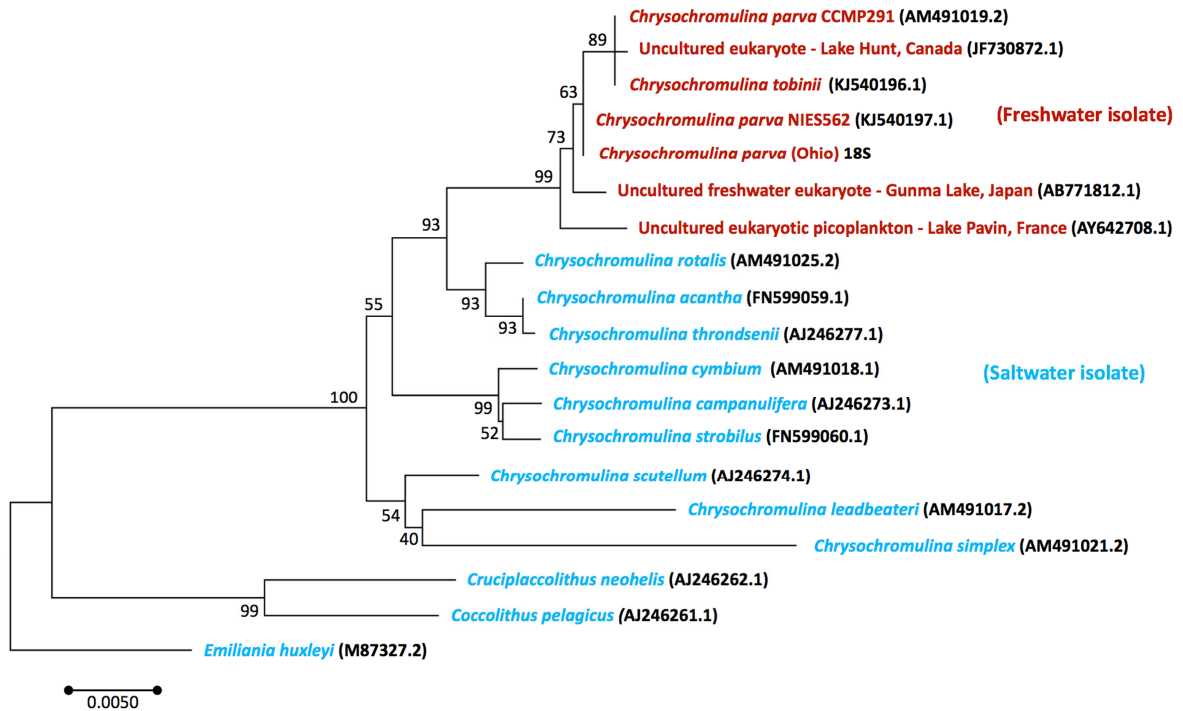


Fig. 7: Neighbor-joining tree of B2-clade Prymnesiophytes*: Result is based on a 1148 bp alignment of 18S rRNA sequences. *Cruciplacolithus neohelis*, *Coccolithus pelagicus* ssp. braarudii and *Emiliana huxleyi* were used as outgroups. The evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method [87]. The optimal tree with the sum of branch length = 0.14533780 is shown. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (500 replicates) are shown next to the branches [88]. The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Maximum Composite Likelihood method [89] and are in the units of the number of base substitutions per site. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA7 [81]. Additional details of each named species used in this tree are available in Supplementary Table S6.

*as defined in Edvardsen et. al 2011 [30]

2.5 Taxonomy and Nomenclature:

Chrysochromulina parva Lackey, collected from Big Walnut Creek, Ohio, USA, was initially described as a naked organism that had three flagella [26]. Electron microscopic studies of similar cells revealed that the third flagellum was actually newly recognized structure - the haptonema [27].

Subsequently, three additional species were described, i.e., *C. breviturrita* [90], *C. laurentiana* [91], and *C. inornamenta* [92]. There were also two other organisms that were identified as *C. parva* [28, 93]. All these organisms were embellished with scales. Concurrently, many marine dwelling *Chrysochromulina* species were also described (see Chretiennot-Dinet et al., 2014 for overview [25]), and they all had scale coverings. Further studies ultimately lead to a subdivision of the genus into additional genera [30].

Until our study, no one had returned to Big Walnut Creek, the type locality for the type species. Our *C. parva* isolate (strain UW 1161) was found at the type locality during the same month that Lackey (1939) collected the alga [26]. Electron microscopic analysis of this isolate shows that it has no scales (Figs 1, 2). We also document that two additional freshwater species, *C. tobirii* sp. nov., sourced from a Colorado lake (USA), and an unnamed *Chrysochromulina* sp. obtained from the Fox River, Illinois (USA) also lack scales [29]. Given these observations, we conclude that the type species of *Chrysochromulina* lacks scales and that at least one additional scale-less species exists.

In a review of the North American haptophytes, Nicholls [94] transferred three of the scaled freshwater species to the genus *Prymnesium* [*P. breviturrita* (Nicholls) Nicholls; *P. laurentianum* (Kling) Nicholls; *P. inornamenta* (Wujek & Gardiner) Nicholls]. Unfortunately, no molecular

data exist for these species. We posit that the scaly organisms described by Parke et al. [28] as well as Thompson and Halicki [93] were misidentified and belonged to one or two new, undescribed species that remain unnamed.

Substantial diversity exists among these small flagellates and we conclude that strain UW 1161 from Big Walnut Creek is the best representative for *C. parva* because it was collected at the type locality. We also find that strain NIES-562, based upon molecular data (this paper), is a second representative of *C. parva*. Finally, we conclude that strain CCMP291 is an undescribed species. Morphological comparisons of these three freshwater, naked *Chrysochromulina* isolates will be presented elsewhere [29].

Chrysochromulina parva is the type species for this large genus, and the type material for *C. parva* anchors not only this species but higher ranks (e.g., genus, family names). Unfortunately, Lackey (30) did not designate a holotype, and no subsequent scientist has established a lectotype. Therefore, we establish type material as follows:

Chrysochromulina parva Lackey 1939: **Lectotype here designated: Fig. 23**, page 135, in Lackey, *Lloydia* 2 (1939).

Because the lectotype is an illustration, no molecular data can be retrieved, and therefore we conclude that the lectotype is ambiguous. As a consequence, we establish an epitype as follows: *Chrysochromulina parva* Lackey 1939: **Epitype here designated:** cells from strain UW 1161 were preserved as a TEM block and deposited in the New York Botanical Garden herbarium (NY), New York City, NY USA as **No. _____**. Strain UW 1161 was established using cells collected from the type locality (Big Walnut Creek, Shadeville, OH USA (39° 49' 59.58" N, 82° 59' 33.64" W)).

Strain UW 1161 is available from the Department of Biology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA USA.

Our examination of strain CCMP291 shows that it is genetically distinct from strain UW 1161, which was used to establish the *C. parva* epitype. Because strain CCMP291 also lacks scales, it can be distinguished from all species of *Chrysochromulina* that are encased with scales. We therefore describe this organism as a new species as follows:

***Chrysochromulina tobinii* sp. nov. Cattolico**

Diagnosis: single celled flagellate; cell body 4-7 μm wide, 5-8 μm long; two flagella, each approx. 10 μm long; haptonema up to 10x the cell length long; cells naked, without scales; two chloroplasts, each with a pyrenoid; no eyespot; cysts or resistant stage unknown; genome NCBI JWZX000000000 with distinctive DNA sequences.

Holotype designated here: cells from strain CCMP291 were preserved as a TEM block and deposited in the New York Botanical Garden herbarium (NY) as **No.** _____.

Isotype designated here:

cells from strain CCMP291 were preserved as a TEM block and deposited in the New York Botanical Garden herbarium (NY) as **No.** _____.

Etymology: the name honors Tobin Cattolico.

Type locality: unspecified lake, Colorado USA

Authentic culture: Strain CCMP291 is available from the Provasoli-Guillard National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota, East Boothbay, Maine, 04544 USA.

Highlights:

- 1.) Genetic assessment supports revisiting the Diagnosis for the *Chrysochromulina* clade.
- 2.) *Chrysochromulina* isolates often show extensive morphological identity but they differ genetically; thus, cryptic species complexes are expected in this taxon.
- 3.) Fresh water *Chrysochromulina* isolates appear to have all the genes that insure sexual reproductive capability.
- 4.) The genomic assessment of two *Chrysochromulina* isolates provides a primary data base for probing the functional specialization and evolutionary process among haptophytes as well as among major algal lineages.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Algal Sourcing and Culturing Conditions:

Chrysochromulina tobinii (CCMP291) was acquired from the NCMA (National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota - East Boothbay, Maine) by our laboratory in 2006. This bacterized isolate was designated as P3. To remove associated bacteria, cells from the P3 cultures were subject to re-iterative flow cytometry in 2009 using BODIPY 505/515 (4,4-difluoro-1,3,5,7-tetramethyl-4-bora-3a,4a-diaza-s-indacene; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA; see below for staining procedure) as the fluorophore for cell sorting purposes. Cells obtained from reiterative flow cytometric selection (P5.0) were treated in RAC-1 proprietary medium that contained either streptomycin (P5.5) or hygromycin (P5.6). Treatment for these two antibiotics were identical: cells were exposed to a final concentration of 400 µg/mL antibiotic for 18 hours before 5 mL of treated cultures was transferred to 100 mL of RAC-1 medium lacking antibiotic. Cultures P5.5 and P5.6 were periodically tested for bacterial contamination using Luria-Bertani medium [95] made with RAC-1 medium. Determination of single bacterial contaminant was achieved by plating P5 cells on medium containing 0.1% glycerol. To test whether our P3 and P5 laboratory maintained isolates were genetically identical to the parent isolate that had been maintained in the NCMA culture collection, *Chrysochromulina* (CCMP291) was re-ordered from NCMA in 2011. Sequence analyses of nuclear (18S and 28S rRNA), chloroplast (*rbcL*) and mitochondrial (*cox1*, *nad5*) reveal no differences among UW maintained *Chrysochromulina tobinii* P3, P5 isolates and the 2011 acquired *Chrysochromulina* CCMP291 isolate (data not shown).

Chrysochromulina parva (isolate UW 1161) was obtained from a water sample collected on September 24, 2014 at Big Walnut Creek in Shadeville, OH (Latitude 39° 49' 60" N; Longitude 82° 59' 35" W), the type locality for this species. Water samples were overnight shipped to the University of Washington and the cultures kept at 20°C on a 12 hr light:12 hr dark photoperiod at 30 µEm⁻²s⁻¹ light intensity. Subsamples of the culture were gravity filtered through a 100 µm

nylon mesh to minimize the presence of predatory protists. The filtrate containing *Chrysochromulina* was added to RAC-5 proprietary medium. Once the culture was acclimated to growth chamber conditions, *Chrysochromulina* was further separated from contaminating protists via fluorescence-activated cell sorting (April, 2015) at the Institute for Systems Biology (Seattle, WA).

Chrysochromulina cultures were maintained in 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 100 mL of RAC-5 medium plugged with silicone sponge stoppers (Bellco Glass, Vineland, NJ) and capped with a sterilizer bag (Propper Manufacturing, Long Island City, NY). Alternatively, large volume experimental cultures were maintained in 1.0 L medium that was contained in a 2.8 L large-mouth Fernbach flask. These flasks were plugged with hand-rolled, #50 cheese cloth-covered cotton stoppers and covered with a #2 size Kraft bag (Paper Mart, Orange, CA). All cultures were maintained at 20°C on a 12 hour light:12 hour dark photoperiod under 100 $\mu\text{Em}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity using full spectrum T12 fluorescent light bulbs (Philips Electronics, Stamford, CT). No CO₂ was provided and cultures were not agitated. Unless indicated, cultures were sampled at hour ~6 in the light portion of the 12 hr light:12 hr dark photoperiod for assessing cell counts and for recovering aliquots for GC/MS fatty acid analysis.

3.2 Electron microscopy:

3.2.1 Scanning electron microscopy:

Five hundred microliters of concentrated *C. parva* cell culture was mixed with an equal volume of 2.0% glutaraldehyde in 0.2 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2) at room temperature, then 250 μl of 4.0% osmium tetroxide was immediately added. The cells were fixed 15 minutes on ice, then filtered onto a 1.0 μm Nucleopore membrane (Nucleopore Corp., Pleasanton, CA), rinsed with 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer, then dehydrated to 100% alcohol using (50, 70, 95, 100%). Dehydrated cells on filters were critical point dried (Samdri 790 critical point dryer, Tousimis

Research Corporation Rockville, MD), coated with 6 nm platinum (ES150T coater, Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA) and viewed in a Quanta 450 FESEM (FEI, Hillsboro, OR).

3.2.2 Transmission electron microscopy:

Chrysochromulina parva cell pellets were fixed for 1 hour in 2.0% glutaraldehyde in 0.15 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2) at room temperature, then rinsed three times in buffer alone followed by 1.0% osmium tetroxide treatment in 0.15 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2) for 1 hour on ice. Pellets were dehydrated in a graded alcohol series (50, 70, 95, 100%), rinsed three times in 100% dry acetone, infiltrated in a graded acetone-EMBed812 series (33, 66, 100%), embedded in 100% EMBed812 (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA), and polymerized at 60°C. Silver sections were cut with a Diatome diamond knife (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA), stained with aqueous 2.0% uranyl acetate followed by lead citrate [96], and viewed stained and unstained on a Tecnai 12 TEM (FEI, Hillsboro, OR). Images were recorded on an XR-41S 2k digital camera (Advanced Microscopy Techniques Corp., Woburn, MA).

3.2.3 Light microscopy:

Chrysochromulina parva was observed on a Leica DMRBE light microscope (Leica Microsystems Inc., Buffalo Grove, IL) and images were recorded with a Lumenera Lt425 color camera using LuCam software (Lumenera Corp., Ottawa, Ontario, Canada).

3.3 Cell counts:

Because of the minute size of *Chrysochromulina*, special care was taken in assessing culture density by using a BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). The *Chrysochromulina* cells were counted and positively identified against background noise by exciting the samples with a 488 nm laser and detecting chlorophyll autofluorescence with the FL3 (670nm LP) and FL4 (675/25 nm) channel detectors and then isolating the cellular chlorophyll

signal from non-autofluorescent culture debris. Total overlap (by particle count) between gated cell populations and background was less than 1.0%. Expected count error was less than 1.0%.

3.4 Whole genome sequencing, assembly and gene annotation:

The *Chrysochromulina parva* culture was grown to a concentration of approximately 2×10^6 cells/mL before harvest for DNA isolation. 800 mL of culture were pelleted in 500 mL Nalgene bottles by centrifugation at $8663 \times g$ at 4°C for 20 min. The cell pellets were flash frozen and stored at -80°C . High quality genomic DNA was prepared using the Qiagen Genomic-tip protocol (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) with modifications [85] and quantified using the Invitrogen Qubit Fluorometer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). DNA isolations were stored in the -80°C freezer before being sent to Los Alamos National Laboratories on dry ice for sequencing. The *C. parva* genome was sequenced using a combination of shotgun Illumina libraries for 301 bp paired end reads on the MiSeq (totaling ~28 million reads) and 151 bp reads on the NexSeq platform (totaling ~75 million reads). Genome assembly was performed by using IDBA_UD version 1.1.1 [97] on the EDGE platform [98]. Minimum and maximum kmer length were set to 31 and 121, respectively along with step size of 20 and a minimum assembled contig size of 200 bp. The resulting metagenome (*C. parva* + associated bacteria) assembly was approximately 81 million bp contained in 39,594 contigs. To isolate bacterial sequences from *C. parva* sequences, all assembled contigs were queried against the *C. tobinii* genome using BLASTN (version 2.2.28) with default settings. All contigs with significant hits to the *C. tobinii* reference (E-value $< .00001$) were classified as *C. parva* contigs. Additionally, the remaining “Non-*C. parva*” contigs were queried against the NCBI “nt” database to identify top hit homology. From this analysis, contigs with top hits identified from other algal species (*Emiliania huxleyi*, *Aureococcus anophagefferens*, *Chlorella variabilis* and *Micromonas* sp.) were also classified as *C. parva* contigs. A modified MAKER2 pipeline was used to annotate genes and assign functional annotations to genes [99].

3.5 Bacterial Isolation and bacterial cohort classification:

Bacterial cohorts from the *C. tobinii* genome were previously described in Fixen et al [32] via physical isolation methods. To identify the bacterial cohort within the *C. parva* culture, contig assemblies all “Non-*C. parva*” contigs (as described above) were sorted and enumerated by top blast hit. Highly represented organisms (BLASTN Top hit organism names with > 750,000 bp of total alignment length) were listed in Table 4 as the bacterial cohort of *C. parva*.

3.6 Phylogenetic comparison:

Chrysochromulina isolates were grown in 1.0 L cultures in RAC-1 medium. 800 mL of stationary phase culture were harvested for DNA isolation as described above. *Chrysochromulina parva* NIES-562, DNA was extracted from a lyophilized cell pellet obtained from the National Institute for Environmental Studies (Tsukuba, Japan) using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). Gene sequences from *C. parva* strains UW 1161 and NIES-562 and *C. tobinii* were compared at five loci: 18S rRNA, 28S rRNA, *rbcL*, *cox1*, and *nad5*. PCR and internal sequencing primers (18S rRNA only) and annealing temperatures used in PCR reactions are shown in Supplementary Table S5. The *nad5* and 28S rRNA PCR primers were designed using Primer3 [100] based on an alignment of *Emiliana huxleyi*, *Phaeocystis globosa*, and other *Chrysochromulina* species sequences that were obtained from GenBank. Recovered DNA was diluted to 3 – 6 ng/μL and PCR was performed using Thermo Scientific Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) with the following reaction mixture: 1x Phusion HF buffer, 200 μM dNTP, 0.5 μM forward and reverse primers, 2 μL template DNA, and 0.02 U/μL Phusion DNA polymerase in 25 μL reactions. The thermal cycling conditions used for PCR reactions were 98°C for 30 s initial denaturation followed by 40 cycles of 98°C for 10 s denaturation, X°C (See Supplementary Table S5) for 20 s annealing, then 72°C for 1 min extension, followed by a final 72°C for 5 min extension. PCR products were cleaned using the

Qiagen QIAQuick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and sequenced using 1/8th reactions of BDT v3.1 (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). Samples were precipitated with 95% and 70% ethanol, dried at room temperature, resuspended in 10 µL of Hi-Di formamide (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA), and run on an ABI3130xl Sequencer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA).

Sequence analysis was performed using MacVector 11.1.2 (MacVector, Cary, NC). Sequences were trimmed for quality and aligned by ClustalX. Nucleotide variations among *C. parva* strains UW 1161 and *C. tobinii* were deduced from the sequence alignment of each locus.

4.1 List of Abbreviations:

NCMA – Provasoli-Guillard National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota

NIES – National Institute for Environmental Studies

SEM – Scanning electron microscopy

TEM – Transmission electron microscopy

BODIPY 505/515 – 4,4-Difluoro-1,3,5,7-Tetramethyl-4-Bora-3a,4a-Diaza-s-Indacene

5.1 Competing Interests:

There are no competing interests associated with the publication of this manuscript.

6.1 Authors Contributions:

RAC conceived, designed, and coordinated the study. BTH accomplished whole genome sequencing, and genome data analysis and mining. SRS supervised the whole genome sequencing and assembly and performed genome comparative analyses. CRD assisted in generating a unialgal *Chrysochromulina parva* culture, performed DNA isolation as well as PCR, sequencing, and sequence analysis. RAA field collected the *Chrysochromulina parva* isolate. SBB was responsible for all SEM and TEM analyses. RAC and BTH wrote the manuscript. All authors

read and approved the final manuscript.

7.1 Acknowledgements:

We wish to thank Dr. Masanobu Kawachi from NIES who graciously facilitated our acquisition of the *Chrysochromulina parva* NIES-562 cell pellet and Dr. Anne Thompson at the Institute for Systems Biology Seattle, for conducting the flow cytometric sorting of *Chrysochromulina parva* that facilitated the generation of a unialgal culture. We would also like to acknowledge Johnathan Patterson and William Yost for their assistance in collection the bacterial cohort lipid analysis data. We wish to thank Heather Hunsperger for assistance in planning the 18S rRNA phylogenetic analysis. Funding for BH was provided by the Interdisciplinary Training in Genomic Sciences NHGRI T32-HG00035. Funding for SS was provided through award NL0029949 from the DOE Bioenergy Technologies Office. The authors acknowledge the use of equipment at the San Diego State University Electron Microscopy Facility acquired by NSF instrumentation grants DBI-0959908 (SEM) and DBI-030829 (TEM) to SB. This research was funded by the US Department of Energy under contract DE-EE0003046 awarded to the National Alliance for Advanced Biofuels and Bioproducts to RAC and SS, and NOAA NA070AR4170007 to RAC. RAC dedicates this manuscript to MAC – Navy Seal Team 5 and Vietnam vet on the occasion of his 73rd birthday.

8.1 Supplementary Data:

Supplementary Table S1: Core genes associated with meiosis and DNA repair in eukaryotic cells

	<i>Chrysochromulina tobinii</i>	<i>Chrysochromulina parva</i> (Ohio)	<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i> CCMP1516	<i>Chondrus crispus</i>	<i>Ectocarpus siliculosus</i>	<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	<i>Volvox carteri</i>	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	
Core meiotic genes									Function
<i>spo11</i>	+ ($2e^{-33}$)	+ ($2e^{-33}$)	+ ($5e^{-18}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Transesterase
<i>hop1</i>	+ ($3e^{-21}$)	+ ($2e^{-20}$)	+ ($3e^{-7}$)	-	+	+	+	+	DNA DSB binding
<i>hop2</i>	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	Associated with MND1, homology searching
<i>mnd1</i>	+ ($2e^{-12}$)	+ ($3e^{-12}$)	+ ($1e^{-13}$)	+	+	+	+	+	DNA heteroduplex formation
<i>rec8</i>	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	Sister chromatid binding
<i>dmc1</i>	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	Inter-homolog recombination
<i>rad51</i>	+ ($1e^{-118}$)	+ ($2e^{-118}$)	+ ($6e^{-58}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Homologous DNA pairing
<i>msh4</i>	+ ($8e^{-22}$)	+ ($4e^{-25}$)	+ ($5e^{-40}$)	+	+	+	-	+	Holliday junction resolution w/ MSH5
<i>msh5</i>	+ ($6e^{-36}$)	+ ($2e^{-36}$)	+ ($6e^{-32}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Holliday junction resolution w/ MSH4
<i>mer3</i>	+ ($2e^{-122}$)	+ ($6e^{-123}$)	+ ($2e^{-109}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Holliday junction resolution
DNA repair and recombination genes									
<i>mre11</i>	+ ($2e^{-99}$)	+ ($3e^{-90}$)	+ ($2e^{-32}$)	+	+	+	+	+	dsDNA exonuclease/ssDNA endonuclease
<i>rad50</i>	+ ($2e^{-73}$)	+ ($1e^{-74}$)	+ ($2e^{-47}$)	+	+	+	+	+	DNA binding, holds broken DNA ends
<i>rad1</i>	+ ($6e^{-118}$)	+ ($7e^{-118}$)	+ ($1e^{-23}$)	+	+	+	+	+	5'-3' endonuclease for nucleotide excision repair
<i>rad52</i>	-	+ ($7e^{-19}$)	+ ($4e^{-07}$)	-	+	-	-	+	DSB repair by homologous recombination
<i>msh2</i>	+ ($4e^{-157}$)	+ ($1e^{-161}$)	+ ($4e^{-65}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Binds base-base mismatches with MSH6
<i>msh6</i>	+ ($9e^{-161}$)	+ ($9e^{-161}$)	+ ($2e^{-59}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Binds base-base mismatches with MSH2
<i>mlh1</i>	+ ($4e^{-87}$)	+ ($6e^{-87}$)	+ ($1e^{-41}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Di- and tri-nucleotide mismatch repair
<i>mlh2</i>	+ ($7e^{-11}$)	+ ($7e^{-11}$)	+ ($2e^{-14}$)	+	+	-	+	+	Removal of cisplatin adducts
<i>mlh3</i>	+ ($2e^{-26}$)	+ ($9e^{-25}$)	+ ($2e^{-19}$)	-	+	+	+	+	Frameshift repair
<i>pms1</i>	+ ($3e^{-09}$)	+ ($5e^{-09}$)	+ ($4e^{-7}$)	+	+	-	-	+	DNA mismatch repair
<i>smc1</i>	+ ($2e^{-56}$)	+ ($1e^{-56}$)	+ ($2e^{-32}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Sister chromatid cohesion subunit w/ SMC3
<i>smc2</i>	+ ($3e^{-92}$)	+ ($1e^{-91}$)	+ ($5e^{-74}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Chromosome assembly and segregation
<i>smc3</i>	+ ($1e^{-59}$)	+ ($1e^{-59}$)	+ ($1e^{-14}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Sister chromatid cohesion subunit w/ SMC1
<i>smc4</i>	+ ($5e^{-69}$)	+ ($7e^{-69}$)	+ ($2e^{-66}$)	+	+	+	+	+	Chromosome assembly and segregation

<i>smc5</i>	+ (1e ⁻³⁴)	+ (1e ⁻³⁴)	+ (4e ⁻⁴⁰)	+	+	+	+	+	DNA repair
<i>smc6</i>	+ (7e ⁻³⁹)	+ (8e ⁻³⁹)	+ (6e ⁻²⁵)	+	+	+	+	+	Post replication DNA repair w/ SMC5
<i>rad21</i>	+ (1e ⁻¹⁷)	+ (2e ⁻¹⁷)	+ (4e ⁻²⁰)	-	+	-	-	+	Sister chromatid binding
<i>scc3</i>	+ (2e ⁻⁶)	+ (3e ⁻¹¹)	+ (8e ⁻³⁰)	+	+	+	+	+	Sister chromatid binding
<i>pds5</i>	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	Sister chromatid binding in late prophase

Core meiotic gene and DNA repair and recombination gene survey in *Chrysochromulina tobinii*,

Chrysochromulina parva and other haptophytes and eukaryotes. Genes were selected based on the meiotic gene survey of *Trichomonas vaginalis* [38]. The “+/-” represents presence or absence of an orthologous gene on the basis of TBLASTN output of less than 1e⁻⁶ E-value. Numbers under the “+” represent the E-value of the orthologous hit.

* The *Emiliana huxleyi* DMC1 gene (NCBI GI# 551629259) was used as the representative sequence for *dmc1* query.

Supplementary Table S2. Meiotic gene identification

Gene	Full name (GenBank)	GI #	Organism
<i>spo11</i>	Meiotic recombination protein	30696943	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>hop1</i>	Essential protein for meiotic synapsis	37999050	<i>Oryza sativa Japonica Group</i>
<i>hop2</i>	Homologous-pairing protein 2	15222250	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>mnd1</i>	Meiotic nuclear division protein 1-like protein	30688234	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>rec8</i>	REC8	289472321	<i>Daphnia pulex</i>
<i>dmc1</i>	DMC1 DNA recombinase	551629259	<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i>
<i>rad51</i>	DNA repair protein RAD51 homolog 1	585770	<i>Gallus gallus</i>
<i>msh4</i>	MutS protein homolog 4 MSH4	308153466	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>
<i>msh5</i>	Unnamed protein product	9294568	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>mer3</i>	Meiotic recombination protein	75320515	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>mre11</i>	DNA repair and meiosis protein	9759499	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>rad50</i>	DNA repair protein	57013013	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>rad1</i>	Repair endonuclease	22655254	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>rad52</i>	RAD52	33667840	<i>Giardia intestinalis</i>
<i>msh2</i>	DNA mismatch repair protein	3914056	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>msh6</i>	DNA mismatch repair protein	15235223	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>mlh1</i>	Putative MLH1	13430732	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>mlh2</i>	Mlh2	33667828	<i>Giardia intestinalis</i>
<i>mlh3</i>	Putative protein MLH3	7270503	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>pms1</i>	Pms1	33667830	<i>Giardia intestinalis</i>
<i>smc1</i>	Structural maintenance of chromosomes (SMC)-like protein	7258371	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>smc2</i>	Structural maintenance of	15241831	<i>Arabidopsis</i>

	chromosomes protein		<i>thaliana</i>
<i>smc3</i>	SMC3 protein cohesion	23476966	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>smc4</i>	SMC4 protein	21262152	<i>Oryza sativa</i>
<i>smc5</i>	SMC5 protein	27227807	<i>Oryza sativa</i>
<i>smc6</i>	SMC6 protein	27227809	<i>Oryza sativa</i>
<i>rad21</i>	Sister chromatid cohesion 1 protein 3	15231707	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>scc3</i>	Putative sister-chromatid cohesion protein	20258987	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>
<i>pds5</i>	ARM repeat superfamily protein	30699273	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>


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Chysochromulina_parva      MMFPVTAGQFDLVYNALSFTTLASMMASTIFFWIRIGSVNEKYKSAMTITGLVTFIAAYHY
Chysochromulina_tobinii    MMFPVTAGQFDLVYNALSFTTLASMMASTIFFWIRMGSVSEKYKSAMTITGLVTFIAAYHY
Sphingobium_sp._RAC03      -MDMITAGQYLLVYNALFSTTFASMAAATLFFWFGRSQVGPAYKTALTITGLVTAIAAYHY
* :****: ****:*:*:* *:*:*: ..*  **:*:***** *****

Chysochromulina_parva      IRIFNSWNESYHYPEAADGVIQDPVITGQPFNDAYRYMDWMLTVPLLMIEIIFVMGLSPE
Chysochromulina_tobinii    IRIFNSWNESYHYPEAADGVVQDPVITGQPFNDAYRYMDWMLTVPLLMIEIIFVMGLSPE
Sphingobium_sp._RAC03      YRIFESWSEAYALD---GVI---TASGVAFNDAYRYVDWLLTVPLLLIELVLMRLSQS
***:*:*:* : ** : .:* *****:*:*****:*:*** ** .

Chysochromulina_parva      ETASKATSLGVAAGLMIVLGYPGELIEGDLNVRMMWWTLAMIPFLYVVHTLLIGLQDKI
Chysochromulina_tobinii    ETAAKATSLGVAAGLMIVLGYPGELIEGDLNVRMMWWTLAMIPFLYVVHTLLIGLQGAI
Sphingobium_sp._RAC03      ATVSTSVRLGSAALMIILGYPGEIADN--NSTRALWGTLSSIPFLYIVWELFKLGDAL
*:.:. ** **.*:*:*****: : ..* :* ** : *****:* *:* ** . *

Chysochromulina_parva      KAEKNEEVKQKLNMCWATVISWCTYPIVYVFPMLGGLDGPASAVVAIQLYCVSDIISKCG
Chysochromulina_tobinii    KEEKNEEVAKKLNMCWATVVSWCTYPIVYVFPMLGGLDGPASAVVAIQLYCVSDIISKCG
Sphingobium_sp._RAC03      ERQPES-ARGLIKQARLLTFASWGFYPIVYMIPTNLGGAVETGVQIGYTIADLIKAG
: : . . : : . * . * *****:* * * . . .:*:* :*:*:*. *

Chysochromulina_parva      VGFLIYNITIAKSN-EGYTOVH-----
Chysochromulina_tobinii    VGFLIYNITIAKSNPEGYAQVH-----
Sphingobium_sp._RAC03      VGILVYMIAVRKSAAEYGEPEKPATVTAVG
***:* * *:* * * :

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Supplementary Fig. S1: Similarity between the bacteria *Sphingobium* sp. RAC03,

Chrysochromulina tobinii and *Chrysochromulina parva* xanthorhodopsin genes. *C. parva*

numbering (38): Asp99 (proton acceptor), Leu107 (green spectral tuning), Glu110 (proton donor), Lys238 (retinal binding).

Supplementary Table S3: Mitochondrial gene compliment and SNPs between *Chrysochromulina parva* and *Chrysochromulina tobinii*

Gene (<i>C. parva</i>)	SNPs	Non-synonymous Mutations	Synonymous Mutations	%Non-synonymous Mutations	gene length (bp)	Non-synonymous changes per kB	dN/dS*
<i>rps8</i>	1	1	0	100%	347	2.88	UD
<i>rps3</i>	21	7	14	33%	785	8.92	0.134
<i>nad5</i>	65	11	54	17%	2030	5.42	0.074
<i>nad2</i>	74	10	64	14%	1466	6.82	0.045
<i>cob</i>	23	2	21	9%	1145	1.75	0.027
<i>rsps12</i>	2	0	2	0%	461	0.00	0
<i>nad6</i>	32	8	24	25%	644	12.42	0.084
<i>nad1</i>	35	3	32	9%	968	3.10	0.026
<i>rps14</i>	33	16	17	48%	305	52.46	0.241
<i>cox2</i>	54	7	47	13%	740	9.46	0.054
<i>cox1</i>	98	2	96	2%	1514	1.32	0.001
<i>nad4</i>	74	10	64	14%	1430	6.99	0.044
<i>atp9</i>	2	0	2	0%	227	0.00	0
<i>cox3</i>	12	0	12	0%	890	0.00	0
<i>nad3</i>	4	0	4	0%	359	0.00	0
<i>atp8</i>	3	0	3	0%	392	0.00	0
<i>atp4</i>	8	3	5	38%	563	5.33	0.158
<i>atp6</i>	6	2	4	33%	752	2.66	0.139
<i>rpl16</i>	3	3	0	100%	434	6.91	UD
<i>nad4l</i>	4	0	4	0%	302	0.00	0

Gene (<i>C. parva</i>)	SNPs
tRNA-Ser (1)	0
tRNA-Arg (1)	1
tRNA-Leu	4
tRNA-Asp	1
tRNA-Lys	0
tRNA-Cys	2
tRNA-Leu (2)	2
tRNA-Met (1)	0
tRNA-Met (2)	0
tRNA-His	2
tRNA-Thr	1
tRNA-Trp	1
tRNA-Asn	0
tRNA-Phe	0

Gene (<i>C. parva</i>)	SNPs	
tRNA-Gly	0	
tRNA-Pro	0	
tRNA-Ser (2)	0	
tRNA-Gln	0	
tRNA-Tyr	0	
tRNA-Val	1	
tRNA-Met (3)	0	
tRNA-Ile	0	
tRNA-Glu	0	
tRNA-Ala	0	
Gene (<i>C. parva</i>)	SNPs	Insertions
23S rRNA	43	2
16S rRNA	10	2

tRNA-Arg (2)	0
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* Nei and Gojobori assessment method [101], “Undefined” (UD) resulted from a division by 0

Supplementary Table S4: Chloroplast gene compliment and SNP occurrence between *Chrysochromulina parva* and *Chrysochromulina tobinii*

Gene (<i>C. parva</i>)	SNPs	Non-synonymous Mutations	Synonymous Mutations	%Non-synonymous Mutations	gene length (bp)	Non-synonymous changes per kB	dN/dS*
<i>ccs1</i>	2	1	1	50%	1307	0.77	0.27
<i>ycf55</i>	1	0	1	0%	950	0.00	0
<i>trg1</i>	1	1	0	100%	719	1.39	UD
<i>rpoB</i>	3	2	1	67%	3335	0.60	0.57
<i>rpoC1</i>	1	0	1	0%	1847	0.00	0
<i>rps2</i>	1	1	0	100%	689	1.45	UD
<i>atp1</i>	1	0	1	0%	701	0.00	0
<i>atpA</i>	1	0	1	0%	1502	0.00	0
<i>dnaK</i>	1	0	1	0%	1835	0.00	0
<i>rpl16</i>	1	1	0	100%	404	2.48	UD
<i>rps8</i>	1	0	1	0%	398	0.00	0
<i>ycf20</i>	1	0	1	0%	272	0.00	0
<i>ccsA</i>	1	0	1	0%	953	0.00	0
<i>psbA</i>	4	4	0	100%	1082	3.70	UD
<i>rps6</i>	1	1	0	100%	326	3.07	UD
<i>ycf80</i>	1	0	1	0%	1478	0.00	0
<i>ycf3</i>	1	0	1	0%	515	0.00	0
<i>psbC</i>	1	0	1	0%	1415	0.00	0
<i>rpl19</i>	1	0	1	0%	386	0.00	0
<i>ycf46</i>	1	0	1	0%	1481	0.00	0
<i>tatC</i>	1	0	1	0%	773	0.00	0
<i>groEL</i>	5	1	4	20%	1604	0.62	0.08
<i>secA</i>	2	0	2	0%	2618	0.00	0
<i>ycf12</i>	1	0	1	0%	104	0.00	0
<i>psbB</i>	2	0	2	0%	1529	0.00	0
<i>psbZ</i>	1	0	1	0%	188	0.00	0
<i>clpC</i>	2	0	2	0%	2462	0.00	0
<i>psaA</i>	1	0	1	0%	2258	0.00	0
TOTAL	41	12	29				
Genes with no SNPs:							
<i>rpl21, rpl20, rpl27, rbcS, rbcL, psaF, psaJ, petL, ycf4, rpoC2, rps4, atpH, atpG, atpF, atpD, rpl3, rpl23, rpl2, rps19, rpl22, rps3, rps17, rpl14, rpl5, rpl6, rps5, secY, rpl36, rps13, rps11, rpoA, rps9, rpl31, rps12, rps7, tufA, rps10, ycf39, psaD, psbV, ORF154, psaM, psaI, ycf45, psbE, psbF, psbL, psbJ, rbcR, psbY, minD, thiG, chlI, ycf65, rps16, rpl34, rps14, psbD, petD, petB, 5S rRNA, 23S rRNA, 16S rRNA, psbI, ycf60, ycf24, ycf19, rpl33, rps18, psbX, petA, ycf35, petG, cfxQ, psaC, psbH, psbN, psbT, atpB, atpE, petN, petM, secG, psaL, psaB</i>							

* Nei and Gojobori assessment method [101], “Undefined” (UD) resulted from a division by 0

Supplementary data S1: FtsZ alignments in FASTA format. (fasta file download)

Supplementary Table S5: Primers used for sequence comparison and phylogeny of *Chrysochromulina* isolates

Gene	Primer	Sequence	Anneal. Temp. °C	Source
18S rRNA (PCR)	18ScomF1	GCTTGTCTCAAAGATTAAGCCATGC	68	Zhang et. al. 2005 [102]
	18ScomR1	CACCTACGGAAACCTTGTTACGAC		
18S rRNA (Internal Sequencing)	18SISE	CTGACACAGGGAGGTAGTGAC	N/A	Bendiff et. al. 2011 [103]
	18SIAS	TCCTCACTATGTCTGGACCTG		
28S rRNA	Chryso 28SF	AGTCTAGAAAAGGCGCCATCG	66	This publication
	Chryso 28SR	GTCGGCGTTCAAGCTATCC		
<i>psbA</i>	psbAF	ATGACTGCTACTTTAGAAAGACG	59	Yoon et. al. 2002 [104]
	psbAR2	TCATGCATWACTTCCATACCTA		
<i>rbcL</i>	PrL1	CCTTATGCAAAAATGGGTTACTGG	63	Fujiwara et. al. 1994 [105]
	PrL4	CCGATTGTACCACCACCGAA		
<i>cox1</i>	LCO1490	GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG	59	Folmer et. al. 1994 [106]
	HCO2198	TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA		
<i>nad5</i>	Chryso nad5F	TGTTGGTGACGTTGGTTTAG	65	This publication
	Chryso nad5R	GGTACAAAATGCAGCACAAC		

Supplementary Table S6: Species information for 18S rRNA sequences used to construct the phylogeny in Figure 7.

Species	Isolate/ Clone	Collection Site	Isolator, Year	Accession	Sequence Source
<i>Chrysochromulina tobinii</i>	CCMP291	Lake Colorado, USA	P. Kugrens 2009	KJ540196	This publication
<i>Chrysochromulina parva</i>	UW isolate 1161	Big Walnut Creek, Shadeville, Ohio	R. Andersen 2014	PJAB0000000 0	This publication
<i>Chrysochromulina parva</i> Lackey	NIES-562	Lake, Tsukuba, Japan	N. Hatakeyama, 1992	KJ540197	This publication
<i>Chrysochromulina rotalis</i> Eikrem & Throndsen	UIOP16	Skagerrak Strait, Norway	W. Eikrem, 1990	AM491025	Medlin et. al. 2008 [107]
<i>Chrysochromulina acantha</i> Leadbeater & Manton	ALGO HAP 78	Atlantic ocean, France	J. Fresnel, 1994	FN599059	Edwardsen et. al. 2011 [30]
<i>Chrysochromulina thronsenii</i> Eikrem	UIO048 (L12)	Skagerrak, Norway	W. Eikrem, 1989	AJ246277	Edwardsen et. al. 2011 [30]
<i>Chrysochromulina cymbium</i> Leadbeater & Manton	UIOR18	Skagerrak, Norway	W. Eikrem, 1992	AM491018	Medlin et. al. 2008 [107]
<i>Chrysochromulina strobilus</i> Parke & Manton	PCC 43	N. Atlantic	Unavailable	FN599060	Edwardsen et. al. 2011 [30]
<i>Chrysochromulina campanulifera</i> Manton & Leadbeater	UI J10	Skagerrak, Norway	J. Throndsen, 1984	AJ246273	Edwardsen et. al. 2011 [30]
<i>Chrysochromulina scutellum</i> Eikrem & Moestrup	UIO046 (G7)	Skagerrak, Norway	W. Eikrem, 1990	AJ246274	Edwardsen et. al. 2011 [30]
<i>Chrysochromulina simplex</i> Estep, Davis, Hargraves & Sieburth	UIO047 (JomfB)	Oslofjord, Norway	W. Eikrem, 1989	AM491021	Medlin et. al. 2008 [107]

<i>Chrysochromulina leadbeateri</i> Estep, Davis, Hargraves & Sieburth	UIO035 (ERIK)	Lofoten, N. Norway	W. Eikrem, 1991	AM491017	Medlin et. al. 2008 [107]
<i>Cruciplacolithus neohelis</i> (McIntyre & Be) P. Reinhardt	CCMP298	La Jolla, California	K. Lee, 1984	AJ246262	Edvardsen et al. unpub
<i>Coccolithus pelagicus</i> ssp. <i>braarudii</i> (Wallich) Schiller	PLY 182g	English Channel	J.C. Green 1990	AJ246261	Edvardsen et al. unpub
<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i> (Lohmann) Hay & Mohler	PCC 92D	Unavailable	Unavailable	M87327	Bhattacharya et al. unpub

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