Evolution of resilience against heat stress in a red-tide dinoflagellate

Katherine Dougan[1*], Zhi-Luo Deng[2*], Lars Wöhlbrand[3*], Carsten Reuse[4*], Boyke Bunk[5],

Yibi Chen[1], Juliane Hartlich[4], Karsten Hiller[4], Uwe John[6], Jana Kalvelage[3], Johannes

Mansky[4], Meina Neumann-Schaal[5], Jörg Overmann[5], Jörn Petersen[5], Selene Sanchez[4],

Kerstin Schmidt-Hohagen[4], Sarah Shah[1], Cathrin Spröer[5], Helena Sztajer[4], Hui Wang[4],

Debashish Bhattacharya[7], Ralf Rabus[3], Dieter Jahn[4], Cheong Xin Chan[1§#], Irene Wagner-

Döbler[4§#]

[1]The University of Queensland, St Lucia, Brisbane, QLD 4072, Australia

[2]Helmholtz-Center for Infection Research (HZI), Inhoffenstr. 7, 38124 Braunschweig,

Germany

[3]Helmholtz Institute for Functional Marine Biodiversity at the University of Oldenburg

(HIFMB), Ammerländer Heerstraße 231, 26129 Oldenburg, Germany

[4]Braunschweig Center for Systems Biology (BRICS) at the Technical University of

Braunschweig, Rebenring 56, 38106 Braunschweig, Germany

[5]German Culture Collection for Microorganisms and Cell Cultures (DSMZ), Inhoffenstraße

7B, 38124 Braunschweig, Germany

[6]Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research, Am

Handelshafen 12, 27570 Bremerhaven, Germany

[7]Rutgers University, 59 Dudley Road, Foran Hall 102, New Brunswick, New Jersey, 08901

USA

*These authors contributed equally (data acquisition, analysis and interpretation)

§These authors contributed equally (design of the study, integration of all findings)

#corresponding authors: Cheong Xin Chan, The University of Queensland, Brisbane,

Australia, email c.chan1@uq.edu.au and Irene Wagner-Döbler, Technical University of

Braunschweig, Germany, email I.Wagner-Doebler@tu-braunschweig.de.

Abstract

Dinoflagellates are a large, ecologically important phylum of marine unicellular algae. Their huge genomes make it highly challenging to decipher the genetic basis of key processes such as harmful algal bloom (HAB) formation and response to warming oceans. To address these issues, we generated a high quality genome assembly from *Prorocentrum cordatum*, a globally abundant, HAB forming dinoflagellate. Our analyses demonstrate massive expansion of the gene inventory to 85,849 predicted genes, primarily driven by unusually long and frequent introns and dispersed duplicates enriched for bloom relevant functions. We find that cell yield is reduced at higher culture temperatures. To understand this response, we integrated transcriptome, proteome and metabolome data and identified both a global and a temperature specific heat-stress response. The underlying metabolic changes reflect damage to photosynthesis and central metabolism. The transcriptome data show that ~25% of genes are differentially expressed under heat stress, with concomittant extensive RNA editing and alternative exon usage. Multi-codon genes and transcripts for HSP70 and RuBisCo suggest a polycistronic gene organisation. Our work represents the first genome based analysis of a red tide dinoflagellate and demonstrates that temperature resilience in *P. cordatum* is mediated by a unique genome structure and multi-level transcriptional regulation.

Introduction

Harmful algal blooms (HABs) are extreme increases of algal abundance triggered by a combination of environmental factors, among them temperature, light intensity and nutrients, HABs are harmful to surrounding organisms and ecosystems through a combination of oxygen depletion and toxicity [1][2] and negatively impact fisheries and aquacultures worldwide, causing ~USD 8B per year in losses [3]. Often referred to as "red tides", due to the color of the algal populations, HABs are predominantly caused by bloom-forming species of dinoflagellates, such as *Alexandrium minutum* [4] and *Prorocentrum minimum* [5] recently renamed to *P. cordatum* [6] that have expanded their habitat and caused increasingly frequent red tides, linked to warming oceans and global climate change [7][8][9]. However, the molecular basis of the heat response in dinoflagellates has not been systematically investigated. Genomic studies of these species remain challenging even today due to their immense genome sizes (up to ~200 Gbp) [10] and their idiosyncratic genome features that are atypical of eukaryotes [11][12].

Dinoflagellates represent a diverse group of phytoplankton encompassing a broad spectrum of ecological niches, including free living, bloom forming, parasitic and symbiotic lineages, the latter comprising essential symbionts in coral reefs [13]. About one half of the studied taxa are are mixotrophic, i.e. they combine phototrophic and heterotrophic modes of energy generation, and the other half are heterotrophic [14][15]. The dinoflagellate photosynthetic machinery [16] powers the biological carbon pump, HABs and coral symbiosis, all of which are deeply affected by increased ocean temperatures. However, key questions of dinoflagellate biology remain unresolved. Transcriptional regulation is considered to be minimal in dinoflagellates [11], since few transcriptional regulators have been identified [17], and the chromosomes remain in a liquid crystalline state throughout the cell cycle [18]. Typically, very few genes show differential expression under temperature stress (e.g. [19]). Editing of the mRNA of a small fraction of nuclear genes has been discovered and suggested as an alternative pathway of generating physiological flexibility [20]. These interpretation are however complicated by the fact that most studies were performed on complex symbiotic systems, e.g. the coral holobiont, or dinoflagellate cultures with their associated bacterial microbiome, whose physiological interactions could mask mechanisms of transcriptional regulation [21]. The recent discovery of transcription associated domains (TADs) offers a

new approach for understanding transcriptional regulation in dinoflagellates [22][23].

Whereas transcriptome data are accumulating, much less proteome and metabolome analyses

have been performed (e.g. [18][24]), and therefore an integrated understanding of heat stress

response of dinoflagellates is lacking.

Among bloom-forming dinoflagellates, *P. cordatum* is an invasive, potentially toxic species

[25][26][27]. Initially described in Asia, *P. cordatum* has expanded its habitat to coastal

ecosystems worldwide [26], including the North Atlantic, where it is now regularly detected

[28]. *P. cordatum* is tolerant of a wide range of salinities and temperatures, facilitating the

increased frequency of its HABs [7][5].

Here, we present the *de novo* assembled genome of *P. cordatum*, the largest genome of a

dinoflagellate sequenced to date, and provide transcriptome, proteome and metabolome data

specific to the heat-stress response in distinct growth phases. Integrating the multi-omics

datasets with genome structure, we demonstrate how genome evolution drives heat-stress

resilience of a HAB-forming dinoflagellate.

Results

P. cordatum genome reveals hallmark of free-living dinoflagellates

We generated a *de novo* genome assembly from *P. cordatum* CCMP1329 of size 4.15 Gb

(scaffold N50 length 349.2 Kb; Table S1). The assembled haploid genome (Figure S1) shares

a similar level of completeness to other dinoflagellate genomes based on the recovery of core

alveolate genes (60.2%; Extended data Table 1). Most (61.0%) assembled genome bases

were annotated as repetitive elements, 46.0% represent unknown repeats, and 7.8% are

simple repeats (Figure 1a). To assess the impact of genome and gene features on ecology and

evolution, we examined them in *P. cordatum* relative to five representative taxa chosen based

on the quality of available genome data and ecological niches: the free-living *Polarella*

glacialis CCMP1383 [29] and *Symbiodinium natans* CCMP2548 [30], the symbiotic

Durusdinium trenchii CCMP2556 [31] and *Cladocopium goreaui* SCF055 [32], and the

parasitic *Amoebophrya ceratii* AT5.2 [33]. Except for the Order *Suessiales* (largely

symbiotic) and the early-branching *Syndiniales* taxa (parasitic), the other dinoflagellates in

the phylogenetic tree are free-living and bloom-forming (Figure 1b).

Among the six genomes, we observed the highest overall G+C content in *P. cordatum* (mean

59.7%; Figure 1c and Extended data Table 2) and in the 85,849 protein-coding genes (mean

65.9%; Figure 1d and Extended data Table 2; see Methods). Among the latter we found 47

genes potentially acquired via horizontal transfer from uncultivated marine taxa

(Supplementary Note, Table S1 and Figure S2). High G+C contributes to sequence stability

due to the more thermally stable hydrogen bonds in the G-C pairing. This observation may

reflect an adaptive mechanism in *P. cordatum* to ensure higher fidelity of transcription when

the cells are exposed to rapidly fluctuating temperatures, e.g. during diurnal vertical

migration or in spring blooms and red tides. The haploid genome size of *P. cordatum*

(estimated at 4.75 Gb; Figure S1) is the largest (e.g. 3.2-fold larger than that of the free-living

Po. glacialis, 39.6-fold larger than that of the parasitic *A. ceratii*; Figure 1e), and encodes the

largest number of protein-coding genes yet described in dinoflagellates (e.g. 4.3-fold greater

than those in *A. ceratii*; Figure 1e). *P. cordatum* also has the longest genes (mean length 24.5

Kb; Extended data Table 2) and introns (mean length 4.7 Kb) among the six studied taxa

(Extended data Table 2 and Figure 1e). All five dinoflagellate species had a high intron

frequency (between 9.8/gene in *P. cordatum* up to 16.1/gene in *Cladocopium goreaui*),

except for the parasitic *A. ceratii* (2.4/gene) (Extended data Table 2). Introns of *P. cordatum*

and *Po. glacialis* are enriched in introner elements, i.e. introns that contain simple inverted

repeats at both ends (Table S2 and Figure 1e), suggesting a prevalence of these elements in

the genomes of free-living dinoflagellates (Table S3 and Supplementary Note). The *P.*

cordatum genome has the largest proportion of helitron repeats (1.2% of the assembled bases

compared to <0.8% in the other genomes; Figure 1e) whereas long interspersed nuclear

elements and long-terminal repeats are expanded in the genomes of *Suessiales* taxa including

Po. glacialis. These elements are largely conserved in the *P. cordatum* genome (Figure S1).

See Supplementary Note for a detailed analysis of tandemly repeated genes, unidirectionally

encoded genes (Figure S3) and introner elements in *P. cordatum.*

Based on analysis of colinear gene blocks (see Methods), we found no evidence of segmental

duplication. This stands in stark contrast to the symbiotic *D. trenchii* for which 49.4% of the

genes were implicated suggesting whole-genome duplication [31]. Instead, 55,664 (64.8% of

85,849) genes of *P. cordatum* are dispersed duplicates (Table S4 and Figure 1e), contributing

to the large genome size. Our results suggest that most duplication events occurred

independently, or alternatively, colinearity of duplicated blocks was disrupted by extensive

rearrangements due in part to the abundant transposable elements. High gene content, long

introns, and extensive genetic duplication represent the signature of the large genome of this

bloom-forming dinoflagellate.

Duplication enhanced diversity of gene functions in a bloom-forming dinoflagellate

We annotated putative functions of predicted proteins of *P. cordatum* based on shared

sequence similarity covering ≥ 70% of full-length sequences in the UniProt database (see

Methods, Table S5). This stringent approach ensures high confidence of the annotated

functions given the scarcity of dinoflagellate sequences in public repositories and the

expected extensive genomic divergence among dinoflagellate genes [30]. Of the 85,849

proteins of *P. cordatum*, 41,078 (47.8%) were annotated with a putative function, 20,897

(24.3%) with Gene Ontology (GO) terms; similar proportions were observed in other

genomes (Table S6), with large proportions (e.g. 52.15% for *P. cordatum* and 62.83% for *A.*

ceratii) coding for functions yet to be discovered [34] and/or are remote homologs to

sequences in UniProt.

We assessed gene functions in *P. cordatum* relative to the other five genomes based on

relative abundance of GO terms annotated per genome (Figure 2a) and the total count of GO

terms (Figure S4; see Methods). Biological processes that were relatively more abundant in

P. cordatum compared to all other genomes were lipid metabolic process, DNA

recombination, DNA integration, carbohydrate metabolic process, proteolysis, signal

transduction, and DNA repair (Figure 2a). Molecular functions related to activities of

transmembrane transporter, methyltransferase, oxidoreductase, DNA binding, nucleic acid

binding, protein kinase, serine-type endopeptidase and hydrolase were likewise relatively

more abundant in *P. cordatum* compared to all other genomes (Figure 2a). For cellular

components, the dominant functions relate to extracellular region and integral component of

membrane (Figure 2a). The free-living, but non-bloom forming, cold adapted *Po. glacialis*

exhibited pronounced but complementary functional enrichments, indicating that the highly

abundant biological processes, molecular functions and cellular components found in *P.*

cordatum are typical of a bloom forming dinoflagellate (Figure 2a). The parasitic (non

photosynthetic) *A. ceratii* has only 2,799 genes with annotated GO terms, compared to

20,897 in *P. cordatum*, therefore the relative abundance of its functions is not comparable to

the other genomes (Figure S4).

To assess the impact of gene duplication on function, we assessed, in each genome, the

enrichment of functions among genes of distinct duplication modes (i.e. dispersed, proximal

and tandem) for each genome (see Methods). Figure 2b shows the significantly enriched ($p \leq$

0.01) GO terms in each category and the associated number of genes. In *P. cordatum*, gene

functions related to transmembrane transport, homeostasis and organelle assembly are

enriched among the dispersed duplicates, whereas those related to immune response and

photosynthesis are enriched among proximal duplicates, and those implicated in metabolic

processes (e.g. tricarboxylic acid cycle) and binding of biomolecules/ions are enriched among

tandem duplicates (Table S7). Interestingly, these terms are not significantly enriched ($p >$

0.05) in the distinct duplication modes for the other genomes (Figure 2b), although GO terms

related to transmembrane and cation transports are also abundant (implicating >100 genes per

genome) in the free-living *Po. glacialis* and *S. natans* (Figure 2b). These results demonstrate

the biological significance of these duplicated gene functions in *P. cordatum* and how distinct

duplication modes have shaped the evolution of genes that are central to adaptation.

Integrated multi-omics analysis of heat stress in *P. cordatum*

To investigate the heat-stress response of *P. cordatum*, the axenic strain was grown in

defined mineral media at its optimal temperature of 20°C and from there it was shifted to

26°C and 30°C (Figure 3a). These temperatures are already common today in the Red Sea

[35][19] or at the equator in the summer [36] and are well within the range predicted for the

future ocean [37]. *P. cordatum* grew at a similar rate at all three temperatures. However, heat

stress reduced algal biomass already at 26°C, and more so at 30°C, with 62% and 41% of

final cell density observed, respectively, compared to 20°C (Figure 3b). Stable cell numbers

over two weeks at stationary phase indicate resilience of *P. cordatum* to the elevated

temperatures. Replicate cultures were harvested at exponential (Ex) and stationary (St)

growth phase and samples for transcriptome, proteome and metabolome analysis were

collected (Tables S7-S10).

We generated 1.964 Gb of transcriptome data (~110 million reads per sample; Table S8)

from 18 samples (6 conditions × 3 replicates). These data support 72,839 (84.8%) of the

85,849 predicted gene models (Extended data Table 2) based on shared sequence similarity

of assembled transcripts. We found 62,580 genes to be expressed (av. read count ≥ 1 for all

samples). The ternary plot displays the sub-transcriptome of highly expressed genes (average

count per million >32), showing that gene expression in the exponential phase was similar at
all three temperatures, while in the stationary phase, whereas major differences were
observed between the 26°C and 20°C treatments (Figure 3c). PCA based on gene expression
also showed large separation between 20°C stationary phase and higher temperatures (Figure
S5).

Our analyses of soluble and membrane protein fractions by LC-ESI-iontrap MS/MS yielded
2,098 identified proteins. Of these, 1,032 were of unknown function including 244 that are
unique to *P. cordatum*. The 68 chromophore-binding (antennae) proteins of the photosystem
comprised the largest group accounting for 70.6% of detected peptides. Proteins related to
photosynthesis, energy generation, and central metabolism were among the most abundant
proteins under all conditions. We found 779 proteins with significantly changed abundance at
26°C or 30°C compared to 20°C, which clustered according to growth phase and temperature
(Figs. 3d, Figure S6 and Table S10).

The metabolome assessed by GC-MS analyses yielded 173 compounds, of which 73
metabolites could be identified (Extended data Figure 3). Fifty-four metabolites displayed
significantly changed abundances ($p<0.05$) in response to growth stage and temperature,
particularly those involved in central metabolism and amino acid biosynthesis (Table S11).

Integration of the transcriptome and proteome data using DIABLO [38] allowed us to
distinguish two types of temperature responses: A generalized heat stress response
(component 1) with abundance changes common in both increased temperatures (26°C and
30°C) compared to 20°C (Figure 3e, left panel), and a temperature-specific heat stress
response (component 2) with abundance changes specific for 26°C or 30°C relative to 20°C
(Figure 3e, right panel). Transcripts and proteins implicated in those two components are
shown in Table S12. KEGG pathways that are enriched in each component or in both are
shown in Figure 3f. KEGG pathways for carbon metabolism, pentose phosphate pathway,
glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism, biosynthesis of amino acids, and cysteine and
methionine metabolism were enriched in generalized heat stress response (component 1,
Extended data Figure 1). In contrast, oxidative phosphorylation, protein processing in
endoplasmic reticulum, vitamin digestion and absorption, and pyruvate metabolism pathways
were enriched according to the level of heat stress (Extended data Figure 2). The correlation
between the transcript and protein expression within component 1 is shown in Fig. 3g (detail

in Figure S7; similar correlation for component 2 is shown in Figure S8). Both positive and

negative correlations of expression between transcripts and proteins were observed. For

instance, the expression of the transcript encoding glutamine synthetase was positively

correlated to the expression of chlorophyll *a-b* binding protein and the light-harvesting

complex I LH38 proteins, while it negatively correlated to expression of pyruvate

dehydrogenase, sulfate and formate transporters.

Temperature-related modulation of central metabolism in *P. cordatum*

A global visualisation of the data revealed that the associated sub-transcriptome (753

transcripts) was differently impacted according to growth stage and temperature, whereas the

associated sub-proteome (278 proteins) featured a marked increase in photosynthesis proteins

at higher temperatures, paralleled by a decreased abundance of proteins belonging to central

metabolism and oxidative phosphorylation (Fig. 4a). The 38 metabolites associated with

central metabolism followed largely the temperature-dependent profiles of the sub-proteome.

The detected components of the photosynthetic electron transport chain (PETC) showed

varying abundance profiles (Figure 4b). Whereas chlorophyll-binding proteins (CPs), light

harvesting complex (LHC), stress related proteins and photosystem I (PS I) proteins

increased at high temperature, detected subunits of the chloroplast ATP synthase generally

remained constant. Notably, PS II and the associated oxygen evolving complex (OEC) and

enzyme components of the ROS response (Tables S13 and S14) appeared unchanged, but

complex IV and mitochondrial ATP synthase of oxidative phosphorylation displayed reduced

abundances at higher temperatures (Figure 4d). Taken together, during heat stress *P.*

cordatum faces energy deprivation arising from a less efficient PETC, which should

immediately affect protein synthesis and central metabolism. Accordingly, amino acid

synthesis decelerated, as evident from decreased levels of involved enzymes (e.g. PSPH,

GLS) and amino acids (e.g. serine, glutamate) as well as TCA-cycle intermediates (e.g.

succinate) (Figure 4c). A detailed reconstruction of central metabolism is provided in

Extended data Figure 4. These results predict lower levels of enzymes involved in

concentrating CO_2 (PEPC) and in ATP-consuming reactions of the Calvin cycle (PRK, PGK)

(Figure 4c). The mostly unchanged profile of ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase (Calvin

cycle) may be misleading in this context, because this key enzyme has decreased activity at

higher temperatures [39]. Enzymes involved in the synthesis of amylose remained stable (SS,
GBSS), possibly to maintain storage formation during imbalance in energy generation (Fig.
6b). In contrast to the declining levels of TCA metabolites and amino acids, some
carbohydrates and fatty acids increased with rising temperature, suggesting their participation
in protection of the cell against heat stress or as countermeasure against increased membrane
fluidity [40]. These results demonstrate the impact of heat stress on a broad range of
metabolic processes in *P. cordatum* such that its growth performance is severely affected.

The transcriptome landscape of *P. cordatum* under heat stress

The transcriptome landscape of *P. cordatum* was dominated by differential expression (DE)
of genes, which occurred for 2,142 genes in the exponential phase of growth, and 22,924
genes in the stationary growth phase (Figure S5b, Table S15) which is concordant with the
PCA (Figure S5a) and ternary plot (Figure 3c). The largest difference (14,322 DE genes) was
observed between 20°C and 26°C in the stationary phase (Figure S5b).

We analyzed the expression patterns of dispersed duplicated genes in all ortho-groups
between 20°C and 26°C in the stationary phase. The majority were regulated similarly. In
total, 368 ortho-groups had both genes being DE genes among 2,368 groups with two
dispersed gene members, of which 341 were regulated similarly (Figure 5a). For groups with
three dispersed gene members, 982 out of 994 groups had at least two genes regulated
similarly (Figure 5a). More generally, 813 out of 949 ortho-groups (85.7%) with at least three
DE dispersed genes had more than 80% of the DE genes regulated similarly (Figure 5a).

Functional enrichment analysis of transcriptional response to temperature stress

DE genes clustered clearly according to temperature and growth condition (Figure 5b). GO
term enrichment analysis based on DE genes was performed for both the Ex and St phase of
growth. At 26°C in the St phase, GO terms including inositol oxygenase activity, cellulase
activity, ATP-binding and metal ion binding were upregulated (Extended data Figure 5a,
Table S16), whereas ribosome, rRNA binding, translation, transmembrane transporter,
photosystem II and photosynthesis light reaction were downregulated (Extended data Figure
5b). In the Ex phase, structural constituents of cytoskeleton and microtubule were in the set
of downregulated genes (Table S16). The findings of a KEGG pathway enrichment analysis
based on KO annotation of genes were consistent with the GO term enrichment Extended

data Figure 5c-d, Table S16, S17, S18). A clustering analysis based on gene expression

showed 8 (Ex growth phase) or 7 (St growth phase) clusters with clear patterns of up- and

down-regulation under the different treatment conditions (Figure 5b, Extended data Figure

6a-b, Table S19 and S20) and GO term enrichment confirmed those reported above

(Extended data Figure 6c). Among 13 polyketide synthase I (PKS I) genes, which are the

major dinoflagellate toxin producing genes [41] five were upregulated under heat stress while

none was downregulated (Table S9).

Posttranscriptional regulation: editing of mRNAs and differential exon usage

Integrating genome and transcriptome data from *P. cordatum*, we examined two modes of

post-transcriptional regulation for generating diversity of proteins (and thus function) in

distinct growth conditions: (a) alteration of a single base in mRNA (i.e. differential RNA

editing), and (b) alternative splicing that leads to preferential usage of exons (i.e. differential

exon usage [DEU]). We found evidence of post-transcriptional regulation in 4,550 genes:

2,744 genes (implicating 4,410 sites) with differential RNA editing, 1,755 genes (implicating

5,837 exons) with DEU (Table S21), and 51 genes (implicating 93 sites and 72 exons) with

both modes of regulation (Figure 5c). The types of mRNA edits were similar under all

conditions (Figure 6b), but number and overlap between edited sites was condition-specific

(Figure 6b, Table S22).

The relatively few genes with both RNA editing and DEU in *P. cordatum* suggests post-

transcriptional regulation of a gene tends to involve only one of these two modes.

Accordingly, the editing of RNA was identified predominantly in genes for which no DEU

was identified, and vice versa (Figure 5c). The complementarity between the two modes of

post-transcriptional regulation may present a regulatory mechanism for generating functional

diversity of the encoded proteins in *P. cordatum*, and potentially more broadly in

dinoflagellates, under variable environmental conditions. Interestingly, the singleton genes in

P. cordatum appear to show a greater extent of DEU than the dispersed duplicates, which

exhibit a greater extent of RNA editing (Figure 5c). The 51 genes displaying both modes of

regulation encode key photosynthetic and stress-related functions, such as chloroplastic ATP

synthase subunits (beta and epsilon subunits), ferredoxin, photosystem I reaction center

subunit XI, and heat shock 70 kDa protein.

Structure and expression of Hsp70 and RuBisCo gene models

Interestingly, we found protein-coding sequences organized in multiple sub-regions, for which each sub-region encodes a full-length copy of the functional protein; we follow [42] to define such a sub-region within a gene model as a coding unit (CU).

The heat-shock protein 70 kDa (HSP70) is a ubiquitously formed chaperone with conserved functions in the stress response. We identified 16 gene models in the genome of *P. cordatum* that putatively encode HSP70s with sizes ranging from 574 to 2,575 amino acids. All of these gene models contain a single CU except for s12246_g74608, which encodes four complete HSP70s along with a fragmented fifth gene. This multi-CU gene model is the main contributor to the heat stress response of HSP70 (Fig. 6a). Exon 1 (CU-1) of the multi-CU transcript displayed a unique pattern of RNA editing (Fig. 6b), with contrasting growth phase vs. temperature-specific RNA edits. We found multiple RNA-edited sites upstream of the transcriptional start site (Supplementary Fig. S21), that suggest a post-transcriptionally regulated heat stress response common to both growth phases. The usage of exon 3 (CU-2) was biased towards a higher abundance at 20°C St phase, corresponding with multiple intronic RNA-edited sites downstream of this exon only identified under this condition. Interestingly, the HSP70 encoded by exon 3 (CU-2) lacks a disordered C-terminus region involved in protein-protein interactions in many species.

The CO_2-fixing ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase (RuBisCo) is the key enzyme of the Calvin cycle. The genome of *P. cordatum* contains 32 gene models that putatively code for RuBisCos of varying sizes (163 to 5,197 amino acids, Figure S10). Half of these gene models encode fragments of the protein, whereas the remainder are organized in single or multiple CUs, similar to what we observed with HSP70 (Fig. 6d). Previous work on *P. minimum* [43] and *P. donghaiense* [42] showed a single transcript that contains three consecutive CUs. Its unprocessed protein product is hypothesized to be transported into the plastid where it is split into three separate, active proteins [42]. Notably, here we found four gene models that harbour three CUs, one with two CUs, and eleven with a single CU (Fig. 6d).

We analysed the upstream regions of the gene models as well as the spacers to determine if they encoded transit peptides (TP) necessary for transport into the plastid. No consensus sequence for such a TP is described for dinoflagellates and TPs for plastid localization are highly diverged among phototrophs [44][45]. The predicted leader sequence from *P.*

donghaiense [42] was found in eight of these gene models (Figure 5d). Comparing the
regions upstream of the CUs, we identified two conserved sequence motifs in (a) the leader
sequence, (b) the N-terminal region of proteins that lacked a leader sequence, and (c) the
spacer region between two CUs (Fig 6e). The two sequence motifs are moderately
hydrophobic and rich in basic amino acid residues (R/K) as expected for plastidic TPs [45].
Thus both the single-CU and multi-CU proteins can potentially be transported into the
plastid, based on putative TP either in their upstream region or in the spacer. Highly similar
sequence motifs in RuBisCo from *P. donhaiense* and other dinoflagellates (Figure S11)
further support the hypothesis of their involvement in transport to the plastid.

Proteins encoded by the different CUs share very high pairwise sequence identity (>95%)
making it impossible to map detected peptides to a given CU. The cumulative abundance of
proteins increased at 20°C in the St phase, whereas transcript abundance increased with
temperature (Figure 6c). Analysis of the transcriptional response showed clustering of gene
models according to the number of CUs. Multi-CU transcripts had a consistently low
expression level while single-CU derived transcripts were highly expressed and responded
strongly to heat stress (Fig5, Extended data Figures 7 and 8). Only seven out of 16 complete
RuBisCo gene models were interrupted by introns. No significant change in exon usage and
little mRNA editing was observed for these sequences. Analyses of the promotor regions of
the gene models revealed promotor motifs in eight cases, including one zinc finger motif, but
these were not related to the transcriptional profile. Therefore, regulation of this key enzyme
in dinoflagellates occurs primarily by controlling the number of CUs available for translation.

Discussion

Here we show how a HAB forming dinoflagellate responds to heat-shock based on its
genome, which is the largest of any dinoflagellate sequenced to date. Genome expansion is
mediated by the long genes and introns [46][47], as well as a huge fraction of dispersed
duplicates that are enriched for functions potentially relevant for bloom forming. The
extensive intron gain in *P. cordatum* points to active transposition and an important role of
introner elements, i.e. non-autonomous DNA transposons [48][49][50].

P. cordatum mounts a systems level heat-shock response already at 26°C, with few additional
adaptations required for it to grow and persist stably at 30°C. Multi-omics data integration

showed functions essential for energy production (photosynthetic electron transport chain)

and energy consumption (fixation of carbon dioxide, protein synthesis) to be impaired,

consequently resulting in reduced central metabolism and protein synthesis. Our findings

extend those from previous studies [40][51][52][53][54] and represent the first

comprehensive analysis of heat-shock response in a bloom forming dinoflagellate under

strictly phototrophic conditions, thus providing a basis for understanding dinoflagellate

ecology.

Heat resilience is mediated by multi-level mechanisms of regulation. Previously it was

thought that most genes in dinoflagellates are expressed constitutively [11][55][35][19].

Remarkably, we found strong evidence against this hypothesis, with ~25% of all genes being

DE in response to heat stress, comparable to other microalgae [56]. Rather than being a

structural feature of dinoflagellates, the small number of DE genes previously detected might

be related to the complexity of coral holobionts that obscures transcriptional regulation (e.g.

[57][21][58]). A large fraction of DE genes was either subject to RNA editing, *or* subject to

alternative exon usage, two mechanisms of posttranscriptional regulation generating

functional diversity. They tend to occur in different genes in *P. cordatum*, most likely

improving resilience towards heat stress.

Two important enzymes of heat-stress response, HSP70 and RuBisCo, demonstrated a novel

mechanism of transcriptional regulation. Some of their genes encoded several complete

proteins and were transcribed in a condition-specific way. Transcription of several ORFs into

a single (polycistronic) transcript is common in prokaryotes, but was unknown in eukaryotes

until recently [59]. Interestingly, HSP70 was among the first examples for a polycistronic

gene in eukaryotes [60]. Meanwhile many more have been discovered [61][59][62]. We

found them here in *P. cordatum* and show that they represent an important component of the

heat-shock response.

This first genome based multi-omics analysis of heat stress in a HAB forming dinoflagellate

has significantly advanced our understanding of dinoflagellate biology and evolution. It

provides a baseline for studies of the role of dinoflagellates in the biological pump, HABs

and symbiotic interactions with marine invertebrates. Beyond the many novel insights into

genome structure and regulation we describe, the *P. cordatum* genomic resources can be used

to design field experiments of HABs to explore mitigation strategies. This aspect is of

growing importance as the world's oceans continue to warm and HABs become more

frequent and widespread.

Methods

Strain and cultivation conditions

The axenic culture of *Prorocentrum cordatum* strain CCMP1329 used in this work was

obtained from the Provasoli-Guillard National Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota

(NCMA). *P. cordatum* CCMP1329 was cultivated in L1-Si medium which is L1 medium

[63] with the modifications that synthetic ocean water [64] was used instead of natural

seawater, and $Na_2SiO_3 \cdot 9H_2O$ was omitted, since *P. cordatum* does not require silica.

Cultures were routinely maintained by transferring 10 ml of a 15 day old culture to 90 ml of

fresh L1-Si medium in 300 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. The flasks were kept in a climate chamber

(RUMED type 3501) at 20°C in a 12:12 h light:dark cycle with a light intensity of about 40

µmol photons $m^{-2}s^{-1}$ without any agitation. Lack of contaminating bacteria was routinely

checked by plating aliquots on LB and Difco marine agar 2216 (MB) plates. The number of

cells/ml after transfer fluctuated between 2.0×10^4 and 3.0×10^4.

Cell counting

Growth of *P. cordatum* was determined by cell counting using a BD LSR-Fortessa flow

cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). *P. cordatum* was identified according to its

chlorophyll autofluorescence. Chlorophyll was excited with the 488 nm excitation laser line

and emission was detected at 695 nm. 1 ml samples were taken from three biological

replicates during the light period and fixed with 80 µl 25 % glutaraldehyde (final

concentration 2 %) for about 15 minutes at room temperature. Samples were snap frozen in

liquid nitrogen and stored at -70 °C until they were analyzed. Each sample was analyzed in

triplicate for 1 minute.

Four independent growth curves per temperature were obtained. For each growth curve,

counts were averaged from three biological replicates (with three technical replicates each).

Counts were plotted against time and a generalized additive model (GAM) was fitted. The

specific growth rate in the exponential growth phase, μ_{exp} (day^{-1}) and the doubling rate per

day k was calculated according to [65].

Extraction of high molecular weight DNA for PacBio Sequencing

DNA of *P. cordatum* cells extracted with commercially available plant kits or by applying the

common CTAB protocol was either too fragmented or contained too many contaminating

compounds to be suitable for PacBio sequencing. Therefore, we performed an initial

ultrasound treatment to break the cells and separate the nuclei from the debris, based on work

aimed at isolating nuclei for electron microscopy [66].

100 ml culture of *P. minimum* was transferred to two 50 ml Falcons tubes and centrifuged

(2,000 rpm, 5 min, RT). The supernatant was discarded, the pellets were dissolved in 15 ml

artificial sea water using an inoculation loop, and centrifuged again (2,000 rpm, 5 min, RT).

The supernatant was discarded, the pellet dissolved in 15 ml of 30% ethanol, and centrifuged

(2,000 rpm, 5 min, RT). This step was repeated, and the final pellets were dissolved in 3 ml

of 30% ethanol. Ultrasound using a Bandelin Probe Sonicator (Bandelin) was applied for 1

min, 5 cycles, amplitude 40% followed by centrifugation (1,000 rpm, 3 min, RT). The pellet

was suspended in 1.5 ml of 0.85% NaCl and centrifuged (10,000 g, 1 min, 4°C). Pellets from

two tubes (100 ml culture) were dissolved in 1 ml high salt buffer in an 2 ml Eppendorf tube

using inoculation loops. 8 µl proteinase K was added and incubated (56°C, 300 rpm, 1 h)

inverting the tubes every 15 min. After cooling on ice for 5 min 15 µl of RNAse A was added

and incubated (37°C for 30 min without shaking). The sample was centrifuged (10,000 g, 5

min, 4°C) and the supernatant transferred to a new tube. 200 µl 5 M NaCl were added and

mixed well by inverting the tube. Then, 200 µl solutions of CTAB/NaCl were added, mixed

well by inverting the tubes and incubated (65°C, with shaking 300 rpm, 10 min). 1 ml of

chloramphenicol-isoamyl alcohol was added, mixed well by inverting the tube, and after

phase separation the aqueous phase was collected. This treatment was repeated three times

until no interphase could be seen. To the collected aqueous phases an equal volume of -20°C

cold isopropanol was added and incubated overnight at -20°C. DNA was centrifuged (10,000

g, 10 min, 4°C) and the pellet was washed three times with 70% ethanol cooled to 4°C. The

pellet was suspended by flicking and then centrifuged at 10,000 g, 10 min, 4 °C. Following

air drying under the clean bench the DNA pellet was dissolved in 200 µl EB buffer and

stored at -70°C.

RNA Isolation and sequencing

For RNA extraction, the sample was thawed at room temperature and then transferred to a cryotube filled with 0.3 g acid washed glass beads (100 μm). The cells were homogenized using the FastPrep-24 instrument (MP Biomedicals, California, USA) at 6.0 m/s for 3 min (3 x 1 min + 1 min on ice). Samples were centrifuged (12,000 g, 10 min, 4°C), the supernatants were transferred to fresh tubes and incubated for 5 min at room temperature. Then 100 μl of 1-bromo-3-chloropenol (BCP, Sigma, Germany) was added, samples were shaken vigorously for 15 s and incubated for 10 min at room temperature. Samples were centrifuged (12,000 g, 10 min, 4°C), the aqueous phase was transferred to a new tube, 0.5 ml of isopropanol was added, mixed and incubated for 10 min. The sample was then centrifuged (12,000 g, 10 min, 4°C). The supernatant was removed and the RNA pellet was washed with 1 ml of 75% ethanol. The sample was vortexed briefly and the centrifuged (7,500 g, 5 min, 4°C). Washing was repeated. The final pellet was air dried for 5 min, resuspended in 50 μl RNase-free water, and incubated in a heat block at 55°C for 10 min. The RNA was stored at -80°C.

Removal of genomic DNA was verified via PCR using total RNA as template. The concentration of the RNA was quantified using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Peqlab, Erlangen, Germany) and the RNA integrity was assessed using a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent, Santa Clara, USA). The average RNA concentration in the 18 samples was 297.4 ± 109.5 ng/μl and the average RIN value was 5.5 ± 0.78.

RNA sequencing was performed at the HZI Braunschweig with 300 cycles on a NovaSeq 6000 using paired end 150 bp chemistry with the library kit NEBNext Ultra II directional RNA. Ribosomal RNA was depleted prior to sequencing using polyA beads.

De novo genome assembly

Genome data from *P. cordatum* were generated using Illumina NovaSeq 6000 and PacBio sequencing technologies, with a total data yield of 843.4 Gb (Table S23). Combining these sequence reads, a hybrid genome assembly was generated using MaSuRCA v4.0.3 [67], independently with CABOG (option *FLYE_ASSEMBLY=0*) and FLYE (option *FLYE_ASSEMBLY=1*) as the assembly tool in the final step. Both assemblies are near identical, in which 99.94% of the scaffolds in each assembly share 99.04% identity on average. They exhibit the same level of data completeness (56.7%) based on recovery of

BUSCO single-copy orthologs in alveolata_odb10 dataset (which is known to be poor in

dinoflagellate data). Between these two preliminary assemblies, MaSuRCA-CABOG is more

contiguous (N50 length of scaffolds = 194.50 Kb) and yields better recovery of the rRNA

region (Table S24); this assembly was used in the subsequent refinement steps.

To refine the assembled genome, we first incorporated RNA-Seq data to further scaffold the

MaSuRCA-CABOG assembly using L_RNA_scaffolder [68]. Briefly, we mapped the *de*

novo assembled transcriptome (for transcripts ≥ 500 bp) onto the assembled genome

sequences using pblat v2.5 [69]. The mapping results in psl format were used as input for

L_RNA_scaffolder. This approach yielded a more-contiguous genome assembly (N50 length

of scaffolds = 346.97 Kb) with a better recovery of BUSCO genes (57.9%; Table S24).

Next, using BloBTool v1.1.1 [70], we assessed the assembled genome for potential outlier

sequences based on sequence coverage, G+C content, and shared sequence similarity to

known sequences in NCBI nt database (release 243; 15 April 2021). Genome scaffolds for

which the sequencing coverage or G+C content is external to the range of median ± 1.5 ×

interquartile range are considered as potential outliers. Scaffolds that have bacterial, archaeal,

or viral sequences as the top hits plus extreme sequencing coverage or extreme G+C content

are considered sequences that are putatively external to the nuclear genome of *Prorocentrum*

cordatum. In this analysis, majority (23,366; 98.2%) of the 24,295 genome scaffolds

(implicating 3.89 Gb) do not have hits in the BLAST searches (20,914 scaffolds; 2.95Mbp)

or have top hits in an undefined eukaryote sequence (2,452 scaffolds; 0.95Mbp); this

observation is expected given the lack of dinoflagellate data in the existing databases. Using

this approach, we identified 1,571 outlier sequences and removed them from the genome

assembly. Most of these outlier sequences do not have shared similarity to bacterial

sequences in the database. This is expected given the algal cultures from which the genomic

DNA was extracted were axenic. The final genome assembly has a total size of 4.15 Gb (N50

length of scaffolds = 349.2 Kb; Table S24).

Transcriptome assembly

RNA-Seq reads from six conditions (20_ex, 20_st, 26_ex, 26_st, 30_ex and 30_st) were

processed using fastp v0.21.0 [71] using parameter –*g* to remove adapter sequences and poly-

G artifacts known in NovaSeq 6000 data. Transcriptomes were first assembled in "de novo"

mode using Trinity v2.12.0 [72] independently for each condition. All *de novo* assembled

transcripts were combined as a single assembly, from which redundant sequences were identified and removed using CD-HIT v4.8.1 [73] (98% identity; 0.9 length-difference cutoff), yielding the final representative reference transcriptome.

To generate the genome-guided transcriptome, processed RNA-Seq reads from each condition were first mapped onto the final genome assembly (above) using HISAT2 v2.2.1 [74]. The mapping result (i.e. describing the alignments between RNA-Seq reads and genome scaffolds) was used as input for Trinity v2.12.0 in "genome-guided" mode. Using the same strategy above, individual genome-guided assemblies were combined and redundant sequences removed, yielding the final representative genome-guided transcriptome.

Ab initio prediction of protein-coding genes

To predict protein-coding genes, we follow the customised gene prediction workflow tailored for dinoflagellate genomes following [75]. The description of this workflow is available at https://github.com/TimothyStephens/Dinoflagellate_Annotation_Workflow. Briefly, this approach integrates evidence of transcript and protein sequences to guide predictions using multiple gene programs, after which the results were integrated to yield the final gene models.

First, we identified novel repetitive elements in the genome assembly using RepeatModeler v2.0.1 (http://www.repeatmasker.org/RepeatModeler/), combined these elements with existing repeat families in RepeatMasker database release 2018/10/26 as a reference, to predict and mask all repetitive sequence regions from the genome sequences using RepeatMasker v4.1.0 (http://www.repeatmasker.org/); this yields the repeat-masked genome assembly.

To predict protein-coding genes, we first mapped the representative *de novo* and genome-guided transcriptome assemblies to the genome assembly using Minimap2 v2.18 [76], for which the code was modified to recognise GC and GA donor splice sites. The mapping information was then used to predict transcript-based genes using PASA v2.3.3 [77] for which the code was modified to account for non-canonical splice sites. The proteins coded by the transcript-based genes were searched (BLASTP, $E \leq 10^{-20}$, >80% query cover) against a customised protein database combining RefSeq (release 98) proteins and predicted proteins from available Symbiodiniaceae genomes (Table S25). The gene models were checked for

transposable elements using HHblits v3.3.0 [78] and TransposonPSI

(https://github.com/NBISweden/TransposonPSI), searching against the JAMg transposon

database (https://github.com/genomecuration/JAMg); those genes containing transposable

elements were removed from subsequent steps. Redundant sequences were removed based on

similarity using CD-HIT v4.8.1 [73] (*-c 0.75 -n 5*). Among the remaining transcript-based

gene sequences, we identified high-quality "golden genes" using the script

Prepare_golden_genes_for_predictors.pl from the JAMg pipeline

(https://github.com/genomecuration/JAMg), altered to recognise alternative splice sites.

These "golden genes" represent high-quality training set for *ab initio* gene predictors. We

used them as the training set for SNAP [79] and AUGUSTUS v3.3.1 [80] for gene prediction

from the repeat-masked genome assembly; the codes for AUGUSTUS was also modified to

recognise alternative splice sites (https://github.com/chancx/dinoflag-alt-splice).

The repeat-masked genome was also used as the input for GeneMark-ES [81]. We also

predicted genes using MAKER v2.31.10 [82], in which the code was modified to recognise

GA donor splice sites. Protein-coding genes were predicted using MAKER (*protein2genome*

mode) based on protein sequences from the Swiss-Prot database (retrieved 02 March 2020)

and other predicted *Symbiodiniaceae*. Finally, gene predictions from the five methods

including the *ab initio* predictors (GeneMark-ES, AUGUSTUS, SNAP), MAKER protein-

based predictions, and PASA transcript-based predictions were integrated using

EvidenceModeler v1.1.1 [83] to yield the high-confident gene models; The weighting is

PASA 10, MAKER protein 8, AUGUSTUS 6, SNAP 2 and GeneMark-ES 2; see [75] for

details. These resulted gene models were subjected three rounds of polishing during which

the gene models were corrected based on transcriptome re-mapping using the annotation

update utility in PASA [77].

Functional annotation of protein-coding genes

Annotation of gene function for *P. cordatum* and other representative dinoflagellate genomes

was conducted based on sequence similarity to known proteins in the UniProt database

(release 2021_03). Predicted protein sequences from the gene models were first searched

against the manually curated protein sequences of Swiss-Prot (UniProt release 2021_03)

using BLASTp v2.3.0+ ($E \leq 10^{-5}$; subject-sequence cover $\geq$ 70%). Sequences that have no

Swiss-Prot hits were then searched against TrEMBL (UniProt release 2021_03) using the
same parameters.

For predicted proteins of *P. cordatum*, we further assessed functions based on sequence-
similarity search against known protein sequences in EnzymeDetector, InterProScan,
eggNOG and Kofam.

Prediction of transit peptides

596 For each predicted protein, transit peptides were first predicted independently using TargetP
597 v2.0 (*-org pl*), Signalp v6 (*--organism eukarya --mode fast*), WoLF PSORT (*plant* mode),
598 Predotar, and ChloroP v1.1. Subcellular localization is determined based on the consensus
599 from these predictions confirmed in three or more programs.

Analysis of homologous proteins

To identify homologous proteins of the predicted *P. cordatum* proteins, we compiled a
comprehensive protein-sequence database (1,554,705 sequences from 31 dinoflagellate taxa;
Table S26) using available genome or transcriptome data. All data from the MMETSP
database [84] were downloaded at https://zenodo.org/record/1212585#.YlYczuhByUk. For
species where there were multiple datasets for the same isolate, the protein sequences were
clustered at 90% sequence identity using CD-HIT v4.8.1 [73] to reduce redundancy. Using
these 31 sets of protein sequences, homologous sets were then identified based on clustering
of protein sequences based on sequence identity using OrthoFinder v2.3.8 [85] at default
settings.

Identification of mRNA editing sites

Putative mRNA editing events were identified from single nucleotide variations observed in
genome-sequence reads *versus* RNA-Seq reads. An observed nucleotide variation in the
RNA-Seq reads but not in genome-sequence reads is considered a potential mRNA edited
site. Briefly, 25% of all genome-sequence reads (randomly sampled) were mapped to the
final genome assembly using bwa-mem v0.7.17-r1188 (https://github.com/lh3/bwa).
Trimmed RNA reads from each sample (6 conditions; 3 replicates) were mapped to the
genome assembly separately with HISAT2 v2.2.1 [74] using default parameters (--no-
discordant) and a HGFM index that was built using known exons and splice sites from the

predicted gene models. PCR duplicates were marked by *MarkDuplicates* implemented in

Picard v2.23.8 (https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). For each condition, mapping of

RNA-Seq reads was compared with the mapped genome-sequence reads using JACUSA v2

(call-2 -F 1024 -P2 RF-FIRSTSTRAND -s -a D,Y,H:condition=1). We follow the authors'

recommendation to assess the statistical significance of an mRNA edited site. A site is

considered statistically significant if it meets all the requirements: (1) a score > 1.15; (2)

coverage of genome reads >10; (3) coverage of RNA reads from each condition > 5; (4)

number of putative editing type is < 2; (5) The editing site is present in all three replicates.

Analysis of horizontal gene transfer

To identify putative horizontal gene transfer (HGT), *P. cordatum* proteins were searched

(BLASTP, $E \leq 10^{-5}$) against a customised protein-sequence database that consist of 2,773,521

proteins from 82 other eukaryotes (Table S27) and 688,212 proteins from 543 single-cell

assembled genomes (SAGs) of prokaryotes (Table S28) [86]. Excluding hits to other

Prorocentrum proteins, *P. cordatum* proteins have a bacterial top hit are considered results of

horizontal gene transfer involving *P. cordatum* and bacteria. To support the inferences of

putative HGT, we employed Orthofinder v2.5.4 [85] to infer homologous protein sets from

all the involved proteins (i.e. *P. cordatum* proteins, proteins from other eukaryotes and

SAGs). Homologous protein sets containing *P. cordatum* proteins that involving HGT were

used to infer multiple sequences alignments using MAFFT v7.453 [87] at --maxiterate 1000.

Trimmed by trimAl v1.4.1 [88] using parameter *-automated1*, the alignments were used to

infer phylogenetic trees using IQ-TREE2 [89] at *-B 2000 -T AUTO*.

Identification of introner elements

641   Introner elements were identified in the intronic regions using the program Pattern locator

642   [90]. The pattern we searched for were inverted repeats of 8-20 nucleotides and direct repeats

643   of 3-5 nucleotides within 30 bases of each end of the introns as described in [91].

Integration/mixOmics analysis

We conducted a multi-omics analysis in *P. cordatum* using the proteomic and transcriptomic

data to identify a systems level heat stress response across the growth phases using the

mixOmics package in R [92]. Transcriptome FPKM values were first log2 transformed prior

to quality filtering with normalized proteomic data, requiring features be present across 75%

of samples. Selected features represented the top 25% and 50% most variable transcripts

(15,097) and proteins (259), respectively, that were present across 75% of the samples. These

features were then input to mixOmics for Data Integration Analysis for Biomarker discovery

using a Latent cOmponents (DIABLO) [93].

We conducted performance testing of the initial model to identify the number of latent

components that contained a multi-omics signature using Mfold validation with 5 folds and

50 repeats. This suggested two latent components as the best fits for the model. We then

performed final model tuning using the max distance to select diagnostic features for both

component 1 (RNAseq: 170, proteins: 30) and component 2 (RNAseq: 190, proteins: 40).

Ordination of all features indicate the separation of the three temperature levels for both

transcriptome and proteome features. The transcriptome and proteome features selected for

component 1 discriminate a common heat stress response at both 26°C and 30°C (Extended

Data Figure 1, Table S12) and for component 2 a heat stress response specific to either 26°C

or 30°C (Extended Data Figure 2, Table S12). The variates for the pathways from both

components were then input to NetworkAnalyst [94] for KEGG pathway over-representation

analysis to identify functional categories that were enriched in each network.

A relevance associations network was created for each component using the *network* function

within *mixOmics*, where values represent a robust approximation of the Pearson correlation.

A heatmap displaying the features from each component was created using the *pheatmap*

package in R with features clustered according to their Euclidean distances and scaled within

rows. This revealed two main clusters within each component that were extracted using the R

package *dendextend* according to the corresponding dendogram. A relevance associations

network was then created for each subcluster as previously done for the two components.

Experimental design and sampling

Cultures of *P. cordatum* CCMP1329 were maintained as described above. After 15 days of

cultivation at 20°C, 10 ml were transferred to 90 ml of fresh L1-Si medium in 300 ml

Erlenmeyer flasks and placed in a climate chamber set to the desired temperature (26°C or

30°C) and exhibiting the same light intensity and light:dark cycle. Replicate cultures were set

up under identical conditions to allow sampling of 3 biological replicates each for

transcriptome and proteome and 5 biological replicates for metabolome. For proteome

measurement, up to 12 liters of culture (120 flasks with 100 ml culture volume each) were

cultivated in the same climate chamber to obtain ~2 g biomass (wet weight). For each growth

stage (exponential, stationary) and temperature (20°C, 26°C, 30°C) a complete set of cultures

were sacrificed. Cell counting and harvesting were started about 5 h after the onset of the

light period. For cell counting, random samples were chosen from the climate chamber to

account for small differences in light intensity.

<u>Harvesting samples for transcriptome analysis</u>. Three 100 ml cultures (biological replicates)

were sampled per temperature and growth phase. 100 ml culture was centrifuged in two 50

ml Falcon tubes at 5000 rpm (4276 g), 4 °C for 5 minutes in a Heraeus Multifuge X1R

(Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany). The supernatant was decanted, and the pellet was

resuspended in the remaining medium. The two pellets were combined in a 2 ml Eppendorf

tube and centrifuged at 13,000 rpm, 4 °C for 3 minutes in a Heraeus PrimoR centrifuge

(Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany). The remaining supernatant was removed by

pipetting, and the weight of the wet pellet was determined. The pellet was resuspended in 1

ml Trizol Reagent, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -70 °C until further analysis.

<u>Harvesting samples for proteome analysis:</u> Tubes and buffers used in the following steps

were pre-chilled; all steps were carried out on ice. 400 ml culture was filled into chilled 500

ml centrifuge bottles, centrifuged at 5,000 rpm (4,248 g), 4°C, for 30 minutes in a Sorval

Lynx 4000 centrifuge (Thermo Fischer, Schwerte, Germany). The supernatant was decanted,

the pellet was resuspended in 100 ml buffer containing 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 + 5 mM

$MgCl_2$ x 6 H_2O. The re-suspended pellets were centrifuged again (30 min, 5,000 rpm, 4°C.

The supernatant was removed, and the pellet was re-suspended by gently pipetting in 800 µl

of the same buffer. The suspension was transferred into 2 ml Eppendorf tubes and centrifuged

at 13,000 rpm, 4°C for 5 minutes in a Heraeus PrimoR centrifuge (Thermo Scientific,

Schwerte, Germany). The supernatant was removed by pipetting and the weight of the wet

pellet was determined. Samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -70 °C.

<u>Harvesting samples for metabolome analysis:</u> 15 ml from five 100 ml cultures (biological

replicates) from each temperature and growth phase were extracted immediately after cell

counting with a filtration unit and 0,22 µm filter (Millipore, GSWP04700). Samples were

filtered at 500 mbar with a vacuum controller. The cells were washed three times with 4°C

cold 3.5 % NaCl.

The filters were immediately transferred to 5 mL Eppendorf tubes containing 100 mg 0.7-100

μm glass beads (Kuhmichel, Germany), two 5 mm^3 and one 10 mm^3 stainless steel beads

(Kugel Winnie, Germany) for partially destroying the filter and to obtain cell lysis. 2 mL of -

20°C cold extraction fluid (EF) were immediately added. The EF for metabolite extraction

used in the experiments contained methanol, ethanol, chloroform and the internal standard

13C-ribitol (IS) [95]. The pre-cooled 5 mL tubes with filter and EF on ice were mixed for 20

seconds and placed back on ice until further treatment.

Transcriptome analysis

<u>Reads mapping and gene counting</u>

The transcriptome reads were mapped to the assembled reference genome using HISAT2

[74]. The reads mapped onto the exons were counted for the corresponding genes with

featureCounts [96]. For differential expression analysis, only uniquely mapped reads were

taken into account to avoid ambiguity. The fragments per kilo base of transcript per million

mapped fragments (FPKM) value of each gene was calculated by normalizing the fragments

per million with the sum of the exon length of the corresponding gene. The ternary

visualization of the gene expression pattern across three temperatures was produced with R

package ggtern [97].

<u>Differential expression analysis</u>

Genes with low expression were filtered out by the "filterbyexpr" function in edgeR [98]

with default parameters. Then, the differential expression (DE) analysis was performed with

edgeR using the recommended "glmQLF" test on the raw read count per gene. Genes with a

"Benjamini-Hochberg" corrected p-value (FDR) <=0.001 and an absolute log2 fold change

(log2FC) >=2 were considered as significantly differentially expressed. The Venn diagram

showing the DE gene overlaps between different comparisons was created with R package

VennDiagram [99].

Hierarchical clustering with the complete-linkage algorithm was used to identify gene

clusters based on their expression profile across temperature conditions. The input expression

values were centered log2 transformed FPKM values where the FPKM expression values

were log2(x+1) transformed, then centered by subtracting the mean. The tree was cut into

eight clusters to represent different expression profiles. Super cluster 4 and cluster 7 in the

stationary phase showed very similar expression pattern and each of them was small.

Therefore, we decided to merge them for the downstream functional enrichment analysis.

<u>Functional enrichment and KEGG pathway analysis</u>

The GO term enrichment analysis was carried out with the R package topGO (DOI:

10.18129/B9.bioc.topGO) for all three gene ontologies, i.e., biological process (BP), cellular

component (CC) and molecular function (MF). REVIGO [100] was used to summarize the

GO terms according to the semantic similarity for a concise visualization in Figure S9. In

order to perform a KEGG pathway enrichment analysis, we assigned KEGG ortholog (KO)

number for each gene using KOfam [101]. When a gene had multiple KO assignments with

an e-value <=1e-10, we chose the one with the lowest e-value. If a gene had several KO

assignments with an e-value of zero, we kept all those KO assignments for this gene. Using

this annotation, the genes with KO assigned held about 50% of mapped reads. The expression

profile for each KO gene was then generated by summing up the read count for all genes

belonging to the same KO gene. DE KO genes were then identified using edgeR similar to

the above DE analysis. The KEGG pathway and module enrichment analyses were performed

using clusterProfiler [102] on those DE gene sets. For both GO term enrichment analysis and

KEGG enrichment analysis, an FDR <=0.05 was considered as significantly enriched.

<u>Statistical tests</u>

The association between introner element containing genes, DE genes in stationary phase,

and the gene duplication categories was tested with Fisher exact test to identify significant

relations (enrichment, and depletion). An odds ratio (OR) above 1 and p-value smaller than

1e-5 indicates an enrichment relation, while OR below 1 and p-value below 1e-5 represents a

depletion relation.

In the central carbon metabolism pathway analysis, a paired Wilcoxon test was performed to

compare the expression change of the gene members belonging to the same EC number. The

alteration of the metabolite's concentration was analyzed using Wilcoxon test on the mean

concentration values of biological replicates over the three technical replicates. An FDR

<=0.05 was regarded as significantly changed.

Metabolome analysis

Metabolite extraction

The cell disruption was performed with an oscillating mill (Retsch, MM400,Germany) at 30 Hz for 2 minutes, which was repeated three times. The cooling during the treatment was ensured by using -80°C pre-cooled sample containers. For metabolite extraction, the tubes were centrifuged for 8 min at 12,000 rpm and 4 °C and afterwards two different volumes of the supernatant (100 µl and 200 µl) were transferred to GC glass vials (Klaus Trott Chromatographiezubehör, Germany) and dried under vacuum at 4 °C (Labconco, United States). After drying over night the vials were capped with magnetic vial caps (Klaus Ziemer GmbH, Germany) and stored at -80 °C until measurements. All samples belonging to one experiment were analyzed together in one GC-MS batch.

Derivatization and GC-MS measurements

To analyze polar metabolites with gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (GC-MS) a derivatization was performed to reduce polar interactions by introducing unpolar trimethylsilyl (TMS) groups. This was necessary to evaporate the substances under low temperatures and avoid alteration. After extraction the samples were analyzed with a gas chromatograph connected to a mass spectrometer (GC-MS) (Agilent 7890A and 5975C inert XL Mass Selective Detector). The sample derivatization was automatically done with a multisampler (GERSTEL, Germany) and 15 µl 2 % methoxyamine hydrochlorid (MeOX) in pyridine (Roth, Germany) for 60 min at 40°C followed by the addition of 15 µl N-tert-Butyldimethylsilyl-N-methyl (MSTFA) and incubated for 30 min at 40°C. For measurement 1 µl of the sample was injected in splitless-mode into an SSL injector at 270°C. The GC was equipped with a 30 m DB-35MS + 5 m Duraguard capillary column (0.25 mm inner diameter, 0.25 µm film thickness). Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min and the GC-oven was run at following temperatures and times per sample: 6 min 80°C; 6 minn80 to 300°C; 10 min 300°C; 2.5 min 300 to 325°C; 4 min 325°C. Each GC-MS run lasted 60 minutes. The transmission temperature from GC to MS was 280°C and the temperatures of the MS and the quadrupol were 230°C and 150°C, respectively. The ionisation in the mass detector was performed at 70 eV. The detector was operated in SCAN-mode for full scan spectra from 70 to 800 m/z with 2 scans/s. For calibration of retention indices an alcan mix ((C10-C40) (Sigma Aldrich) was used.

Data analysis for metabolome

Data analysis was performed with the software Metabolite Detector [103], RStudio and

LibreOffice. After calibration with the alcan mix a normalization by IS 13C-Ribitol was

performed to eliminate variations in sample volumes. Batch quantifications were performed

with Metabolite Detector and the generated files were visualized in barplots with the same

software or with R as heatmaps. The shown statistics were also performed with Metabolite

Detector.

Non-targeted analysis was performed with an in-house library and the following settings:

Peak threshold 5; minimum peak height 5; 10 bins per scan; deconvolution with 5; no

baseline adjustment; compound reproducibility 1.00; maximum peak discr. index 100.00; min

ions 20.

Proteome analysis

<u>Shotgun proteomics</u>

Cells of *P. cordatum* were resuspended in solubilization buffer and disrupted by bead beating

(FastPrep-24 5G, MP Biomedical, Eschwege, Germany) for 10 s at 6 m/s followed by 90 s on

ice (three repetitions) using 0.1 mm silica spheres. Cell debris and insoluble material was

removed by ultracentrifugation for 1 h at 104,000 g at 17 °C and the supernatant again

centrifuged at 200,000 g for 1 h at 17 °C. The protein content of the preparation was

determined according to [104]. A total of 50 µg was subjected to reduction, alkylation and

tryptic digest as reported previously [105]. Generated peptides were analyzed by (i) 1D

reversed phase nanoLC and (ii) 2D SCX-/RP nanoLC separation coupled to MS-detection.

For 1D separation, one microgram of tryptic peptides were decomplexed by reversed phase

nanoLC separation (Ultimate 3000 nanoRSLC; Thermofisher Scientific, Dreieich, Germany)

using a trap column setup (2 cm length, 5 µm bead size, 75 µm inner diameter; Thermofisher

Scientific) with a 25 cm separation column (2 µm bead size, 75 µm inner diameter;

Thermofisher Scientific) and applying a 360 min linear gradient [105]. In case of 2D

separation, 4 µg were subjected to SCX fractionation (eluent A 5 mM H_3PO_4, 5 % (v/v)

acetonitrile, pH 3.0; eluent B 5 mM H_3PO_4, 5 % (v/v) acetonitrile, 1 M NaCl, pH 3.0) with a

linear 20 min gradient and collection of 19 fractions per sample beginning 5 min after

injection. Each fraction was subsequently applied for second dimension reversed phase

separation (see above) using a 60 min gradient. For both methods, the eluent was

continuously ionized (captive spray ion source; Bruker Daltonik GmbH, Bremen, Germany)

and ions analyzed by an ion-trap mass spectrometer (amaZon speed ETD; Bruker Daltonik

GmbH) as described [106].

Preparation of the membrane protein-enriched fraction

Cell pellets were gently thawed, cells resuspended in 0.5 ml membrane lysis buffer (MLB;

100 mM TrisHCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 % (w/v) glycerin, 0.5 mM DTT, pH 7.5) and disrupted

by bead beating (see above). DNA was digested using DNase I and the obtained raw fraction

applied on top of a continuous sucrose gradient (30 – 80 % (w/v)) prior to centrifugation for

12 h at 37,800 g and 4 °C. Membrane containing fractions were collected and washed twice

with MLB (centrifugation 1 h at 104,000 g). Obtained membrane pellets were resuspended in

500 µl MLB, pooled and centrifugation repeated. The final pellet was resuspended in 300 µl

1.0 % (w/v) SDS, incubated at 95 °C for 5 min prior to centrifugation for 20 min at 20,000 g

and 20 °C. The supernatant was frozen in liquid nitrogen until usage. Protein content was

determined using the RCDC assay (BioRad GmbH, Munich, Germany). A total of 10 µg

protein per sample and fraction were separated by SDS-PAGE and gels stained with

Coomassie brilliant blue [107]. Each sample lane was cut into 8 slices and each slice into

small pieces of ~1-2 mm² for subsequent in-gel digest as described [106]. Generated peptide

solutions were analyzed by reversed phase nanoLC-MS (see above) applying a 120 min

gradient. Per sample, protein search results of each slice of fractions I and II were compiled.

Proteome data analysis

Protein identification was performed using Mascot (version 2.3; Matrix Science, London,

UK) via the ProteinScape platform (version 4.2; Bruker Daltonik GmbH) against the genomic

database of *P. cordatum*. A target-decoy strategy with a false discovery rate <1.0% was

applied as well as the following settings: enzyme trypsin; 1 missed cleavage allowed;

carbamidomethylation (C) as fixed, oxidation (M) as variable modification; peptide and

MS/MS mass tolerance 0.3 Da; monoisotopic; peptide charge 2+ and 3+; instrument type

ESI-TRAP; significance threshold $p < 0.05$; ion score cutoff 25.0; minimum peptide length of

5. Search results of individual searches per sample were compiled using the ProteinExtractor

function of ProteinScape.

 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Genome features of *P. cordatum*. (a) Distribution of identified repeat types in the

P. cordatum genome. (b) Maximum likelihood tree inferred using 3,507 strictly orthologous,

single-copy protein sets among 31 dinoflagellate taxa, with ultrafast bootstrap support (based

on 2000 replicate samples) shown at each internal node; unit of branch length is number of

substitutions per site. The ecological niche for each taxon is shown on the right of the tree.

The five representative taxa and *P. cordatum* from this study are highlighted on the tree in

red text. Distribution of G+C content for (c) whole-genome sequences and (d) protein-coding

sequences relative to the other five representative genomes. (e) Genome and gene features of

P. cordatum relative to the other five taxa, showing haploid genome size estimated based on

sequence data, number of protein-coding genes, lengths of all introns, and separately for

introns that contain introner elements (IE^+), and those that do not contain introner elements

(IE^-), known repeat types, and types of duplicated genes.

Figure 2. Gene functions encoded in *P. cordatum* genome. (a) Gene functions encoded in

the genome of *P. cordatum* and the other five representative taxa based on relative abundance

of Gene Ontology (GO) terms per genome, shown for categories of Biological Process (BP),

Molecular Function (MF) and Cellular Component (CC). The ecological niche for each taxon

is shown at the bottom of the heatmaps. (b) GO terms that are significantly enriched ($p <$

0.01) among genes for each duplication type (i.e. dispersed, proximal and tandem) in *P.*

cordatum, relative to p values observed for the other taxa, and the associated number of genes

for each GO term.

Fig. 3. Integrated analysis of transcriptome and proteome response of *P. cordatum* upon

heat stress. a, Experimental design of the temperature-dependent growth experiments. **b**,

Growth of *P. cordatum* at 20°C, 26°C and 30°C. Harvesting for multi-omics analyses is

indicated by dashed vertical lines (Ex, exponential, St stationary growth phase). **c**, Ternary

plots of highly expressed gene models with an average log2CPM (log2 of count per million)

>5 in response to temperature and growth phase (8,593 transcripts in each plot). **d**, Clustering

of differentially abundant proteins (2,098 identified proteins) in response to temperature and

growth phase. Abundances of proteins were calculated from standardized peptide counts. **e**,

Heatmap of transcripts and proteins showing significant correlations for generalized heat

stress response (component 1, left panel) and temperature-specific response (component 2,

right panel). **f**, Over-represented KEGG-pathways in the networks of generalized and

temperature specific heat-stress response. **g**, DIABLO network of generalized heat stress

response (component 1) revealing positive and negative correlations (≥0.7) between

transcripts and proteins.

Figure 4. Heat stress response of central modules of energy and carbon metabolism in

P. cordatum. a, Temperature dependent dynamics of sub-transcriptomes (left) and sub-

proteomes (right) associated with photosynthesis (PS), central metabolism (CM) and

oxidative phosphorylation (OP). Colored circles represent individual transcripts and proteins,

respectively, with their areas proportional to the determined abundances. For proteome, the

heights of the CM- and OP-bands were 10-fold enlarged for better comparison with the PS-

band. b, Light reaction of photosynthesis. Abbreviations: CCP, carotenoid/chlorophyll-

binding protein; CP, chlorophyll-binding protein; FCP, fucoxanthin/chlorophyll-binding

protein; FNR, ferredoxin:NADP oxidoreductase; OEC, oxygen evolving complex; PS,

photosystem. c, Central metabolism including CO_2-concentrating, Calvin cycle and central

C-metabolism and selected biosyntheses of amino acids. Enzyme abbreviations: PEPC,

phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase; GBSS, granule-bound starch synthase (NDP-glucose-

starch glycosyltransferase); GLS, glutamine synthetase; PGK, phosphoglycerate kinase;

PRK, phosphoribulokinase; PSPH, phosphoserine phosphatase; SS, starch synthase. A

detailed scheme is presented in Extended data Figure 4. d, Oxidative phosphorylation.

Underlying data are compiled in Table S13.

Figure 5: The transcriptome landscape under heat stress. a The regulation pattern of

dispersed genes in ortho-groups. Up: up-regulated at 26°C St phase compared to 20°C St

phase, Down: down-regulated at 26°C St phase compared to 20°C St phase; NotSig: not

significantly changed in expression. In the right panel of **a** 2Up.1Down.0NotSig indicates the

ortho-groups that had 2 genes up-regulated, 1 down-regulated and 0 not significantly

changed. **b** Heatmap and clusters of gene expression across samples and temperatures in the

stationary growth phase. Hierarchical clustering with the complete-linkage algorithm was

used to identify gene clusters based on their expression profile across temperature conditions.

The input expression values were centered $\log_2(x+1)$ transformed FPKM values. **c** Post-

transcriptional regulation in *P. cordatum*, shown for 4,550 genes in distinct duplication

modes (couterclockwise): dispersed, tandem, proximal, and singleton. Features shown from

the inner-most to the outer-most circle: differential exon usage, differential editing of mRNA

per gene in response to growth phase (green/brown), and differential mRNA editing per gene

in response to temperature (red/purple). In each circle, a bar in a light shade indicates the

number of corresponding features identified in a gene, a bar in a dark shade indicates the

number of statistically significant features in a gene. The bottom-left legend shows the

distinct scenarios for identifying sites for mRNA editing in all transcripts versus differentially

edited sites.

Fig. 6. Structure, expression in response to heat stress and protein architecture of

Hsp70 (a-c) and RuBisCo (c-e) gene models. a, Clustering of HSP70 gene models

according to transcription pattern across growth conditions; cumulative abundance of

transcripts and proteins is indicated below. **b**, Relative exon usage, CDS structure and mRNA

editing of gene model s12246_g74608 harbouring multiple HSP70 CUs. E, exon; kinked line,

intron; E01/03/05/07, complete HSP70s; E09/10, N-/C-terminal fragments of HSP70;

E02/04/06/08, spacers. **c**, Clustering of RuBisCo gene models according to transcription

pattern across growth conditions; cumulative abundance of transcripts and proteins is

indicated below. **d**, Scheme of proteins indicating complete CUs, N- and C-terminal

fragments, spacer and putative leader sequences. Detected peptides are indicated below. **e**,

ClustalW alignment of upstream regions of sixteen complete proteins of *P. cordatum* with or

without leader sequence as well as representative spacer sequences. Alignment of all 32

sequences and other dinoflagellate proteins is provided in Figure S11). Basic residues are

marked in dark blue and conserved regions are highlighted by purple background.

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Data availability statement

The assembled genome and transcriptome, and the predicted gene and protein sequences from *P. cordatum* are available at https://cloudstor.aarnet.edu.au/plus/s/nxC7atJTpJuyr8h.

The BioProject accession for the genome and transcriptome data is PRJEB54915.

Detailed information on identified proteins and peptides is deposited at fairdomhub.org under the project 293 (DOI will be available once the data are publicly available). For review, the data are available via the following links:

SOP Metabolites:

https://fairdomhub.org/sops/551?code=RrSjntdGsUnt2zRDdFKIKnfmJviLFvw3O7BzG9Lv;

SOP Proteome:

https://fairdomhub.org/sops/549?code=TKCZcudIA05oY%2FSnAFW67R2IwE91d1x%2F9eQp6dnH

 Data Metabolites:

https://fairdomhub.org/data_files/6075?code=kyxQ9ljLVTxjU54Wrk5HS62bQj6Z9niiJtT30GSc

 Data Shotgun proteomics:

https://fairdomhub.org/data_files/6059?code=GhhJoFC9oBKYd7fWRlE9kZ%2BpMGnGRMD2Cvtf8sLE

 Data membrane fraction:

https://fairdomhub.org/data_files/6058?code=QwaeOVVnEvuCXftZqObFSFD82emv0qEqhs9oiHV1

 Data 2D LC-MS/MS:

https://fairdomhub.org/data_files/6057?code=4PPrRrP6qwTuD1iekFWzxzRijAyGkbeaySaybJjI

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Extended Data

Table 1: Statistics of assembled genomes of *P. cordatum* and other dinoflagellates

Table 2: Statistics of predicted genes in *P. cordatum* and other dinoflagellates

Extended Data Figure 1: Heatmap of expression levels for the inferred multi-omics signature that is indicative of a general heat stress response. Values are scaled across rows with proteins and transcripts up-regulated during heat stress shown in (a) and those down-regulated during heat stress in (b).

Extended Data Figure 2: Heatmap of expression levels for the inferred multi-omics signature that is indicative of a 26°C and 30°C specific heat stress response. Values are scaled across rows with proteins and transcripts up-regulated during heat stress shown in (a) and those down-regulated during heat stress in (b).

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Extended Data Figure 7: Transcript exon-intron plot Hsp70

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Supplementary Information

Supplementary Figures

Figure S1: Analysis of *P. cordatum* genome based on (a) distribution of 21-mers indicating a haploid genome, (b) genome-size estimation based on 21-mers using GenomeScope2, and (c) repeat landscape excluding unknown repeats.

Figure S2: Maximum likelihood protein tree of a putative hydantoin racemase indicating bacterial origin of the encoding gene in *P. cordatum*.

Figure S3. Unidirectional coding of genes in dinoflagellate genomes based on gene-orientation changes in ten-gene windows.

Figure S4. Gene functions encoded in the genome of *P. cordatum* and the other five representative taxa based on count of Gene Ontology (GO) terms.

Figure S5. The transcriptome landscape under different temperatures and growth phases. The PCA visualization of samples based on the FPKM expression values (a). Number of shared differentially expressed genes among different comparisons (b).

Figure S6. The proteome landscape of *P. cordatum* heat stress response. NMDS visualisation of individual samples based on peptide count data [max error = $1.24 \times 10\text{-}11$] (a). Number of shared/specifc proteins across the studied conditions (b).

Figure S7. Network visualization of multi-omics signature inferred from both proteins and transcripts that represent a general heat stress response. Colors of the lines indicate the nature of the relationships between proteins and transcripts, with positive relationships in green and negative relationships in purple.

Figure S8. Network visualization of multi-omics signature inferred from both proteins and transcripts that represent a 26°C and 30°C specific heat stress response. Colors of the lines indicate the nature of the relationships between proteins and transcripts, with positive relationships in green and negative relationships in purple.

Figure S9. The regulation pattern (a) and functional enrichment (b-d) of dispersed duplication genes in ortho-groups. All ortho-groups with ≥3 DE genes in stationary phase were included in panel a. For the functional enrichment analysis in panel b, only ortho-groups with ≥20 gene members were taken into account which cover 13,529 genes.

Figure S10. Detailed information on gene models containing multiple coding units (CU). Scale model of gene models annotated as RuBisCo, that contain only fragments of the complete Rubisco CU, gene model s10_g491 as reference for a 3 CU version (a). Scale model of Rubisco gene models with respective exons (b). Scale model of gene models containing multiple CUs encoding protein functions in central metabolism (c).

Figure S11. Comparison of RuBisCo gene models of *P. cordatum* as well as with other dinoflagellate species. Alignment of the predicted leader sequences, sequences N-terminal of the first CU and the region between two complete CUs (i.e. spacer regions) (a). Alignment of the spacer regions of chloroplast localized proteins (RuBisCo and phosphoglycerate kinase, top) and non-chloroplastic proteins (Hsp70 and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase) (mitochondrial), bottom) (b). Histogram of RuBisCo proteins encoded in the genomes of *P. cordatum* and *S. microadriaticum* (c).

Supplementary Tables

Table S1: The 47 *P. cordatum* proteins with top bacterial hit in GORG-Tropics.

Table S2: *P. cordatum* genes that contain introner elements in one or more introns.

Table S3: Introner elements in genomes of dinoflagellates.

Table S4: Classification of gene duplicates in *P. cordatum* and the five representative
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Table S6: Annotated protein sequences from genome of *P. cordatum* and other
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Table S7: Tandemly duplicated gene blocks in *P. cordatum* genome.

Table S8: RNAseq read statistics

Table S9: FPKM values per gene model

Table S10: Normalized peptide counts per gene model

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calculate significance (see table S14).

Table S14: The comparison of central carbon metabolism enzymes expression levels
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Table S15: Differential gene expression analysis (transcriptome)

Table S16: GO term enrichment analysis

Table S17: KO gene expression

Table S18: KEGG enrichment analysis

Table S19: Clustered genes during exponential growth phase

Table S20: Clustered genes during stationary growth phase

Table S21: Differentially edited mRNA sites identified in *P. cordatum* genes

Table S22: Differential exon usage identified in *P. cordatum* genes.

Table S23: Genome sequence data generated for this study.

Table S24: Statistics of preliminary and final genome assemblies of *P. cordatum*.

Table S25: Dinoflagellate proteins used to guide prediction of protein-coding genes from the
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Table S26: Protein sequences from 31 dinoflagellate taxa used for identification of
homologous sequence sets.

Table S27: The protein sequences from 82 eukaryote taxa used in this study.

Table S28: The 688,212 protein sequences from 543 single-cell assembled genomes in
GORG-Tropics used in this study.

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1388   **Supplementary Note**

1389   1   Horizontal gene transfer
1390   2   Introner elements & tandem repeats
1391   3   Transcriptome landscape
1392
1393

Extended Data Table 1. Statistics of assembled genomes of *P. cordatum* and other dinoflagellates.

Species	*Prorocentrum cordatum*	*Polarella glacialis*	*Symbiodium natans*	*Durusdinium trenchii*	*Cladocopium goreaui*	*Amoebophrya ceratii*
Isolate	CCMP1329	CCMP1383	CCMP2548	CCMP2556	SCF055	AT5.2
Reference	This study	Stephens et al. 2020	Gonzalez-Pech et al. 2021	Dougan et al. 2022	Chen et al. 2022	John et al. 2019
Assembly size (Gbp)	4.15	2.99	0.76	1.71	1.17	0.09
Estimated genome size based on *k*-mers (Gbp)	4.75	1.48	0.74	1.05	1.30	0.12
Number of scaffolds	22,724	33,494	2,855	29,137	6,843	2,351
Genome scaffolds N50 (Kbp)	349.2	170.3	610.5	774.3	353.9	84.0
Maximum scaffold length (Mbp)	3.56	2.17	3.40	4.57	7.38	0.54
Genome GC-content (%)	59.7	45.9	51.8	49.8	44.4	55.9
percentage of BUSCO proteins recovered (genome mode; alveolata_odb10)	60.2	60.2	62.0	61.4	66.7	82.5

Extended Data Table 2. Statistics of predicted genes in *P. cordatum* and other dinoflagellates.

Species		*Prorocentrum cordatum*	*Polarella glacialis*	*Symbiodium natans*	*Durusdinium trenchii*	*Cladocopium goreaui*	*Amoebophrya ceratii*
Isolate		CCMP1329	CCMP1383	CCMP2548	CCMP2556	SCF055	AT5.2
Reference		This study	Stephens et al. 2020	González-Pech et al. 2021	Dougan et al. 2022	Chen et al. 2022	John et al. 2019
Number of predicted genes		85,849	58,232	35,270	55,799	45,322	19,925
% recovery of BUSCO proteins (alveolata_odb10)		61.4	70.2	74.9	69.6	82.4	86.5
Genes with transcript support (%)		84.8	94.0	83.0	75.7	82.5	24.4
Average gene length (bp)		24,462	16,206	8,780	15,334	15,745	2,772
Average CDS length (bp)		2,798	1,230	1,660	1,647	2,018	1,964
CDS GC-content (%)		65.9	57.8	58.16	55.69	54.24	60.8
Number of exons per gene		11.7	11.6	15.7	16.7	17.2	3.4
Average exon length (bp)		239.9	105.7	106	98.7	120.4	578.7
Genes with introns (%)		83.7	73.8	85.5	93.1	95.9	71.3
Number of introns per gene		9.8	10.6	14.7	15.7	16.2	2.4
Average intron length (bp)		4709	1408	486	869	839	377
Splice donor motif (%)	GT	24.7	28.8	23.6	30.3	36.6	99.9
	GC	51.4	52.7	58	52.3	43.6	<0.1
	GA	23.8	18.5	18.4	17.4	19.8	0
Splice acceptor with AGG motif (%)		79.7	96.9	97.1	96.5	96.1	56.5
Number of intergenic regions		48,574	35,271	33,042	47,452	39,720	17,856
Average length of intergenic regions (bp)		26,278	21,625	11,585	13,222	7,388	1,522

ED Figure 1: Heatmap of expression levels for the inferred multi-omics signature that is indicative of a general heat stress response. Values are scaled across rows with proteins and transcripts up-regulated during heat stress shown in (a) and those down-regulated during heat stress in (b).

ED Figure 2: Heatmap of expression levels for the inferred multi-omics signature that is indicative of a 26C- and 30C-specific heat stress response. Values are scaled across rows with proteins and transcripts up-regulated during heat stress shown in (a) and those down-regulated during heat stress in (b).

Ex | St | Ex | St | Ex | St
20 °C | 26 °C | 30 °C

4.0　3.0　2.0　1.0　0.0　-1.0　-2.0
Standardized abundance

ED Figure 3: Heatmap of all metabolites (p < 0.001) at 20°C, 26°C and 30°C in *P. cordatum*. Five biological- and three technical replicates were run per experiment. Relative intensity values are shown and data were normalized to internal standard and cell count. Normalization for heatmap was done by using z-score and significance was calculated by two-tailed T-test.

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ED Figure 7: Transcript exon-intron plot Hsp70

a

ED Figure 8: Transcript profiles of Hsp70 (a) and RuBisCo (b) gene models according to clustering in Figure 6a and 6c.

a

two dispersed genes ortho-groups

regulation
- Up.Up
- Up.Down
- Down.Up
- Down.Down
- Up.NotSig
- NotSig.Up
- Down.NotSig
- NotSig.Down
- NotSig.NotSig

log2CPM
- 0
- 3
- 6

three dispersed genes ortho-groups

regulation category

all 3 genes same reg.
- 0Up.0Down.3NotSig
- 0Up.3Down.0NotSig
- 3Up.0Down.0NotSig

2 genes same reg.
- 0Up.1Down.2NotSig
- 0Up.2Down.1NotSig
- 1Up.0Down.2NotSig
- 1Up.2Down.0NotSig
- 2Up.0Down.1NotSig
- 2Up.1Down.0NotSig

all 3 genes different reg.
- 1Up.1Down.1NotSig

≥ three DE dispersed genes ortho-groups

b

temperatures

clusters
- SC1
- SC2
- SC3
- SC4+SC7
- SC5
- SC6
- SC8

temperatures
- 20
- 26
- 30

z−scaled FPKM

c

RNA Editing

20°C vs 26°C (St): All edited sites / Differentially edited
20°C vs 26°C (Ex): All edited sites / Differentially edited
St vs Ex (20°C): All edited sites / Differentially edited
St vs Ex (26°C): All edited sites / Differentially edited

Exon Usage
- Exons in gene
- Differentially used exons

Dispersed

Singleton

Post-transcriptional regulation (n = 4,550 genes)

Differential exon usage

Growth phase-specific RNA editing

Temperature-specific RNA editing

Tandem   Proximal

Condition 1   Condition 2
ACGTG   ACGTG   Original sequence
ACGTG   ACGTG   All edited sites
ACCTG   ACATG   Differentially edited
ACATG   ACGTG