1   *Title:* **Transcriptome landscape of a thermal-tolerant coral endosymbiont reveals**
2   **molecular signatures of symbiosis and dysbiosis**

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Abstract

Background
Reef-building corals depend upon a nutritional endosymbiosis with photosynthetic dinoflagellates (family Symbiodiniaceae) for the vast majority of their energetic needs. While this mutualistic relationship is impacted by numerous stressors, heat stress from warming oceans is a predominant threat to coral reefs, placing the future of the world's reefs in peril due to climate change. While some Symbiodiniaceae species exhibit tolerance to thermal stress, the molecular basis for this tolerance is largely unexplored. To identify the underpinnings of heat tolerance and symbiosis, we compared the *in hospite* and free-living transcriptomes of *Durusdinium trenchii*, a pan-tropical heat-tolerant Symbiodiniaceae, under stable temperature conditions and acute hyperthermal stress.

Results
We discovered that under stable conditions, *in hospite* cells exhibited lower transcriptional activity than free-living counterparts, suggesting the shutdown of genes uniquely required for a free-living lifestyle in a process we term transcriptome reduction. However, under hyperthermal stress the transcriptional response was larger *in hospite* than in the free-living state, indicating an exacerbated stress environment within the host cell. While we identified a core heat stress response shared between free-living and *in hospite D. trenchii*, this represents only a minority of the stress-induced transcriptional activity. Our findings also revealed distinct processes at work in free-living and *in hospite* cells under non-stress conditions, with free-living *D. trenchii* exhibiting evidence of sexual reproduction. We also found that *in hospite* cells display putative host evasion activity including components of apicomplexan parasite invasion machinery.

Conclusions
In this work, we unraveled the molecular signatures of symbiont heat tolerance within the host, which is a critical step to enable the development of engineered endosymbionts as a tool for restoration of coral reefs. Our findings also highlight the necessity of conducting experiments on Symbiodiniaceae in the appropriate symbiotic state, as the stress responses of free-living cultures may not be representative of Symbiodiniaceae within a holobiont. We suggest that the necessity of an intermittent free-living state, outside of its highly co-evolved symbiosis, prevents genome reduction as seen in obligate endosymbionts. We posit that transcriptomic reduction of non-essential genes *in hospite* may be an alternative adaptive strategy for endosymbionts in ancient symbiotic assemblages.

Introduction

Reef-building corals engage in an obligate endosymbiosis with a diverse group of dinoflagellate algae in the family Symbiodiniaceae, which is composed of seven recently described genera (LaJeunesse et al., 2018). In this nutritional symbiosis, the algal partner transfers up to 90% of the carbon it fixes to the coral host (Muscatine et al., 1984). However, this critical mutualism is sensitive to environmental stressors and can break down in a process termed coral bleaching (Glynn, 1993), most commonly due to elevated seawater temperature linked to anthropogenic climate change (Hoegh-Guldberg, 1999). High temperature anomalies are continuing to intensify, with 2015–2016 exhibiting the most intense global bleaching event on record (Eakin et al., 2016; Hughes et al., 2017). Recent models forecast that mass bleaching will be an annual event before 2050 (Maynard et al., 2017). Even if dramatic international actions manage to limit warming to 1.5 °C, coral populations are predicted to remain in peril (Anthony et al., 2017).

There is an existing body of work demonstrating that the shift of the dominant symbiont (shuffling) or acquisition of new species of symbionts (switching) from the environment enables holobionts, the coral host and its diverse assemblage of symbionts, to better withstand climate-related increases in seawater temperatures (Baker, 2001; Berkelmans and Van Oppen, 2006; Jones et al., 2008; Rowan, 2004; Stat et al., 2006). More recently, significant differences in heat tolerance have been reported both within a single Symbiodiniaceae genus (Díaz-Almeyda et al., 2017) as well as between genera (Grégoire et al., 2017), revealing that different Symbiodiniaceae species have differing thermal optima and tolerances. A well-studied case is

Durusdinium trenchii (previously *Symbiodinium trenchii* [LaJeunesse et al., 2018]), an

ITS2 – D1a subtype within Clade D that has been shown to confer increases in heat

tolerance of between 1-1.5 °C to coral hosts (Berkelmans and Van Oppen, 2006;

Rowan, 2004). This heat tolerance is also observed in culture conditions; *D. trenchii* can

maintain maximum photosynthetic rates at elevated temperatures in comparison to the

majority of other investigated Symbiodiniaceae species (Grégoire et al., 2017).

However, alternate heat-resistant assemblages of host and symbiont come with a cost,

showing decreases in growth rates (Jones and Berkelmans, 2011; Little et al., 2004).

The potential benefits to corals hosting *D. trenchii* in response to increasingly

warm ocean conditions is not only evident in Pacific reef corals (Baker, 2003), where

this species of symbiont is genetically diverse and is thought to have originated, but

also in the Caribbean Sea, where it is thought to have invaded in the past half century

(Pettay et al., 2015). Silverstein et al. (2017) have demonstrated that the Caribbean

scleractinian coral *Montastraea cavernosa* colonized by *D. trenchii* persist *in hospite* on

thermally stressed reefs, whereas conspecific corals hosting type C3 symbionts

underwent massive bleaching.

Due to the current ecological crisis facing corals, there has been a growing

movement to develop purposeful interventions to increase the thermal tolerance of

many heat-sensitive coral holobionts, including experimental evolution and interspecific

hybridizations (Chakravarti et al., 2017; Chan et al., 2018). Recently, the use of genome

editing approaches has been proposed, with the primary goal of engineering heat-

sensitive endosymbionts in order to produce more heat-tolerant coral holobionts (Levin

et al., 2017). This requires the characterization of molecular mechanisms used by heat-

resistant Symbiodiniaceae species so that taxa exhibiting less resistant phenotypes can

be genetically engineered into heat-resistant symbionts.

By using a transcriptomic approach, we aimed to characterize the mRNA profiles

associated with the response to thermal stress in the heat-resistant *D. trenchii*. We

assessed the gene expression response of the symbiont both in the free-living state and

in hospite when stably associated with a cnidarian host. This design allowed us to

gauge the effect of symbiosis on the molecular response of the symbiont to heat stress.

In order to achieve sufficient sequencing depth of *in hospite D. trenchii*, we implemented

a novel symbiont mRNA enrichment technique. This powerful comparative approach

also facilitated an examination of the molecular changes underlying the transition from a

free-living to symbiotic state. This represents the first work to characterize the

transcriptional modifications associated with *in hospite* and free-living states of a

Symbiodiniaceae, and the first to characterize the divergent stress responses between

the symbiotic and free-living environment in a very ecologically important coral

symbiont, *D. trenchii*.

Our investigation reveals the dramatic differences in gene expression between

symbiotic and free-living *D. trenchii*. Further, we show that these differences are

magnified under conditions of thermal stress. When D. trenchii are in symbiosis, we

note a significant downregulation of transcripts. This molecular signature suggests that

the host provides a stabilized environment for *D. trenchii* in contrast to the free-living

state. Under thermal stress, the more active transcriptomic response of the

dinoflagellate *in hospite* in comparison to the free-living state suggests that the

dinoflagellates are responding to a less hospitable environment. This suggests that the

dinoflagellates living within host cells are responding to a more inhospitable

environment under thermal stress as disturbed host cells may intensify the stressful

state of the symbiont. This result brings critical attention to the necessity of examining

thermal stress responses of coral endosymbionts *in hospite* in order to capture the

functional profile actually relevant to coral holobiont persistence. Studies based solely

on free-living cultures provide a biased perspective that is confounded by responses to

an external environment markedly different from the holobiont.

Results and Discussion

Transcriptome Analysis

A reference transcriptome of 82,273 transcripts was assembled, filtered for non-

Symbiodiniaceae transcripts, and used as the basis for differential expression analysis

(NCBI TSA BioProject PRJNA508937). Principal component analysis (PCA) of all

analyzed transcripts shows dramatic separation of treatments by both symbiotic state as

well as thermal stress (Fig. 2*A*). PC1, the principal component separating *in hospite* and

free-living treatments, is driven by 11,933 transcripts and explains 40.5% of the

variance, whereas PC2, the axis separating thermal treatment, is driven by 11,904

transcripts and explains 15.5% of the variance.

Statistical analysis for the identification of differentially expressed transcripts

(FDR corrected p-value < 0.01, greater than $\log_2$ 2-fold difference) reveals that the *in*

hospite condition in *D. trenchii* is marked by a substantial downregulation of gene

expression, with 368 transcripts upregulated versus 1625 downregulated at the 28°C

(Fig. 3A). This larger level of downregulation *in hospite* is maintained under the heat

stress comparison (34°C), with 2799 transcripts downregulated versus 793 upregulated

in comparison to the free-living state (Fig. 3A). Notably, the *in hospite* response to heat

stress is much more pronounced than that in the free-living condition, with a total of 709

transcripts differentially regulated as a function of thermal stress *in hospite* versus 353

transcripts in the free-living condition (Fig. 3B). Out of the 709 transcripts involved in

the *in hospite* response to heat, 624 transcripts (365 upregulated and 259

downregulated) were specific to the *in hospite* condition as these transcripts were not

differentially expressed in response to thermal challenge in free-living *D. trenchii* (Fig.

3B). The transcriptional response to thermal stress shared between free-living and *in*

hospite D. trenchii represented only 12% of the heat-modulated transcriptional response

in hospite. This shared response could be considered the core heat response, with

activity regardless of the symbiotic state of the algal endosymbiont. However, this

represents a minority of detected transcriptional activity. The majority of transcripts

involved in response to heat stress depend upon the symbiotic condition of the

dinoflagellate (e.g. whether the cell is *in hospite* or free-living). Our findings demonstrate

that *D. trenchii* has distinct transcriptomic profiles *in hospite* and in free-living states,

and further, that the transcriptomic heat stress response is vastly different between *in*

hospite and free-living conditions. This brings critical attention to the importance of

examining the response of Symbiodiniaceae holistically, as the responses in culture

may not be representative of *in hospite* endosymbionts. To date, the vast majority of

transcriptomic assessments of Symbiodiniaceae within the context of thermal stress

have been performed exclusively on free-living cultures (Barshis et al., 2014;

Baumgarten et al., 2013; Díaz-Almeyda et al., 2017; Gierz et al., 2017; Levin et al.,

2016; Rachel Ashley Levin et al., 2017; Liew et al., 2017; Xiang et al., 2015), and while

they have been insightful, they may present a reduced transcriptional picture of the

alterations that occur in Symbiodiniaceae *in hospite*. Only one other investigation

directly compared gene expression *in hospite* to free-living conditions (Rosic et al.,

2010), but it focused on only two heat-shock protein genes. We propose that it is

imperative to consider the *in hospite* environment in the assessment of

Symbiodiniaceae response to thermal stress, and that culture-based studies require

careful consideration when extending findings to *in hospite* conditions.

A Small Core Thermal Stress Response is Shared Between Free-living and *in*
hospite D. trenchii
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Within the conserved transcriptional changes under thermal stress shared

between the free-living and *in hospite* states of *D. trenchii* (Fig. 3, Fig. 4), 57 transcripts

were upregulated and 28 downregulated. Examination at the transcript level reveals that

the magnitude of expression within these core transcripts is, overall, higher in free-living

D. trenchii than *in hospite* (Fig. 4). With a relatively small number of transcripts

representing the core response, we were not able to perform meaningful GO term

enrichment analysis. Instead, our interpretation of this small conserved core response is

based upon transcript annotations.

Though the core set of transcripts differentially expressed in response to thermal

stress (Fig. 3) represents the minority of transcriptional alterations under stress *in*

hospite and in free-living cells, it sheds light on key processes conserved in the *D.*

trenchii stress response independent of symbiotic state. These processes include

modifications to membrane fluidity, DNA repair, anion channel activity, spermidine

synthase upregulation, and transposition. With their indispensability in both the *in*

hospite and free-living stress responses, these associated transcripts are potentially

important candidates in the identification of the genetic basis for thermal tolerance in *D.*

trenchii.

Maintenance of membrane viscosity is critical for cell homeostasis as

hyperthermal stress increases the fluidity of membranes, potentially leading to

disintegration of the lipid bilayer (Allakhverdiev et al., 2008). In Symbiodiniaceae,

thylakoid membrane lipid composition is a key determinant of thermal-stress sensitivity

(Tchernov et al., 2004). Within the core heat stress response, we identify an ortholog to

a *fatty acyl-CoA desaturase*, an enzyme involved in the remodeling of cell membranes

for homeoviscous adaptation (Hazel, 1995) that is potentially critical in modifying fluidity

to accommodate increasing temperatures.

The upregulation of *apurinic endonuclease-redox protein* (*ARP*) both *in hospite*

and in free-living conditions suggests that repair to oxidative DNA base damage occur

in both conditions. The apurinic/apyrimidinic (AP) endonucleases are important DNA

repair enzymes involved in two overlapping pathways: DNA glycosylase-initiated base

excision and AP endonuclease-initiated nucleotide incision repair (Akishev et al., 2016).

In the context of heat stress, this may allow *D. trenchii* a faster response to DNA

damage than other Symbiodiniaceae species.

Anion channels, spermidine synthase, and retrotransposons are disparate

entities which can each serve as heat stress response mediators with many

downstream effectors. In plants, anion channels are a master regulator of stress

response (reviewed by Rob et al., 2012). In the core heat stress response, we find the

upregulation of a transcript putatively coding for aluminum-activated malate transporter

9 (ALMT9). In plants, ALMT9 is involved in the release of chloride currents in guard

cells and malate homoeostasis. In response to stress, the release of chloride and

malate leads to the rapid stomatal closure (Dreyer et al., 2012). Though the precise role

of ALMT9 in stress response in Symbiodiniaceae species is unknown, it may be

involved in downstream stress response signaling. A transcript coding for spermidine

synthase is also upregulated across heat stress treatments. Spermidine synthase in

Arabidopsis dramatically improves stress tolerance when overexpressed via its effect on

multiple downstream targets (Kasukabe et al., 2004), while exogenous application of the

protein increases antioxidant tolerance in creeping bentgrass (Li et al., 2015). An

additional transcript of the core response potentially acting as an upstream effector of

numerous targets codes for LINE-1 reverse transcriptase. Recent work by Chen et al.

(2018) identified Ty1-copia-type LTR retrotransposons in *Symbiodinium microadriaticum*

which are activated by heat stress, suggesting that this may be a mechanism for the

generation of genetic variation under heat stress. Diatoms also possess stress-activated

retrotransposons, which are postulated to serves as generators of genetic variability

(Maumus et al., 2009). The involvement of retrotransposons in stress response has also

been observed across taxa. In plants, retrotransposons are activated by stress and go

on to activate numerous host regulatory pathways (Grandbastien, 2015, 1998).

D. trenchii response to heat stress depends on the symbiotic state
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The majority (88% *in hospite* and 76% free-living) of the transcriptional response

to thermal stress is specific to the symbiotic state of the dinoflagellate (Fig. 3B). Both

free-living and *in hospite D. trenchii* have distinct responses to a thermal challenge of

34°C not only at the level of transcript identity (Fig. 3), but also with regard to enriched

gene ontology terms which are unique to each symbiotic state (Fig. 5). *In hospite D.*

trenchii have transcriptional activity with parent GO terms such as mRNA transport, N-

terminal protein amino acid acetylation, and cellular response to temperature stimulus,

all of which are not enriched in the free-living transcriptomic response to heat stress

(Fig. 5). There is also a striking *in hospite*-specific decrease in GO terms within the

category "binding of sperm to zona pellucida" under heat stress. In the case of the free-

living state, negative regulation of viral genome replication is highly downregulated in

contrast to the symbiotic state (Fig. 5). While the analysis reveals that the majority of

ontologies affected by heat stress are disparate depending upon symbiotic state,

decreased activity of vesicle-mediated transport is a common theme in the heat stress

response of both *in hospite* and free-living *D. trenchii* (Fig. 5). Despite this particular

instance of overlap in function indicated by gene ontology analysis, the transcripts

underlying vesicle-mediated transport in free-living and symbiotic treatments are distinct

in the symbiotic and free-living conditions (Supplement_2_DEGs_Annotations.xlsx).

Remarkably, despite the more highly responsive transcriptome of *in hospite D.*

trenchii to heat stress than free-living cells, free-living *D. trenchii* mount a more dramatic

response to photoxidative stress than *in hospite* at both 28°C and 34°C (Fig. 6). Gene

ontology terms for thermoception and response to oxidative stress are also highly

represented in free-living *D. trenchii* at 34°C, whereas no enrichment is detected *in*

hospite (Fig. 6). This suggests that the intracellular environment of the host provides

some level of protection for the endosymbiont from some aspects of photothermal

stress, potentially by a modified light environment within the host. This is supported by

earlier work by Bhagooli and collaborators (Bhagooli et al., 2008), who found that

multiple genera of Symbiodiniaceae exposed to photothermal stress *in hospite* had

unaffected photosynthetic output and less impact to maximum quantum yield in

comparison to cultured cells across genera. Coral hosts possess multiple mechanisms

for sheltering endosymbionts including photoprotective host chromoproteins (Dove et

al., 2001; Quick et al., 2018; Salih et al., n.d.; Smith et al., 2013) and other host-

mediated modifications to the internal light environment, such as scattering by the coral

skeleton (Enríquez et al., 2005; Wangpraseurt et al., 2012). While this sheltering *in*

hospite may, on its surface, appear contradictory, we posit that the *in hospite* state has

a more complex transcriptional response to thermal stress overall, but that the host may

reduce light stress.

By examining ontologies from differentially expressed transcripts exclusively

associated with free-living and *in hospite* treatments, we found that the *in hospite* heat

stress response is highly enriched for mRNA transport and cellular response to

temperature stimulus (Fig. 5). We suggest that host sheltering of *in hospite* cells light

may contribute to a symbiont's capacity to maintain some cellular functions which may

be heavily impacted in unsheltered free-living cells. This may result in the mounting of a

more effective transcriptional response to heat stress. Under acute thermal stress, yeast

block mRNA transport of transcripts uninvolved in the heat stress response (Saavedra

et al., 1996). If unsheltered free-living cells are under more severe stress, experiencing

the unfiltered brunt of light in combination with heat stress, mRNA transport may be

highly inhibited, as suggested by our analyses.

The *in hospite* state also exhibits a dramatic reduction in GO term enrichment

within the biological process binding of sperm to zona pellucida, a response not

observed in the free-living comparison (Fig. 5). One of the transcripts underlying this

enrichment (TRINITY_DN30024_c0_g1_i6) has high identity to *sperm surface protein*

Sp17, a protein possessed by sperm which binds the zona pellucida during mammalian

fertilization, critical for cell adhesion (O'rand et al., 1995; Richardson et al., 1994). The

expression of the putative *Sp17* ortholog may function in the mediation of normal

symbiosis, potentially involved in adhesion between the symbiont and host, while the

observed decrease in expression may be a part of dysbiosis.

Taken together, the intracellular environment experienced by *in hospite*

symbionts represents a complex set of interactions between the host, the external

environment, and the endosymbiont. The disparate transcriptomes of stress *in hospite*

and free-living likely result from a combination of protection from some aspects of stress

by the host, the complexity of an intracellular environment compared with that of a free-

living cell, and further, the transcriptional activity involved in the mediation of the

symbiosis, as discussed in sections that follow.

Alterations required for the transition between free-living and symbiotic states

Comparing the *in hospite* and free-living transcriptomes of *D. trenchii* provides a

window into the alterations necessary for symbiotic living. Several processes are

exclusively enriched *in hospite* under non-stress conditions at 28°C, in comparison to

the free-living state (28°C symbiotic vs. 28°C free-living) (Fig. 6). Late endosome to

vacuole transport and mRNA cis splicing via spliceosome are both highly enriched *in*

hospite along with response to prostaglandin F. The roles of increased lysosome activity

and enhanced cis splicing in symbiosis are unknown, but complexities in

Symbiodiniaceae mRNA splicing, including trans-splicing (Zhang et al., 2007) and non-

canonical intron splicing (Aranda et al., 2016; Lin, 2011; Mendez et al., 2015). The

enrichment of response to prostaglandin F is extremely curious as the highest

concentrations of prostaglandins are found in corals, where these compounds are

produced by the host (Valmsen et al., 2001; Weinheimer and Spraggins, 1969).

Hydrogen peroxide catabolism is enriched *in hospite* at both 28°C and 34°C in

comparison to the free-living state, with higher activity at 34°C. Increased scavenging of

hydrogen peroxide *in hospite* could potentially be adaptive and necessary for

maintaining stable symbiosis, as while the release of peroxide in the free-living state is

likely of minimal detriment, the release of this form of ROS *in hospite* is held to induce

an immune response on the part of the host (reviewed by Weis, 2008).

In addition to the aforementioned enrichment of photooxidative stress terms in

the free-living state under thermal challenge (34°C), the transcripts upregulated in the

free-living state at 28°C are also enriched for numerous terms associated with response

to photooxidative stress. While this is amongst the highest activity of parent GO terms in

the free-living condition at both thermal treatments, no increase in enrichment is found

in the *in hospite* condition at either 28°C or 34°C. Dipeptide transport as well as

heterochromatin organization are also highly enriched in the free-living condition at

28°C.

D. trenchii* exhibits transcriptome reduction *in hospite

Genome reduction is a common phenomenon in obligate microbial

endosymbionts (Martínez-Cano et al., 2015; McCutcheon and Moran, 2012) which can

occur via multiple mechanisms. In obligate intracellular endosymbioses, there are some

common demographic conditions imposed upon the endosymbiont, namely relatively

small effective population size of endosymbionts, restriction to specific hosts, and

limited recombination between endosymbiont strains within the host (Martínez-Cano et

al., 2015). These conditions set the stage for genetic drift and loss of genes that are not

essential *in hospite*. However, this appears to not be the case in coral endosymbiosis,

given that all sequenced Symbiodiniaceae genomes are of approximately one gigabase

in size (Aranda et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2018; Shoguchi et al., 2013), nor

should it be expected, given that the coral endosymbiont must maintain the full

complement of genes for free-living persistence, as the majority of corals uptake their

endosymbionts from the free-living environment (Baird et al., 2009; Richmond and

Hunter, 1990). Further, Symbiodiniaceae have been found to exist in a free-living state

in numerous environments, including sediments and other benthic substrates, as

epiphytes, and in the water column (Granados-Cifuentes et al., 2015; Littman et al.,

2008; Takabayashi et al., 2012).

Despite this lack of genome reduction in Symbiodiniaceae, we identified a

significant downregulation of gene expression *in hospite* compared to free-living *D.*

trenchii at both temperatures. Free-living Symbiodiniaceae appear to require to a larger

transcriptional repertoire to persist in an extracellular environment, for functions

presumably including motility and coping with fluctuations experienced outside of the

confines of a host cell. This substantial downregulation of transcripts *in hospite* is

associated with enrichment of transcripts associated with heterochromatin organization

histone H3-K9 methylation (Fig. S2). The hypermethylated state of cultured, free-living

Symbiodinaceae was demonstrated by ten Lohuis and Miller (ten Lohuis and Miller,

1998), but comparisons to the *in hospite* condition have not been performed. Our results

suggest that chromatin remodeling may play an important role in the switch between the

free-living state and endosymbiosis, contributing to the substantial downregulation

associated with the symbiotic life phase. We consider this resulting transcriptome

reduction analogous to the genome reduction observed in numerous obligate symbiotic

systems.

The potential for sex in free-living Symbiodiniaceae

In many species, sex and reproduction are inextricably linked, but for some, sex

represents a special occasion. For instance, consider a member of a taxon sister to the

dinoflagellates, the apicomplexan *Plasmodium falciparum*. This malaria-causing

parasite only engages in sexual reproduction within its mosquito host (Kooij and

Matuschewski, 2007; Talman et al., 2004). Be it frequent or rare, the function of sex,

despite its apparent ubiquity, is not a settled case. One hypothesis regarding the

evolution of sex is that recombination mediated by sexual reproduction arose as a

mechanism to repair DNA damage in an individual (Bernstein et al., 1985). A competing

hypothesis holds that the advantage of meiotic recombination resides in the genetic

diversity afforded to offspring (Burt, 2000; Otto, 2009).

The role of sexual reproduction in the Symbiodiniaceae life cycle remains an

open question. A broad survey of Symbiodiniaceae by Santos and Coffroth (Santos and

Coffroth, 2003) concluded that Symbiodiniaceae are diploid in the vegetative life phase,

both in cultured and *in hospite* cells. However, apparent tetrads have long been

reported in cultured Symbiodiniaceae (Freudenthal, 1962), but it remains unknown

whether these tetrad-like arrangements represent meiotic events or simply two rounds

of mitosis. Symbiodiniaceae meiosis has yet to be demonstrated in an experimental

setting, but others have identified population genetic evidence of recombination (Baillie

et al., 2000; LaJeunesse, 2001). Further, Symbiodinaceae genomes possess a virtually

complete gene set for meiosis (Liu et al., 2018), suggesting that they have the potential

for sexual reproduction.

We posit that the free-living phase of life in Symbiodinacaea may provide the

opportunity for sex and recombination in the free-living state. In comparisons at 28°C,

several meiosis-related transcripts are upregulated in the free-living state in comparison

to the *in hospite* condition (*MSH6, RAD54*, *MEI2-like 2*, *MEI2-like 3*, and *MEI2-like 5*).

Our work also identifies a subset of these meiotic transcripts (three *MEI2-like 5*

transcripts*)* in the core heat stress response of *D. trenchii* that is shared by both *in*

hospite and free-living states. While Levin et al. (2016) also detected an upregulation of

meiosis-related genes under conditions of thermal stress in culture conditions, our work

adds a nuanced understanding of alterations in meiosis-related gene expression

between free-living and *in hospite D. trenchii*.

Recombination through sexual reproduction may be critical to the maintenance of

Symbiodiniaceae genomes. Muller's Ratchet dictates that asexual reproduction without

other forms of recombination has the potential for the accumulation of deleterious

mutations over generations (Felsenstein, 1974; Muller, 1964, 1932). This effect has

support from RNA viruses lacking recombination (Chao, 1997) and may be one of the

driving forces behind genome reduction in obligate endosymbionts (Andersson and

Kurland, 1998), but obligate symbionts may have other mechanisms to avert genomic

meltdown. Selection at the level of the holobiont has been suggested as one

mechanism of endosymbiont genome maintenance (Rispe and Moran, 2000), with

genomic degradation and losses observed likely to be neutral or nearly neutral

(Pettersson and Berg, 2007). We posit that recombination in the free-living phase of

Symbiodiniaceae may be instrumental in genomic maintenance of functions necessary

for the free-living state.

Evasion of host immunity by symbiont-derived factors

In order to maintain a stable endosymbiotic existence, members of the family

Symbiodiniaceae must evade the host immune system. A considerable number of

studies have shown that Symbiodiniaceae suppress and/or circumvent host immunity in

order to colonize and persist *in hospite*; multiple mechanisms of circumvention appear

to occur, including the suppression of apoptosis (Matthews et al., 2017; Rodriguez-

Lanetty et al., 2006; Tchernov et al., 2011) as well as the manipulation of markers of

endosome age (Chen et al., 2005, 2004, 2003). More recent work has identified

endosymbiont miRNAs which target host transcripts involved in immunity (Baumgarten

et al., 2018, 2013). We identified numerous transcripts involved in the suppression of

innate immunity and anti-inflammatory pathways, including a putative NRCL3 ortholog

and NF-κB inhibitor, which are upregulated in the symbiotic state. However, in order for

this to plausibly occur, the symbiont must be able transmit these signals to the host.

Based on transcriptome evidence, we postulate mechanisms for this below.

Apicomplexans, including parasites in the genus *Plasmodium,* possess

structures that form an apical complex which functions in host invasion and secretes

effectors into the host (reviewed by (Kemp et al., 2013). Cellular machinery in

Symbiodinaceae involved in the delivery of immune-suppressing factors to the host

remain unexplored, but this work identifies several abundant transcripts with homology

to components of the apicomplexan apical complex. One component of the apical

complex are micronemes, bar-like organelles which release micronemal proteins critical

for host cell recognition and attachment, linking parasite and host cell receptors (Brecht

et al., 2001; Carruthers and Tomley, 2008; Friedrich et al., 2010; Soldati et al., 2001)

and further are critical for the trafficking and storage of ligands for host-cell receptors

(Soldati et al., 2001).

D. trenchii possess numerous transcripts with homology to proteins associated

with the apicomplexan apical complex, including three apical complex lysine

methyltransferase transcripts (TRINITY_DN22464_c0_g1_i2,

TRINITY_DN12687_c0_g1_i1, and TRINITY_DN59290_c0_g1_i1) and AGC/AKT

protein kinase transcripts (TRINITY_DN23213_c0_g1_i1 and

TRINITY_DN55685_c0_g1_i1), and three putative microneme proteins

(TRINITY_DN25568_c0_g1_i1, TRINITY_DN48019_c0_g1_i1, and

TRINITY_DN29950_c0_g1_i3). While the majority of these transcripts are not

differentially expressed, two are highly upregulated *in hospite*. One of these transcripts

(TRINITY_DN29950_c0_g1_i3) is a putative ortholog of a *Toxoplasma* microneme

protein 4 (MIC4). In its role in infection, the *Toxoplasma* MIC4 is thought to contribute to

parasite adhesion by acting as a bridge between receptors on the parasite and the host

cell (Brecht et al., 2001). Another transcript upregulated *in hospite* with homology to

apicomplexan invasion machinery is a cGMP-dependent protein kinase

(TRINITY_DN29950_c0_g1_i3) which Collins et al. (Collins et al., 2013) show is

required for the release of micronemes in *Plasmodium*. Taken together, these

transcripts suggest the possibility of components of an apicomplexan-like apical

complex involved in the maintenance of intracellular symbiosis by *D. trenchii*, and

potentially the delivery of symbiont-derived factors which suppress the host immune

response to allow stable endosymbiosis.

Enhanced ammonium and ABC transporter activity *in hospite*

The controlled exchange of materials between the symbiont and host is of critical

importance for the persistence of both partners (Behie and Bidochka, 2014; Moya et al.,

2008). Our study identified transporters active in the symbiotic state for both ammonium

transport and assimilation, as well as a diverse group of ABC transporters which may be

involved in the movement of numerous as-yet unidentified substrates into and out the

symbiont.

The acquisition of inorganic nitrogen is of critical importance to photosynthetic

endosymbionts. Pernice et al. (Pernice et al., 2012) demonstrated that *in hospite*

dinoflagellates fix 14 to 23 times more nitrogen than coral host cells in ammonium-

enriched water. In the *in hospite* state, we identify the upregulation of an ammonium

transporter transcript as well as two glutamine synthetase transcripts. This is congruent

with the longstanding support for glutamine synthetase activity as the mechanism by

which Symbiodinacaea assimilate ammonium from seawater and re-assimilate waste

ammonium from the cnidarian host (Anderson and Burris, 1987).

In the *in hospite* state, five transcripts annotated as ABC transporters are

upregulated in comparison to the free-living state at 28°C (Table S5). While numerous

host ABC transporters are upregulated in the proteomes of symbiotic *Exaiptasia pallida*

by Matthews et al. (2017), with earlier work by Peng et al. (2010) identifying an ABC

transporter associated with the symbiosome, this represents the first functional

evidence *in hospite* Symbiodiniaceae transporter activity in a cnidarian. ABC

transporters comprise a family of proteins responsible for the transport of diverse

substrates, including ions, nutrients, amino acids, peptides, proteins, lipids, metals,

lipids, oligonucleotides, and sugars (Locher, 2016; Wilkens, 2015).

Conclusion

In summary, our results demonstrate that symbiotic state has major impacts on

Symbiodiniaceae gene expression, both in steady state symbiosis and under conditions

of acute thermal stress. While prior work has found physiological differences between *in*

hospite and free-living Symbiodiniaceae (e.g. Banaszak and Trench, 1995; Bhagooli et

al., 2008), effect of the intracellular habitat on the transcriptome has not previously been

appreciated. The *in hospite* response to thermal stress differs dramatically from that of

free-living *D. trenchii*, with the transcriptome of *in hospite* endosymbionts hallmarked by

higher differential gene expression activity overall and enriched for mRNA transport

activity as well as a specialized cell adhesion process. While we identify a core heat

stress response shared between free-living and *in hospite D. trenchii*, this represents

only a minority of transcriptional activity. Our findings also reveal the divergent

processes at work in free-living and *in hospite* cells under non-stress conditions, with

free-living *D. trenchii* exhibiting evidence suggestive of sexual reproduction and *in*

hospite cells displaying reduced differential expression in a process we term

transcriptome reduction, as well as putative host evasion activity. We posit that the

observed transcriptomic reduction of non-essential genes *in hospite* may be an

alternative adaptive strategy to genome reduction for endosymbionts that must also

maintain the capacity for a free-living life phase. We intend for this to serves as the

basis for future gene editing efforts to understand the genetic basis of symbiosis and

dysbiosis, with the ultimate aim of engineering of stress-tolerant coral endosymbionts.

These efforts will for provide additional options in future reef protection and restoration

efforts desperately needed for the persistence of coral reefs into the 21st century.

Materials and Methods

Aposymbiotic *Exaiptasia pallida* (strain CC7) were inoculated with *D. trenchii*

(strain CCMP2556) and maintained with feeding of *Artemia franciscana* twice weekly for

12 months. Free-living *D. trenchii* were cultured in Prov50 (Smith and Chanley, 1975)

medium and maintained in log phase via regular passage. To identify thermal

treatments that elicited an acute heat stress response, *Durusdinium trenchii* (strain

CCMP2556) cultures were exposed to thermal stress and assessed with PAM

fluorometry (Fig. S1). Based upon the observed rapid decline in Fv/Fm at 34 °C in

contrast to the maintained photosynthetic efficiency at 28 °C (Fig. S1), these treatments

were selected and implemented for comparisons following 6 hours at the target

temperatures. Symbiotic anemones and free-living *D. trenchii* cultures were held at

28°C under light intensity levels of 80 µE (12:12 light:dark cycle) and ramped up to the

34°C challenge at a rate of 2°C per day for thermal stress treatments, with increases of

temperature performed at the beginning of the photoperiod. Free-living (cultured) *D.*

trenchii and *in hospite D. trenchii* were frozen in liquid nitrogen mid-photoperiod for

sampling. Heat stress treatments were exposed to 34°C for a total of six hours. The

experiment was replicated temporally (n=3-4). Total RNA was extracted from

Symbiodiniaceae cells, with *in hospite* samples depleted of cnidarian host material prior

to extraction using a novel endosymbiont enrichment method (See Supplement 1 for

detailed methods). Stranded RNAseq libraries were prepared from poly(A) selected

RNA with the NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep Kit (NEB, Cambridge, MA) and

sequenced across two Illumina HiSeq lanes. A reference transcriptome was assembled

and filtered to remove host, other non-Symbiodiniaceae transcripts, and ribosomal RNA

transcripts. Principal component analysis was conducted using the prcomp function

from the stats package within R and statistical inference of significant transcripts driving

the principal components was conducting using the jackstraw package in R. The

resulting transcriptome was annotated using Trinotate (https://trinotate.github.io/) with

BLASTX and BLASTP searches performed against the SwissProt and Uniref90

databases using DIAMOND, an accelerated sequence aligner comparable to NCBI

BLAST+ (Buchfink et al., 2015). Following Trinotate, we employed the structural protein

homology detection program HH-Pred and the PDB70 database to identify remote

homologs in all remaining un-annotated transcripts using a strict cut-off of 80%

probability. Annotation was further supplemented by using Blast2GO (Conesa et al.,

2005) in combination with BLASTX searches against the non-redundant NCBI protein

database with DIAMOND and Interproscan under default settings. Gene ontology terms

acquired for each transcript during the annotation process from Trinotate, HHPred

(Söding et al., 2005), and Blast2GO were merged and redundant terms resulting from

the integration of the three annotation tools were removed prior to downstream

analyses. Following transcript quantification with Salmon (Patro et al., 2017), differential

gene expression analysis was performed in edgeR (Robinson et al., 2010) using a

generalized linear model to determine the effects of temperature and symbiotic state as

well as the interaction between the two on changes in transcript expression.

Differentially expressed transcripts were subject to gene ontology (GO) enrichment

analyses within the R package topGO (Alexa and Rahnenführer, 2016). GO results for

comparisons were visualized using REVIGO (Supek et al., 2011). Methods are

described in detail in Supplement 1.

References

Figure 1: Durusdinium trenchii in free-living culture state (top) and in hospite in E.

pallida (second panel). Schematic of experimental treatments (lower panels) comparing

symbiotic state and thermal stress, with temperature and light profiles.

Figure 2. A) Principal component analysis depicting the ordination of biological
replicates by all analyzed transcripts. (B) Summary of the number of transcripts driving
PC1 and PC2, the number of transcripts DE according to edgeR, and the number of
transcripts that were both DE and significant drivers of PC1 and PC2.

Figure 3. Venn diagrams of the number of differentially expressed transcripts by

pairwise comparison (FDR-corrected p < 0.01, greater than 2-fold difference). A)

Contrasts transcriptional changes between in hospite and free-living transcripts at 28°C

and 34°C. B) Comparison of transcripts differentially expressed in the free-living and in

hospite condition, with the core heat stress response represented by the overlapping

region.

Figure 4. *Core heat stress response transcripts. The heatmap reflects annotated*

transcripts differentially expressed in both in hospite and free-living thermal stress

conditions. (Unannotated transcripts omitted.)

Figure 5. *Counts of GO terms enriched exclusively in the free-living and in hospite heat*

stress response. (Terms associated with transcripts differentially expressed in both in

hospite and free-living conditions were excluded from this enrichment analysis).

Figure 6. *Counts of GO terms associated with up- and downregulated transcripts*

across all comparisons. Parent GO terms are listed for all categories with a minimum

sum of two daughter terms across all comparisons.

Supplement 1

Supplemental Materials and Methods

Experimental Overview

Briefly, the experimental design compares D. trenchii in the free-living state

(culture) and in hospite in an Exaiptasia host under two different temperature regimens,

a steady-state culture temperature of 28°C and a thermal stress of 34°C, both under

light intensity levels of 80 µE. Four biological replicates of each condition were

implemented, with replication performed in time.

Exaiptasia symbiont manipulation and Symbiodinacaea culture

Aposymbiotic Exaiptasia were produced through repeated cold treatment (8

hours at 4°C, repeated three times over the course of one week) followed by DCMU

treatment (50 uM) performed for 6 hours with 1000 µmol m−2 s−1 light intensity,

repeated twice weekly for 3 weeks. Absence of dinoflagellates was confirmed with

fluorescent microscopy. D. trenchii strain CCMP2556 was obtained from the National

Center for Marine Algae and Microbiota (East Boothbay, Maine) and cultured in Prov50

media under a 12:12 light cycle. Log phase cultures were used for all experiments.

Aposymbiotic anemones were challenged with 100,000 log phase Durusdinium trenchii

cells combined with freshly hatched Artemia franciscana in a total volume of 10 ml of

sterile seawater, with water replaced after 12 hours . Infection was confirmed by

fluorescent microscopy, followed by PCR and sequencing of 23S. Anemones hosting D.

trenchii were grown for one year prior to experimental manipulation with light levels at

approximately 80 µmol m−2 s−1. Anemones were fed freshly hatched Artemia twice

weekly.

Symbiosis state comparison and thermal challenge

To inform the design of this experiment, maximum quantum yield in cultured D.

trenchii was assessed through time, at temperatures from 28 to 36° C (n=3) using a

PAM fluorometer (Walz, Germany). We found that the rapid decline in maximum

quantum yield began at 34°C at 2 hours of thermal stress. In an 8 hour timespan, we did

not find significant decline at the lower thermal treatments.

Anemones and cultures were maintained at 28°C with 80 µmol m−2 s−1

irradiance and ramped up to the 34° C challenge at a rate of 2°C per day for thermal

stress treatments. Mid-photoperiod (6 hours into light phase of the diel cycle), samples

were frozen for subsequent RNA extraction. Log phase D. trenchii cultures were used

for all experiments. Replicates were performed in time, with one replicate of each

treatment included in each trial. A total of four biological replicates were collected for

each treatment.

Symbiodinacaea RNA Extraction Enrichment Protocol

Anemones were frozen in minimal seawater in 2 ml cryotubes in liquid nitrogen

and stored at -80°C till extraction. For enrichment of Symbiodiniaceae from anemone

extractions, 500 ul of Buffer RLT with 0.1% 2-mercaptoethanol (Qiagen) was added to

each tube and manually flicked till frozen tissue was dislodged and decanted into 1.5 ml

centrifuge tube. Tissue was gently homogenized with a plastic pestle and vortexed at

maximum speed for 1 minute. Homogenate was centrifuged at 10,000 g for 3 min. Clear

supernatant was carefully removed and discarded, leaving the symbiont pellet intact.

This pellet was resuspended in 1.4 ml of Buffer RLT and vortexed till the mixture was

homogenous. This suspension was centrifuged at 3,000 g for 3 min. Clear supernatant

was discarded, and an additional 1.4 ml of Buffer RLT was added vortexed till

homogenous. This was centrifuged at 3,000 g for 3 minutes and clear supernatant was

discarded prior to resuspension in 600 ul Buffer RLT. Contents were transferred to a

screw top 2.0 ml tube and bead beat for 1 min at 6 m/s with glass beads. Homogenate

was processed with the Qiagen RNeasy Kit as per manufacturer instructions, with an

additional RPE Buffer wash prior to elution of total RNA. Symbiodiniaceae were snap

frozen in liquid nitrogen and extracted alongside anemone tissue, implementing an

identical washing scheme to eliminate any extraction-based bias.

Library Construction and Sequencing

Following poly(A) selection from total RNA, RNAseq libraries were constructed

from mRNA using the NEBNext Ultra Directional RNA Library Prep Kit (NEB). A total of

16 libraries were sequenced on two Illumina HiSeq lanes, using v4 150 base pair

paired-end chemistry (Illumina). The indexed samples were pooled across both lanes to

eliminate lane effects. Raw data have been archived on the SRA and is available under

NCBI TSA BioProject PRJNA508937.

De novo transcriptome assembly

Quality of the resulting raw reads were assessed via FastQC and low-quality

reads were removed and/or trimmed with Trimmomatic (Bolger et al., 2014) with a

minimum read length threshold of 50 bp. Trimmed reads that aligned concordantly

against the human and Exaiptasia pallida genomes using the HISAT2 (Kim et al., 2015)

program to remove any contaminating eukaryotic reads. Remaining reads were then

filtered using all bacterial, archaeal, and viral genomes present in RefSeq (as of Sep. 8,

2017) using Kraken, an ultra-fast taxonomic sequence classification program (Wood

and Salzberg, 2014). The 526,545,945 remaining PE reads were then assembled with

Trinity v2.4.2 (Grabherr et al., 2011) with a minimum contig length of 200 bp.

Redundant contigs were removed using uCLUST (Edgar, 2010) at an identity

threshold of 100%. Removal of eukaryotic contaminants via Hisat2 and prokaryotic

contigs via Kraken (Wood and Salzberg, 2014) was repeated once more on the

transcriptome assembly to remove any lingering contamination that could not be

identified from the raw reads. Ribosomal RNA contamination was identified and

removed by aligning transcriptome contigs against all of the SILVA rRNA databases

(Quast et al., 2012) with Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) resulting in a final

assembly of 85,130 contigs. Assembly statistics were calculated using Transrate

(Smith-Unna et al., 2016) (Supplementary Table 1).

For annotation, the assembly was searched against the NR protein database

using DIAMOND, a fast search algorithm that employs double-indexing and spaced

seeds of various weights and shape to make it ~20,000x faster than BLASTX with

comparable level of sensitivity and accuracy (Buchfink et al., 2015). These results were

input into with Trinotate using BLASTP and BLASTX searches against the SwissProt

and Uniref90 databases with an e-value cutoff of < 1 x 10^{-5}. Open reading frames

(ORFs) were predicted using Transdecoder under the default settings. Gene ontology

classifications were extracted from search results against the SwissProt database. The

searches were conducted using DIAMOND, a fast search algorithm that employs

double-indexing and spaced seeds of various weights and shape to make it ~20,000x

faster than BLAST with a similar sensitivity and accuracy (Buchfink et al., 2015).

Additional annotation was performed using Blast2GO (Conesa et al., 2005), with

redundant GO terms removed with a custom script.

Quality-controlled reads were mapped back to the final assembly using Salmon

at an average mapping rate of 88% and 30.1 million reads per sample. Mapping results

were imported into R for differential gene expression analysis with the edgeR package

(Robinson et al., 2010). Low-count transcripts that across all samples with a mapping

rate of < 10 reads were removed prior to count normalization within R. Differential gene

expression anlysis was then performed in edgeR using a generalized linear model to

determine the effects of temperature and symbiotic state as well as the interaction

between the two on changes in gene expression. Four pairwise comparisons were then

conducted using the GLM: (1) free-living at 28 ℃ vs. free-living at 34 ℃ (2) symbiotic at

28℃ vs. symbiotic at 34 ℃ (3) free-living at 28 ℃ vs. symbiotic at 28 ℃ and (4) free-

living at 34 ℃ and symbiotic at 34 ℃. An additional comparison with the GLM was done

using the formula ((symbiotic at 34 ℃ vs. free-living at 34 ℃) - (free-living at 28 ℃ vs.

symbiotic at 28 ℃)) to determine genes that were differentially expressed in response

to symbiosis but responded differently to temperature. Results from each of the five

comparisons in edgeR were then used for gene ontology (GO) enrichment analyses

within the R package topGO. GO results for the different comparisons were summarized

and viewed using the web-based REVIGO program (Supek et al., 2011).

Supplement 1 (Supporting Figures and Tables)

Supplementary Figure 1. *Maximum quantum yield of D. trenchii cultures assessed via*

PAM fluorometry throughout a thermal stress timecourse.

Supplementary Figure 2. *Volcano plots of all transcripts; transcripts with FDR*

corrected p-value < 0.01 and greater than log$_2$ 2-fold difference are indicated in red.

Supplementary Figure 3. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms associated*

with transcripts up-regulated in response to symbiosis compared to free-living D.

trenchii at 28 °C.

716 ***Supplementary Figure 4.*** *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms associated*

717 *with transcripts down-regulated in response to symbiosis compared to free-living D.*

718 *trenchii at 28 °C.*

Supplementary Figure 5. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms associated*

with transcripts up-regulated in response to symbiosis compared to free-living D.

trenchii at 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 6. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms associated*

with transcripts down-regulated in response to symbiosis compared to free-living D.

trenchii at 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 7. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms associated*

with transcripts up-regulated in response to temperature stress in in hospite D. trenchii

at 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 8. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms associated*

with transcripts down-regulated in response to temperature stress in in hospite D.

trenchii at 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 9. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms associated*

with transcripts up-regulated in response to temperature stress in free-living D. trenchii

at 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 10. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms*

associated with transcripts down-regulated in response to temperature stress in free-

living D. trenchii at 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 11. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms*

associated with transcripts that were up-regulated in response to symbiosis in D.

trenchii at both 28 °C and 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 12. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms*

associated with transcripts that were down-regulated in response to symbiosis in D.

trenchii at both 28 °C and 34 °C.

Supplementary Figure 13. *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms*

associated with transcripts that were up-regulated in response to temperature stress in

both free-living and symbiotic D. trenchii.

766
767   ***Supplementary Figure 14.*** *REVIGO tree diagram summary of the GO terms*

768   *associated with transcripts that were down-regulated in response to temperature stress*

769   *in both free-living and symbiotic D. trenchii.*

Assembly metrics	
Total PE read sets after QC	526,545,945
Total PE read sets after QC (%)	81.5%
Assembly length (Mbp)	81.7
# Transcripts	85,168
Predicted ORF count	47,335
Genes annotated	28,531
Genes annotated (%)	60.3%
Longest gene length (bp)	8,088
Mean gene length (bp)	960.36
N50 (bp)	1,470
GC content (%)	0.55

772   **Supplementary Table 1.** *Assembly statistics for the D. trenchii assembly*

GO ID	Term	Annotated	Significant	FDR
GO:0003374	dynamin family protein polymerization involved in mitochondrial fission	6	3	0.0001
GO:0007089	traversing start control point of mitotic cell cycle	2	2	0.0003
GO:0018107	peptidyl-threonine phosphorylation	14	3	0.0017
GO:1904146	positive regulation of meiotic cell cycle process involved in oocyte maturation	4	2	0.0018
GO:0044341	sodium-dependent phosphate transport	5	2	0.0029
GO:0031649	heat generation	60	4	0.003
GO:0002024	diet induced thermogenesis	17	3	0.003
GO:0048266	behavioral response to pain	17	3	0.003
GO:0050960	detection of temperature stimulus involved in thermoreception	17	3	0.003

GO:0050965	detection of temperature stimulus involved in sensory perception	17	3	0.003
GO:0060083	smooth muscle contraction involved in micturition	17	3	0.003
GO:0060454	positive regulation of gastric acid secretion	17	3	0.003
GO:0071318	cellular response to ATP	17	3	0.003
GO:0071502	cellular response to temperature stimulus	17	3	0.003
GO:1901594	response to capsazepine	17	3	0.003
GO:0043154	negative regulation of cysteine-type endopeptidase activity involved in apoptotic process	18	3	0.0035
GO:0071468	cellular response to acidic pH	18	3	0.0035
GO:0090212	negative regulation of establishment of blood-brain barrier	18	3	0.0035
GO:0098703	calcium ion import across plasma membrane	18	3	0.0035
GO:0014047	glutamate secretion	19	3	0.0041

GO ID	Description	Count	Hits	p-value
GO:0060337	type I interferon signaling pathway	19	3	0.0041
GO:0006975	DNA damage induced protein phosphorylation	6	2	0.0043
GO:0032264	IMP salvage	6	2	0.0043
GO:0001774	microglial cell activation	21	3	0.0055
GO:0090399	replicative senescence	7	2	0.006
GO:0050968	detection of chemical stimulus involved in sensory perception of pain	23	3	0.0072
GO:0030091	protein repair	8	2	0.0079
GO:0045957	negative regulation of complement activation, alternative pathway	8	2	0.0079
GO:1900004	negative regulation of serine-type endopeptidase activity	8	2	0.0079
GO:0045959	negative regulation of complement activation, classical pathway	9	2	0.0101
GO:0045589	regulation of regulatory T cell differentiation	10	2	0.0125

GO:0050954	sensory perception of mechanical stimulus	28	3	0.0125
GO:0046777	protein autophosphorylation	53	4	0.0136
GO:0071312	cellular response to alkaloid	31	3	0.0165
GO:0010044	response to aluminum ion	1	1	0.0175
GO:0032962	positive regulation of inositol trisphosphate biosynthetic process	1	1	0.0175
GO:0034696	response to prostaglandin F	1	1	0.0175
GO:0036466	synaptic vesicle recycling via endosome	1	1	0.0175
GO:0046519	sphingoid metabolic process	1	1	0.0175
GO:0051482	positive regulation of cytosolic calcium ion concentration involved in phospholipase C-activating G-protein coupled signaling pathway	1	1	0.0175
GO:0060716	labyrinthine layer blood vessel development	1	1	0.0175
GO:0070584	mitochondrion morphogenesis	1	1	0.0175

4				
GO:009014 9	*mitochondrial membrane fission*	*1*	*1*	*0.0175*
GO:190024 4	*positive regulation of synaptic vesicle endocytosis*	*1*	*1*	*0.0175*
GO:190457 9	*cellular response to thapsigargin*	*1*	*1*	*0.0175*
GO:190539 5	*response to flavonoid*	*1*	*1*	*0.0175*
GO:199091 0	*response to hypobaric hypoxia*	*1*	*1*	*0.0175*
GO:200030 2	*positive regulation of synaptic vesicle exocytosis*	*1*	*1*	*0.0175*
GO:000600 2	*fructose 6-phosphate metabolic process*	*12*	*2*	*0.0179*
GO:003112 2	*cytoplasmic microtubule organization*	*12*	*2*	*0.0179*
GO:003296 8	*positive regulation of transcription elongation from RNA polymerase II promoter*	*12*	*2*	*0.0179*
GO:001507 4	*DNA integration*	*33*	*3*	*0.0195*
GO:000039	*mRNA splicing, via spliceosome*	*90*	*5*	*0.0205*

8				
GO:009030 7	mitotic spindle assembly	13	2	0.0209
GO:003109 8	stress-activated protein kinase signaling cascade	107	3	0.0242
GO:003250 7	maintenance of protein location in cell	15	2	0.0274
GO:004331 2	neutrophil degranulation	66	4	0.0281
GO:005128 9	protein homotetramerization	66	4	0.0281
GO:000728 6	spermatid development	16	2	0.031
GO:000734 4	pronuclear fusion	2	1	0.0346
GO:001056 9	regulation of double-strand break repair via homologous recombination	2	1	0.0346
GO:001070 1	positive regulation of norepinephrine secretion	2	1	0.0346
GO:001076 7	regulation of transcription from RNA polymerase II promoter in response to UV-induced DNA damage	2	1	0.0346

GO:0016325	oocyte microtubule cytoskeleton organization	2	1	0.0346
GO:0016559	peroxisome fission	2	1	0.0346
GO:0019509	L-methionine salvage from methylthioadenosine	2	1	0.0346
GO:0023016	signal transduction by trans-phosphorylation	2	1	0.0346
GO:0032298	positive regulation of DNA-dependent DNA replication initiation	2	1	0.0346
GO:0034311	diol metabolic process	2	1	0.0346
GO:0036438	maintenance of lens transparency	2	1	0.0346
GO:0045196	establishment or maintenance of neuroblast polarity	2	1	0.0346
GO:0045450	bicoid mRNA localization	2	1	0.0346
GO:0061003	positive regulation of dendritic spine morphogenesis	2	1	0.0346
GO:0071476	cellular hypotonic response	2	1	0.0346
GO:0072421	signal transduction involved in G2	2	1	0.0346

5	DNA damage checkpoint			
GO:009018 8	negative regulation of pancreatic juice secretion	2	1	0.0346
GO:009020 0	positive regulation of release of cytochrome c from mitochondria	2	1	0.0346
GO:190006 3	regulation of peroxisome organization	2	1	0.0346
GO:190540 8	negative regulation of creatine transmembrane transporter activity	2	1	0.0346
GO:200065 0	negative regulation of sodium ion transmembrane transporter activity	2	1	0.0346
GO:200068 1	negative regulation of rubidium ion transport	2	1	0.0346
GO:005157 0	regulation of histone H3-K9 methylation	17	2	0.0347
GO:003460 5	cellular response to heat	42	3	0.0366
GO:000028 9	nuclear-transcribed mRNA poly(A) tail shortening	18	2	0.0387
GO:007135 6	cellular response to tumor necrosis factor	126	6	0.0414
GO:004660 5	regulation of centrosome cycle	19	2	0.0427

GO:0045429	positive regulation of nitric oxide biosynthetic process	45	3	0.0436
GO:0043434	response to peptide hormone	76	4	0.0437

Supplementary Table 2. *Gene ontology enrichment analysis results comparing the*

transcriptional profiles of D. trenchii when in hospite at 28 °C to the free-living stage at

28 °C

GO ID	Term	Annotated	Significant	FDR
GO:0003341	cilium movement	36	13	5.10E-11
GO:0001539	cilium or flagellum-dependent cell motility	27	9	1.20E-07
GO:0009250	glucan biosynthetic process	61	10	0.00012
GO:1904146	positive regulation of meiotic cell cycle process involved in oocyte maturation	4	3	0.00014
GO:0007089	traversing start control point of mitotic cell cycle	2	2	0.00109
GO:0015671	oxygen transport	25	5	0.00117
GO:0015701	bicarbonate transport	26	5	0.00141
GO:0045957	negative regulation of complement activation, alternative pathway	8	3	0.00177
GO:1900004	negative regulation of serine-type endopeptidase activity	8	3	0.00177
GO:0045959	negative regulation of complement activation, classical pathway	9	3	0.00258

GO:004558 9	regulation of regulatory T cell differentiation	10	3	0.0036
GO:004274 4	hydrogen peroxide catabolic process	32	5	0.00368
GO:000686 5	amino acid transport	123	12	0.00569
GO:000715 7	heterophilic cell-cell adhesion via plasma membrane cell adhesion molecules	12	3	0.00629
GO:005196 5	positive regulation of synapse assembly	13	3	0.00797
GO:007031 7	negative regulation of G0 to G1 transition	5	2	0.01017
GO:004545 4	cell redox homeostasis	134	10	0.01322
GO:000337 4	dynamin family protein polymerization in mitochondrial fission	6	2	0.01493
GO:000645 2	translational frameshifting	6	2	0.01493
GO:190247 5	L-alpha-amino acid transmembrane transport	6	2	0.01493
GO:005077	positive regulation of dendrite	7	2	0.02045

5	*morphogenesis*			
GO:0006813	*potassium ion transport*	*115*	*8*	*0.02218*
GO:0030091	*protein repair*	*8*	*2*	*0.02668*
GO:0098869	*cellular oxidant detoxification*	*53*	*5*	*0.02997*
GO:0010044	*response to aluminum ion*	*1*	*1*	*0.03302*
GO:0032962	*positive regulation of inositol trisphosphate biosynthetic process*	*1*	*1*	*0.03302*
GO:0034696	*response to prostaglandin F*	*1*	*1*	*0.03302*
GO:0035444	*nickel cation transmembrane transport*	*1*	*1*	*0.03302*
GO:0036466	*synaptic vesicle recycling via endosome*	*1*	*1*	*0.03302*
GO:0042908	*xenobiotic transport*	*1*	*1*	*0.03302*
GO:0051482	*positive regulation of cytosolic calcium ion concentration involved in phospholipase C-activating G-protein coupled signaling pathway*	*1*	*1*	*0.03302*

GO:006071 6	labyrinthine layer blood vessel development	1	1	0.03302
GO:007040 7	oxidation-dependent protein catabolic process	1	1	0.03302
GO:007058 4	mitochondrion morphogenesis	1	1	0.03302
GO:007243 2	response to G1 DNA damage checkpoint signaling	1	1	0.03302
GO:009014 9	mitochondrial membrane fission	1	1	0.03302
GO:009029 6	regulation of mitochondrial DNA replication	1	1	0.03302
GO:190024 4	positive regulation of synaptic vesicle endocytosis	1	1	0.03302
GO:190457 9	cellular response to thapsigargin	1	1	0.03302
GO:190539 5	response to flavonoid	1	1	0.03302
GO:199091 0	response to hypobaric hypoxia	1	1	0.03302
GO:200030 2	positive regulation of synaptic vesicle exocytosis	1	1	0.03302
GO:000689	receptor-mediated endocytosis	104	8	0.03359

8				
GO:005129 1	*protein heterooligomerization*	*55*	*5*	*0.03447*
GO:000028 9	*nuclear-transcribed mRNA poly(A) tail shortening*	*18*	*3*	*0.0489*

780 **Supplementary Table 3.** *Gene ontology enrichment analysis results comparing the*

781 *transcriptional profiles of D. trenchii when in hospite at 34 °C to the free-living stage at*

782 *34 °C.*

GO ID	Term	Annotated	Significant	FDR
GO:0042545	cell wall modification	2	1	0.01
GO:0007218	neuropeptide signaling pathway	3	1	0.015
GO:0019594	mannitol metabolic process	3	1	0.015
GO:0060012	synaptic transmission, glycinergic	3	1	0.015
GO:0070247	regulation of natural killer cell apoptotic process	3	1	0.015
GO:0071266	de novo' L-methionine biosynthetic process	3	1	0.015
GO:1990001	inhibition of cysteine-type endopeptidase activity involved in apoptotic process	4	1	0.02
GO:0007023	post-chaperonin tubulin folding pathway	5	1	0.025
GO:0015801	aromatic amino acid transport	5	1	0.025
GO:0045899	positive regulation of RNA polymerase II transcriptional preinitation complex assembly	6	1	0.03
GO:0000186	activation of MAPKK activity	7	1	0.034
GO:0032801	receptor catabolic process	8	1	0.039
GO:0045957	negative regulation of complement activation, alternative pathway	8	1	0.039

GO:1900004	negative regulation of serine-type endopeptidase activity	8	1	0.039
GO:0045959	negative regulation of complement activation, classical pathway	9	1	0.044
GO:0006072	glycerol-3-phosphate metabolic process	10	1	0.049
GO:0045589	regulation of regulatory T cell differentiation	10	1	0.049
GO:0060056	mammary gland involution	10	1	0.049

785 **Supplementary Table 4.** *Gene ontology enrichment analysis results comparing the*

786 *transcriptional profiles of D. trenchii when free-living at 34 °C to the free-living stage at*

787 *28 °C.*

GO ID	Term	Annotated	Significant	FDR
GO:0010021	amylopectin biosynthetic process	2	1	0.014
GO:0045454	cell redox homeostasis	134	4	0.015
GO:0005978	glycogen biosynthetic process	30	2	0.019
GO:0007523	larval visceral muscle development	3	1	0.021
GO:0036059	nephrocyte diaphragm assembly	3	1	0.021
GO:0046832	negative regulation of RNA export from nucleus	3	1	0.021
GO:0071108	protein K48-linked deubiquitination	3	1	0.021
GO:0007156	homophilic cell adhesion via plasma membrane adhesion molecules	4	1	0.028
GO:0070536	protein K63-linked deubiquitination	4	1	0.028
GO:0097206	nephrocyte filtration	5	1	0.035
GO:0006426	glycyl-tRNA aminoacylation	6	1	0.042

	6			
GO:004212 8	*nitrate assimilation*	*6*	*1*	*0.042*
GO:004589 9	*positive regulation of RNA polymerase II transcriptional preinitiation complex assembly*	*6*	*1*	*0.042*
GO:005129 2	*nuclear pore complex assembly*	*6*	*1*	*0.042*
GO:000647 4	*N-terminal protein amino acid acetylation*	*7*	*1*	*0.049*
GO:000654 2	*glutamine biosynthetic process*	*7*	*1*	*0.049*
GO:000707 6	*mitotic chromosome condensation*	*7*	*1*	*0.049*

790 **Supplementary Table 5.** *Gene ontology enrichment analysis results comparing the*

791 *transcriptional profiles of D. trenchii when in hospite at 34 °C to symbiosis at 28 °C.*